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KING'S  
COMPLETE  
HISTORY  
*of the*  
WORLD WAR

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Europe's War with Bolshevism  
War of the Turkish Partition

INTRODUCTION BY  
MARSHAL FERDINAND FOCH





COLL. CHRISTI REGIS SJ.  
BIG MAJOR  
TORONTO



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# KING'S COMPLETE HISTORY *of the* WORLD WAR

Vividly Illustrated with Panoramic Charts

Visualizing the Great Conflict in all Theaters of Action

1914—1918

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EUROPE'S WAR WITH BOLSHEVISM

1919—1920

WAR OF THE TURKISH PARTITION

1920—1921

WARFARE IN IRELAND, INDIA, EGYPT, FAR EAST

1916—1921

EPOCHAL EVENTS THRU-OUT THE CIVILIZED WORLD

FROM FERDINAND'S ASSASSINATION TO DISARMAMENT CONFERENCE

Most Eventful Period of Man's Career Since Time Began

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Officer de l'Instruction Publique, et des Beaux-Arts

AUTHOR OF

CROSSING THE CENTURIES

(The World's History Within Compass of One Volume)

KING'S VISUALIZED CHARTS OF AMERICAN HISTORY

(For Use In Public Schools)

Etc., Etc., Etc.

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INTRODUCTION BY

MARSHAL FERDINAND FOCH

Commander-in-Chief of the Allied Armies

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APPROVED BY THE WORLD'S HIGHEST COURT OF MILITARY AUTHORITY

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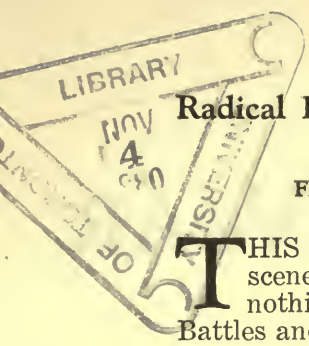
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SPRINGFIELD, MASSACHUSETTS



# THE WAR VISUALIZED

Radical Departure in Illustration — Complete Panorama of the War in Colors

FROM FERDINAND'S ASSASSINATION TO THE ARMISTICE

**T**HIS work does not follow the old way of scattering unrelated war scenes through the text which are of but little historic value and mean nothing to the reader in visualizing the Great Campaigns, Important Battles and Naval Combats as to time, place, chronological order, and contemporaneous association.

The Editor of this History has carefully worked out a series of Picture Charts — a chart for each year of the War, with one additional chart devoted to portraits of the World's Foremost Statesmen and Military Strategists, who were responsible for the Military and Naval operations of the Great Conflict.

These Charts instantly bring before your eye a Vivid, Composite Picture of the Concurrent Battles raging in all the Great War Areas on both land and sea.

As it were — you stand on a high eminence overlooking the World-Wide arena of Carnage, viewing the Titanic Struggles in each theater of strife, simultaneously taking place.


Thus as you view the Mighty Conflict, the Terrific Battles, and Outstanding Events, they automatically arrange themselves permanently in your mind, just as each State of the Union takes its proper position, and every great city locates itself in your mind, as you recall the map of the United States.

A brief survey of a Chart will so firmly fix the great events in the mind, in point of time, place and association as to make the descriptive text fairly bristle with life and interest.

These Charts of themselves constitute a vivid panoramic history of the war, which will prove of transcendent value to the reader, enabling him to quickly grasp a comprehensive, organized understanding of the progression and association of the great events of the War.

For example, as you recall the first Battle of the Marne, you instantly see, through your mind's eye, that the Immortal Battle of the Marne immediately followed the Bloody Battle of Nancy, where Foch so signally distinguished himself. While these two great battles were raging on the Western Front, the Russians on the Eastern Front captured Lemberg, with 100,000 prisoners, and the Japanese seized Shantung on the other side of the Globe.

Thus the Pictured Chart fixes, not only the time, but the association of events, and you will never forget that these three great events took place in September, 1914. The chief events of an entire year may thus be indelibly fixed in your mind, instantly recalled when reference is made to any particular event in your newspaper, magazine or history reading.

 With each event on the Chart will be found the page number of the descriptive text in the volume.



# Publishers' Foreword

**T**HE value of any work of history is measured largely by the intellectual equipment of the Author, the accuracy and authenticity of his data. The Editor of this volume was fortunately in possession of a background of European history of peculiar advantage in undertaking to prepare the story of the Great War.

In 1910 (after 20 years of laborious research) he brought to completion, "Crossing the Centuries", a *Synchroneous History of the World's Civilization* — extending from pre-historic times down to the present day — illustrated with visualized charts, on which were pictured the great events of time, arranged in their chronological order and in their contemporaneous association, century by century.

In the preparation of this stupendous work Dr. King was able to enlist the co-operation and collaboration of many of the foremost intellects of the Nation, Eminent Clergymen, College Presidents, Leading Publicists, Noted Historians, Scientific and Educational Specialists, representing a wide range of recognized scholarship.

Probably no book of modern times has called forth stronger expressions of appreciation from prominent scholars, educational leaders, the secular and religious press, than was accorded to this publication. "King's Visualized Charts of American History" (extensively used in public schools) is another production of our Editor. In the preparation of this latter work, the Author had the editorial assistance of Dr. Wilber F. Gordy, author of Gordy's series of School Histories.

In 1914 Dr. King's Alma Mater conferred upon him the honorary degree of "Doctor of Letters" (Litt. D.), in recognition of his research work in history and other literary productions. (Four of his previous books reached a sale of two and one-half million copies.)

In view of Dr. King's familiarity with the economic, political, and diplomatic situation in Europe, at the time war was declared, he was in a particularly favorable position to undertake the preparation of this volume. The book could have been on the market two years earlier had the Editor been willing to sacrifice accuracy and completeness for quick financial returns. He preferred, however, to secure the full truth at the expense of time, and build a book which would stand the acid test of critical comparison.

This work embodies numerous original and unique features found in no other history, prominent among which is the tabulation of the "Order of Battle", showing in opposite columns the numerical strength of the opposing armies, the list of Generals directing the respective forces, the date and place of battle, in every campaign and major engagement.

Another original feature is the separate treatment accorded each battle under a system of striking boxed headings, the frequent use of sub-headings, which illuminate the text, greatly aiding the reader in visualizing the ebb and flow of battle. This helpful feature is in marked contrast with many histories which present an endless array of facts, unrelieved by any captions, to aid the reader in distinguishing between different phases of a great battle, or determine one battle from another in an extensive campaign.

Still another unique feature is the index, which precedes the narrative story of each year, arranged chronologically in parallel columns, showing at a glance the events taking place on both Western and Eastern Fronts on any given date, including folio of descriptive text.

THE PUBLISHERS

## The History Which Describes, Interprets and Visualizes

A HISTORY which should interpret the hidden strategic purposes underlying all those sudden cyclonic movements of gigantic armies on 10,000 miles of land battle fronts, and those titanic sea battles fought in all the naval combat areas.

A WORK WHICH PASSED under the critical scrutiny of the War Department officials of France and Belgium, and by them was approved for accuracy, completeness and impartial presentation of facts.

A LUCID NARRATIVE of the gigantic struggle, acclaimed by the highest court of military opinion in the world, as the most authentic, accurate, impartial and informative Book of the War published in any language.

A WORK OF SUCH fidelity to truth, fullness of narrative, and unerring accuracy as to evoke the plaudits of that illustrious military genius, Marshal Ferdinand Foch.

A WORK WHICH WAS annotated, in part, by that erudite lion-hearted prelate, His Eminence, Cardinal Mercier, who suspended his ecclesiastical duties for a time, to give this History the benefit of his unequalled knowledge of the scenes attending the German horrors committed in Belgium.

A WORK WHICH SO ENRAPTURED the rulers and statesmen of France that they conferred upon Dr. King the highest honor for literary achievement within the gift of the nation—the “Beaux Arts Medal” of the French Republic—also the Municipality of Paris conferred a similar honor by presenting Dr. King with the great “Medal of Paris”—for distinguished accomplishment.

IN SUBMITTING THE PROOF pages of this history, prior to publication, to the test of examination by the highest court of authoritative military opinion in the world, the editor was actuated by the sole purpose to neglect no opportunity, avoid no test which could avail to purge the book of any possible deposit of error, or any fault of judgment which perchance had eluded observation, to the laudable end that the book should take on the character of an inerrant, absolutely reliable History of the most momentous struggle in which the nations of the earth have ever engaged.

IT WILL BE CONCEDED, we assume, that the ultimate test for accuracy to which any historical work of the period could be subjected, would be the concurrent opinion of those Master Strategists, whose military genius availed to rescue Christian civilization from the peril of Prussianism.

THEIRS WERE THE MINDS that conceived the consummate strategies, planned the decisive campaigns, controlled the every movement of those colossal armies, noted the ebb and flow of battle, and calculated exactly the sum total of the gains or losses, in every operation of the War. They alone being competent to pass upon the interpretative value of any history of the conflict, their verdict must be considered as authoritative.

NOT UNTIL MORE THAN THREE YEARS after the Armistice, when finally the war archives of Europe have yielded up their most important stores of superguarded secrets and the lips of diplomacy have lost their reticence, has access been possible to the vital facts and inside official data upon which could be founded an authentic, definite and complete history of the great war.

DURING THE ENTIRE COURSE of military operations an impenetrable veil of secrecy was prudently thrown over the important operations of the belligerent armies, concealing the truth from friend and foe alike.

IN THE PREPARATION of this work the labors of seven years of painstaking research and verification have been expended. In addition to specially organized sources of information the author has had available for his personal use, the official documents of the countries at war, the official reports of the commanding officers, also the particular accounts of subordinate generals participating.

THE AUTHOR was further privileged to traverse the entire areas of the Western Battle fronts, accompanied by military officials, to check up the army positions of the contending forces and gather additional data.

THIS ACHIEVEMENT in American authorship, after attaining the rare distinction of European official approval, is now submitted to the American people for their verdict.

THE PUBLISHERS



Approved by the World's Highest Court of Military Authority

MEDAL OF FRANCE



Officer de l'Instruction Publique  
et des Beaux Arts  
The French Republic

MEDAL OF PARIS



The City of Paris  
Token of  
Distinguished Achievement



W. C. KING, Litt. D.

AUTHOR OF

CROSSING THE CENTURIES — A Single Volume Library of the World's History

KING'S VISUALIZED CHARTS OF AMERICAN HISTORY — For Public Schools

## The History of the World War

That won the eulogistic approval of the Master Strategists of Europe  
That was Awarded the Highest Honor within Gift of the French Republic  
That was Critically Revised in part by His Eminence Cardinal Mercier  
That Gained the added Distinction of an Introduction by Marshal Foch  
That discloses in Full the Paramount Part of America in the Great Victory  
That presents the Only Complete, Impartial History of the Epic Struggle  
That Covers Europe's War with Bolshevism and the Turkish Partition  
That Reveals Fully the Warfare Waged in Ireland, India, Egypt and Turkey  
That Discloses the Secret Pacts and Diplomatic Intrigues of European Statecraft  
That Includes the Epochal Events Throughout the Civilized World

From Ferdinand's Assassination to the Disarmament Conference

**T**HERE IS AN INCREASING desire, shared by millions of discriminative readers in all lands, to possess an authoritative, conclusive, impartial History of the World War, complete within the compass of a single volume;

A HISTORY which should visualize for the reader, the whole stupendous sweep of the

universal conflict in all of its terrific and heroic phases;

A HISTORY which should concisely describe with vividness and accuracy the ebb and flow of every campaign, battle, and siege waged on land and sea, in every theater of the most colossal conflict ever waged by man, since time began.



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# The World's Greatest Military Strategist



## INTRODUCTION

THE EDITOR of these pages has undertaken to expose to the American people and youth of the Public Schools, the History of the Great War 1914-1918.

In the narration of these five years of battles, they will find the manifestation of the qualities which all American, British, French, Belgian, Italian, Serbian and Roumanian soldiers, united in a common ideal, displayed constantly, with steadfast faith in the time of waiting: Stubborn Tenacity in the days of adversity: Offensive Spirit maintained unremittingly in the final battles, until the hour when the foe had to surrender.

No other lessons could be more fertile in examples of Heroism and Moral Valor.

I approve of the Editor's undertaking, which has been executed with such care and completeness, and I wish for this history a wide distribution among the English speaking people of every land.

FERDINAND FOCH



27 This preliminary chapter comprises a concise history of the Prussian race, from its advent on the shores of the Baltic Sea, down through the centuries, revealing how this barbarous warring people carved their way to Empire, disclosing their Intrigues and Evil ambition for World dominion, and proceeding step by step down to Austria's cowardly ultimatum to little Serbia and the declaration of War—Says an eminent scholar in a personal letter to the Editor. "You have compressed more important history into this single chapter than most historians put into an entire volume."

# HOW GERMANY LOST HER SOUL

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Once an Inspired and Honored Member of the Exalted Family of Nations  
She Fell From Grace Through the Seductions of Prussian Paganism  
Germany's Spiritual Surrender the Supreme Ethnic Tragedy of the Centuries  
Prussian Barbarism Traced from Its Source in the Land of Gog and Magog  
For 1300 Years the Prussians Resisted the Influences of Christian Civilization  
The Last Tribe in All Europe to Abandon the Worship of Their Pagan Gods  
Prussia's Duplicity, Treachery, and Her Evil Ambition to Govern the World  
Prussian Principles of Government Absolutely Opposed to Human Liberty  
Spiritual Betrayal of Germany, the First Step in Prussianization of the Planet  
Corruption of the German Mind by Atheistical Philosophers and Historians  
Blasphemous Teachings of Hegel, Fichte, Schlegel, Nietzsche, Trietsche, Bernhardt  
Germany Finally Renounces Her Christian Ideals, Reverting to Pagan Savagery  
Prussia's Diabolical Plot to Exterminate Christianity Throughout the World  
And Restore Their Ancient Pagan Worship of Odin and Thor Universally

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The Evidences Presented in this Chapter Are Drawn Largely from German Authorities

**T**HE horrendous World War, which brought martyrdom to Europe, judgment to Babylon, woe to all nations and liberty to half of the enslaved peoples of earth, was essentially a spiritual conflict, a collision of crucial concepts, a renewal on the cosmic scale of the eternal battle between Christ and Antichrist, Freedom and Tyranny, Bible and Babel. In its every phase, it implied a challenge flaunted in the face of God by the infuriate foes of Faith, and savagely expressed in futile assaults upon the ideal edifice of Christianity. The impious challenge was accepted and its authors were rebuked, by an irresistible rally of the host of Christendom, united in defence of Faith, Freedom and Fireside.

Spiritually considered, the sequential victory typifies the inevitable triumph of Christianity over Paganism, of Truth over Error, of Right over Might, of Faith over Infidelity. In its social results the war was profuse in benefits to humanity. The sore shackles were removed from half the enslaved races of earth,

enabling 700,000,000 oppressed peoples to emerge from the depressive gloom of despotism into the kindly light of free democracy. Four tyrannous empires, the inheritance of Babylon, have dissolved like clouds and in their place many aspiring republics have risen. Europe is apparently relieved from the blight of Islam and the fangs of the Turk are drawn. After five years of chastening pain, the world is undergoing a social transformation.

When the Gates of Hell opened wide, in the summer of 1914, dooming all Europe to a flaming, sulphurous martyrdom; when the Legions of Lucifer outpoured upon three continents, and with infernal weapons drawn from the arsenal of Satan, strove to conquer or destroy mankind; when a million happy homes, in a myriad of cities and towns, had vanished in smoke or dust; when thrice ten million blameless victims had been offered up on the altars of Moloch; when the warring skies dripped death, and the seas were choked with drowned ships; when the host of Christendom had gone forth to give battle to the Beast of Revelation; and when civilization had been saved in the extremity of its peril by the invincible might of the American Republic:—even then the world had not guessed the monstrous design which filled the mind of the German Kaiser when he threw down his gauntlet to Heaven and challenged all Christendom.

### Paganism to Supplant Christianity

A fourfold purpose impelled this vainest of modern despots, this new Caligula, in setting loose his barbarous hordes of Huns, Vandals, Turks, Tartars and Infidels, to work destruction in Europe. Conceiving himself in majesty as but little below Deity, and divinely ordained to impose his will upon all mankind, this vicar of Odin plotted (1) the conquest of the world, (2) the Prussianization of all nations through the media of German Kultur, (3) the destruction of the Christian Church, and (4) the restoration of the cult of Prussian paganism with its worship of Odin and Thor, and its memories of the abominable rites of human sacrifice. Apart from his rapt vision of a Prussianized planet, peopled by conquered races newly conformed in the mold of a common Prussian Kultur, and with all mankind paying homage to him as to a lesser Deity, the Kaiser saw himself as the chosen instrument of Odin, the pagan "hammer-god" of the Baltic skies, in the spiritual regeneration of the world.

The simple, plastic German mind, for many generations past, had been gradually prepared for this reversion to paganism through the blasphemous teachings of the atheistical philosophers, historians, pedagogues and publicists of Germany. Even before the German states had meekly accepted the Prussian hegemony, the prime obstacle of Christianity had been removed from the general German mind to make way for a pagan religious tyranny upon which the Hohenzollerns might base their civil tyranny. All the despotic empires of



antiquity, from Babylon to Carthage, had been so cemented. By establishing automatic dominion in the spiritual sphere, the Prussian pagans hoped ultimately to establish it in the civil sphere, as their predecessors in Asia had done through all antiquity. The people were first spiritually, then politically enslaved.

It was essential to the Prussian purpose that Christianity be destroyed, because of the natural and historical alliance which exists between Christianity and Liberty. Alone among the religions of earth, Christianity has ever been inimical to all forms of tyranny, has ever defended the weak as against the strong. Invariably Christianity has stood between the despotic ruler and his oppressed subjects; invariably it has upheld the democratic ideal as against the autocratic. Throughout the Christian centuries, every state, every empire founded on autocratic principles has discovered in Christianity its most inveterate enemy. The annals of the Middle Ages,—that marvelous era of human achievement,—disclose the gradual emancipation of man from every species of servitude as the influence of Christianity became more penetrating and universal. Contrariwise, the history of Europe, during the five centuries which have elapsed since the Renaissance, reveals the inevitable, startling spread of human slavery, in all its aspects, in the precise degree that the influence of Christianity had declined.

The Prussian autocrats, those mad Hohenzollerns, strove to destroy the Christian religion because it stood in the path of their pagan ambition to reduce all mankind to a state of hopeless servitude. They could not hope to seduce the civilized world into wearing the pagan yoke, as they had succeeded in debasing the Christian states of Germany, without first expunging the ideal of liberty from the minds of all the people. But with Christianity holding aloft the torch of liberty and guarding the freedom of the people, the difficulty in realizing the Hohenzollern ambition proved insuperable. Evidently, if Prussia was to impose her irreligious will upon all mankind, she must first destroy all Christian evidences and beliefs. Prussia's hatred of Christianity, therefore, was primarily political, the hatred of a spiritual doctrine for its political consequences. Other nations—England, France, and Italy—also had warred against Christianity, though from a different motive. They challenged the Church, they threw down the gauntlet to God, because of their mistaken belief that Christianity had altered from its traditional status and become the enemy of Liberty. Prussia, on the contrary, with a clearer perception of the true facts, struck her blow at Christianity because she recognized in it the eternal friend and champion of Liberty, because her pagan rulers infallibly knew that Liberty could flourish on earth only when supported by the supernatural strength of the Christian religion.

Phase by phase, the old pagan ideals of ruthless force, of pitiless warfare, were instilled into the mind of Germany. So complete was Germany's debase-

ment, 50 years ago, that Lord Acton declared: "Christianity is abominated in northern Germany, in life and in literature." He also described the destruction, stone by stone, of the Christian edifice in Germany, and revealed how the blocks of stone taken from the Christian temple were being used in constructing the pagan Temple of Valor. As the placid, kindly Germany of old—the land of romance, art and song—came more and more under the sway of the pagan Prussian corruptors, Prussianism stood forth as a complete embodiment of the tyrannical instinct in human nature. Since the Prussian Beast, and his philosophical lackeys, have not been destroyed, have only been laid low, and may at any time renew their assaults upon Civilization, it will profit us to review in some detail the methods by which the atheistical philosophers gained their ascendancy over the German mind in preparation for the corruption and coercion of all mankind.

## The Spiritual Corruption of Germany by Her Mad Philosophers

Plot of Paganism Against Christianity—Gobineau's Superman—

Nietzsche's Blond Beast—Worship of the Prussian State—

Fallacies of Hegel, Fichte, Treitschke, Bernhardt, Revealed

THE complete surrender of the German intellect to the wild vagaries of the Prussian philosophers and publicists, the renunciation of the Christian religion by the leaders of the people and their practical reversion to paganism, bodies forth as the most amazing spiritual phenomenon of modern times. The whole sweep of human history, in fact, affords no parallel to the slavish submission of this highly endowed people to their pagan Prussian mentor.

The "philosopher" Fichte, in 1807, laid the foundation of the national egotism with his definition of "Deutschtum," or Germanism: "Germany is to all the rest of the world as good is to evil. To Germany alone, among the nations of the earth, belongs the privilege of expressing the true and the good. Everything which emanates from other peoples represents nothing but error and evil. In the German soul alone is to be found the sense of the ideal, combined with the power to realize that ideal in the world."

The philosopher Hegel taught virtually that the state is a divine incarnation, superior to all earthly authority, to be worshipped,

exempt from bondage to any moral law, and possessed of an absolute right to impose its will upon weaker nationalities.

Nietzsche, "the mystagogue of Prussianism," who spent the last twelve years of his life in a madhouse, but whose blasphemies are nevertheless held to be Heaven-inspired, taught, in this manner, the negation of the Golden Rule: The cardinal virtues of Christianity, and especially the emotions of mercy, self-sacrifice and pity, indicate an inherent weakness of the human race. Moreover, the physically strong, in their offices of kindness and helpfulness, are wasting energies that can be put to better use. The Christian law which bids us share each other's burdens, must, therefore, be regarded as obsolete. The strong man must be preserved at all hazards in order to advance the human race. There is no place in the world for the weak man; he should be destroyed. Conscience should not be permitted to interfere with success, thereby preventing the evolution of the super-man, who is neither to be constrained by duty, nor restricted by law, "living his life beyond good and evil"—or, in plain



words, in disobedience to the laws of God. Though most of Nietzsche's blasphemies are unquotable, yet the vaporings of this poor stricken paranoiac are esteemed as Heaven-inspired in Germany (and by some American college professors, "educated" in Germany, as well), he being regarded as a prophet, and his books "sharing with Homer and Goethe, a place in the knapsack of every German soldier."

Treitschke, the foremost historian and Machiavelli of Germany, justified national conquest in these words: "It is immoral if a state does not strive to extend its power, if such extension is required by an expanding population. Nations must never allow themselves to be bound by treaty obligations which endanger the existence of the state or are a disadvantage to it."

With such monitors to guide them, the German statesmen had no compunctions in tearing up a certain "scrap of paper."

General Bernhardi taught that "war is not only a law of nature, but a necessary means to the advancement of civilization. War is good because it regenerates a race and always exercises a renovating influence." It will be perceived that it is only a short step from such a doctrine to Nietzsche's atrocious theory, that it was the duty of the strong to exterminate the weak, and that the highest wisdom consisted in the renunciation of the Golden Rule. Naturally, the "strong race," whose evident destiny called it to this work of extermination, was the Germanic, or shall we say, the Vandal race.

### Conflict Between Christ and Thor

THE conflict between Christ and Thor, between Christianity and paganism, was uppermost in the minds of these deluded philosophers. Hegel was the first to pave the way with his theory that divinity on earth was embodied in the state and that development, not of religion, morality, or justice, but of the state, was the object of all laws. The glorification of the state included of necessity the sacrifice of the individual, and this ideal has been carried out with ruthless force in Germany. From the sacrifice of citizens of Germany, "for the good of the state," to the similar sacrifice of the citizens of other na-

tions, was but a logical step in the German philosophic mind. Hence for the Prussian-Vandal, international laws were not binding.

### Paganism vs. Christianity

THE next step was to prepare the credulous mind of Germany for the proposed transition from Christian to pagan worship, in the Nietzschean manner, of which Professor Cramb is the rapt interpreter: "It is imperative that the German mind should recall that creative role in religion, which the whole Teutonic race abandoned fourteen centuries ago. They conquered Rome, but dazzled by Rome's authority, they adopted the religion and the culture of the vanquished. Judea and Galilee struck Germany in the splendor and heroism of her prime. Germany's own deep religious instinct, her native genius for religion, was averted, stunted, thwarted. But having once adopted the new faith, she strove to live that faith, and for more than thirty generations she has struggled and wrestled to see with eyes that were not her eyes, to worship a God that was not her God (Odin), to live with a world vision that was not her vision, to strive for a Heaven that was not her Heaven (Valhalla). Yet with what chivalry did not Germany throw herself into the great Crusades. And whilst her Crusaders, front to front with Islam, burst into passionate denials and set Mahomet above Christ, or in exasperated scorn derided all religion, her great thinkers and mystics led her steadily toward the serener heights, where knowledge and faith dissolve in vision, and ardour is all.

"The 17th century flung off Rome. The 18th century undermined Galilee (Christianity) itself, and with the opening of the 20th century Germany is reunited to her pristine genius, her creative power in religion and in thought. Must Germany submit to this alien creed derived from an alien clime? Must she forever confront the ages, the borrower of her religion, her own genius for religion numbed and paralyzed?"

Nietzsche, the madman, "clearing away the accumulated rubbish of 1200 years," attempts to "set the German imagination back where it was with the Goths, Alaric and Theodoric, fortified by the experience of twelve centuries to confront the darkness of



paganism unaided, unappalled, triumphant, great and free."

This mad plea for the restoration of paganism, "after the accumulated rubbish of Christianity has been cleared away," was taught in the universities and carried in the knapsacks of the same pitiless German soldiers that crucified babies in Belgium, burned villagers alive, ravished women, dragged thousands of girls and women into worse than slavery, and committed such atrocities as the hordes of Genghis Khan perhaps never contemplated.

Listen to Nietzsche's blasphemous parody of the Beatitudes and say if the German race that hails him as a prophet has not indeed lost its soul: "And ye have heard men say, 'Blessed are the Peacemakers,' but I say unto you, 'Blessed are the war-makers,' for they shall be called, if not the children of Jehovah, the children of Odin, who is greater than Jehovah."

### The World's Destiny Depends on Germany

THE credulous philosophers of Germany have always conceived that the destiny of the Teuton is the destiny of mankind, since he alone is fated to realize all possible developments which other races have singly realized in turn. Schlegel declared that the imperishable word of Divine Revelation is reborn in Germany for the whole world, and only in Germany can it find its final and complete manifestation.

Fichte, in his Discourses, wrote: "Races yet unborn implore you, the stranger in far-off lands entreats you, they and all the ages of humanity throughout the future have faith in you, and implore you to guard against any possibility that in the great confederation of a new humanity, the member which is the most essential to its existence should disappear. They must not search for you in vain, when they need your counsels, your example, your help. You it is to whom, among all modern nations, the seeds of human perfection have been entrusted and to whom has been given the first place in developing them. If you succumb, humanity succumbs with you, and all hope of any future renovation will be lost."

### Germany the Guiding Star of Humanity

THE philosophy of history and human fate which Fichte expounded was based on a theory of "Heroes," who alone are living souls, and who truly act; from generation to generation, they arise and dower their age with some ever new and ever stimulating representation of Eternal Reality, whose essence is one throughout the ever-changing forms that reveal it. At a stroke, they sweep away all the shams, all the dead forms extinct life has left behind; they are drawn irresistibly to the true, under the impulse of a law of their being, which is a force of Nature. They are the guiding stars of humanity, the seers whose appointed task is to guide its steps; their rights are absolute, for in a world of the blind, they alone are gifted with vision. The swarms of mediocre men live only on the external plane, on the outskirts of life, among shams and illusions, mumbling their worn-out shibboleths, the empty shells of past existence. To work his will on these human swarms is the duty of the sacred prophet, for his rights are divine, and to them none other can be opposed. What these seers are among men, Germany is among nations. Her clear vision confers upon her a right to supremacy over all other races, in the domain of action as in that of philosophy. Her sons alone can gaze with undazzled eyes in all things and see their reality unchanged. Her inspired minds communicate directly with the Spirit of the Universe, the eternal will which organizes all, divining its hidden designs. Her intuition illuminates the essence of all things, even the enduring realities which constitute the foundations of all life. The German soul alone has torn asunder the veils that hide the inner realities of past and present civilizations, has revealed or expounded the living ideas which have brought them into being, the living germ of truth which has given them strength to endure and at all times has marked out on what lines man's progress is possible. The German people, therefore, are "the chosen race," and Germany, "the mother of the inspired," has a sacred mission before which all men must bow and to which they can oppose "no right, no liberty, no thought." It is Germany's duty to impose her will on all mankind; for



she is the predestined guide of all the world. To oppose the fulfillment of this destiny is treason against God himself."

### Germany As the "Holy Ghost of Europe"

THE poet Wolfskehl developed this theme still further, declaring: "It is the life or death of the soul of Europe we are fighting for. Your accomplices are sinning against the Holy Ghost of Europe. We are fighting the battle of all mankind, for the whole world. This war comes from God Almighty. It is the Divine in humanity which is at stake; not our existence alone, but that of Europe, is imperilled."

The "Appeal to Europe" of the masters of higher education in Germany, issued in October, 1914, signed by fifty-three Universities, and containing 32,000 signatures, declared: "We are absolutely convinced that the future of all European Kultur depends on the victory of our militarism."

### Pantheism of the Germans

THE pagan idealists of Germany, and the pagan philosophers and historians as well, have ever been obsessed with the idea of the providential mission of the German race. Whenever the "old good God of the Germans," meaning Odin, willed the chastisement of any nation, the predestined instrument of these chastenings invariably was a German. The unsullied heroism of the German could regenerate the weak and corrupt races. In the pantheon of Germany, the highest niches of fame were reserved for those barbarous instruments of Odin, who had chastised the Roman Empire—Varus, who had annihilated the legions of Cæsar; Vercingetorix, Hermann, Alaric the Goth, and finally Martin Luther, the Reformer, who had chastised the Catholic Church. Thus, in the philosophy of history, the Teuton considered himself as the soldier of the "old good God of Germany," and whenever a work of magnitude was to be performed, it was a German who was divinely assigned to the task.

With this conception grew a violent hostility to Christianity. The poets, philosophers, and musicians of Germany—notably Wagner in recent years—rediscovered the

gods of the German soil, exalted the mythical heroes of Germany, and passionately declared that the "delusions of Christianity" could never dispel German regard for pagan gods.

### War Is the Law of Odin

To strive is Germany's destiny; her mission is war. The spirit of valor infuses the literature of Germany; it fills the pages of the Eddas, the wild legends of the Nibelungenlied, the rhapsodies of Nietzsche, the annals of the feudal barons and early kings of Germany; it represents to their minds the will of the Universe; it is, in fact, the law of Odin. Acceptance of this law of ceaseless strife is proof of the nobility of race; rejection of this mandate can result only in national degeneracy. The Religion of Valor not only implies regeneration, is not merely a duty towards one's self and Odin; it is an end in itself. It creates the Kingdom of the Strong, the masters of the earth, and its ethics are not those of Christ, but of Odin.

### Be Pitiless, Urges Nietzsche

THE gospel of Nietzsche also carried the doctrine that war is the natural state of the noble soul. "Ye shall love peace as a means for new wars, and a short peace better than a long one. I do not counsel you peace but victory. Let your work be a conflict, your peace a victory. A good cause, you say, hallows war. But I say unto you, a good war hallows everything."

Pity and weakness were the superlative vices, as courage was the supreme virtue. "What is right, you ask? To be brave is to be right. War and courage have done greater things than the love of one's neighbors. It is not your pity but your valor which has hitherto saved the victims. Behold the new law, my brethren, that I lay down for you: Be pitiless. Who shall attain to anything great, who does not feel the power and the will to inflict great sufferings?"

War, in the German mind, is more than a mere effort in heroism; it is obedience to the will of Odin, the "hammer god."

### Darwin Helps Corrupt Germany

THE gullible German mind, released from the safe moorings of Christian faith, and set



adrift in the ocean of infidelity, was easily swayed by every wind of doctrine that prevailed. Thus, in 1859, the national vanity was flattered by Charles Darwin's evolution fallacies, filched in the general from ancient Greek and modern Gallic sources. The German mind eagerly embraced the Darwinian notion, as yet unproved, of the preservation of favored races in the struggle for life, by the law of natural selection. This theory of the survival of the fittest and the evolution of the stronger, seemed to confirm the national tradition that Germany was the race so favored and destined to sway the world. The apparent challenge to Christian revelation, implied by the doctrine of evolution, also pleased the dominant minds of Germany, which had discarded Christianity in favor of the religion of ruthless war, or sheer paganism.

### Count Gobineau's "Fair Aryan" Fallacies

ANOTHER alien, Count de Gobineau of France, still further corrupted the German mind by putting forth a book on the "Inequality of Races" in courage, mastery, intellect and culture. Gobineau sought to prove that the laws of heredity are the sole laws of progress; in race alone is to be found the key to national mastery and achievement. Solely by the accident of birth is a man of any race fitted for leadership. The well-born man is entitled to rule; for as man is above the brute, so is the aristocratic class above the masses. The black and yellow races are vastly inferior to the whites, in whom reside all virtue, intellect, beauty, refinement, vigor, art, and capacity of the highest order. Hence, the purer the white, the more inevitable is his mastery of the world. Now, the Teuton and the Scandinavian, being the purest white or Aryan races left on earth, are, therefore, by right entitled to compel their mastery upon the world. Compared to them, all other races are fitted only for slavery. But, alas, the white race, by intermarriage, has degenerated into half breeds, and the world is hopelessly destined to decline to a state of democracy in which the aristocratic qualities of valor, refinement, taste, initiative, and invention will be suppressed. Had the "fair

Aryan" races been developed by intensive breeding, as are race horses, there might have been evolved in Germany an aristocratic class, but it is now too late for such a blessed caste to arrive. Civilization is doomed to expire as a democracy!

### Enter Nietzsche's "Blond Beast"

COUNT DE GOBINEAU'S biological theories intrigued the disordered mind of the Polish Jew, Frederick Nietzsche, who posed as a German, Nietzsche, who "lived in debauches of intellectual ecstasy," accepted without reservation the doctrines of Darwin and Gobineau, and from them he evolved a new "gospel" which Germany avidly seized upon. Darwin, having hinted his belief that a race will finally be evolved greatly superior to any existent race, Nietzsche gave that predestined race a name—the Overman. Gobineau's "fair Aryan" he renamed the "Blond Beast." As both these types are to be wholly the products of evolution, they must not be hampered in their progress upward, by the superannuated morality of the old religion. "Christ is dead," therefore we must discard all Christian doctrines as worthless. In the place of the old morality, we shall have a Brute Morality, the Religion of Valor, whereby the Overman is to form a master caste of European Aryans, chiefly German, who will set up a new Kultur from which Christianity, the "Slave-religion," will be eliminated. The slave races must bow down to the Overman and the Blond Beast; while the Religion of Valor, in which there is to be no room for mercy and pity, is to supplant Christianity. Finally, the Overman is to evolve into the Superman, a product of the "fair Aryan" race developed upon eugenic principles of selection. Germany seriously accepted Nietzsche as a prophet and arrogated to herself the role of Overman.

### State-Worship Instead of God

THE state, in the Prussian view, is regarded as the summit of human society, the final result of evolution; above it there is absolutely nothing in the history of the world; the Idea of the State is one to be worshipped as a real god upon the earth. Its essence is force; its supreme duty is to assert

itself; the necessities of its existence are its only law; its past does not bind its future; no treaty or convention acknowledged by it can hamper its abiding duty of sovereignty; no vain scruple can hinder its action. It is a return to the state of Nature; it takes the place of God, and like the God of Nature, it has no regard for the individual; like Him, it creates by destruction and death. No scruple, convention, or prejudice can hinder the ruthless advance of this force once let loose; it must attain swiftly and by any means the maximum of results, for results only count. Its duty is to strike terror into all, and thereby paralyze all resistance; the very excess of its atrociousness renders it finally less destructive; the very excess of its inhumanity renders it more humane; for the more crushing is its impact, the sooner will the end be attained; the more scientific it is, the more perfect it will be. War is the highest morality, since before its reality all mere appearances crumble away, all the shams of peace, "that creator of unreal values." In war's awful presence, Truth alone can live. War alone recreates true values and restores to force and life the rights usurped by weakness and death, whose rights are non-existent.

Such is the "gospel" that infected the cells of the German organism with the virus of its error. Under the spell of this false philosophy, the whole German race was hypnotized until all sense of reality was lost.

### How Germany Was Duped

THE German is by nature a plastic being, easily led by appeals to his vanity and his bent for mysticism. In the Prussian he found his predestined master. Subordinating his own will to that of the master, he revelled in the illusion of liberty and initiative.

Possessed by the delusion that Germany is the elect among the nations; that no other nation equals her in material and spiritual efficiency; that her culture is the supreme expression of human genius; that her mission of world regeneration is divine, yet all nations are blind to her mission; that her force of expansion is irresistible, she resolved to rend the bonds that bound her and break her way through the wall of enmities that hemmed her in. Overcoming the opposition

of inferior races, barbarous or decadent, she would fulfill the mandate conferred upon her by Odin, the "old good God of Germany." After she had conquered the whole earth, she would bestow upon the weak nations, blinded by error, the blessings of German Kultur, infusing them with the German spirit, and sharing with them the majesty of her fortune. Over the ruins of Christian civilization, the German ideal should rise radiant, shedding torrents of light on a dazzled world.

### Flings Aside the Alien Religion of Christ

ACCORDING to the madman, Nietzsche, Germany had been deflected from her ancient destiny when she permitted herself to be spiritually conquered by the Gospel of Christ—"an alien Eastern genius in Galilee, born out of the Jewish race"—but now Christ is dead: The creative power of Germany lies in giving the world a new religion—the Religion of Valor—born out of her own soul. How much mightier than Christianity will be the Religion of Valor. And how much nobler than the Gothic will be the architecture in which Germany's new religion will be housed. So let Germany destroy the ugly Gothic cathedrals which have loomed up all over Europe, these many centuries.

\* \* \*

"Seek ye danger. Whether Germany rise or fall, at least she will not fall the thrall of an alien god, but as the disciple of Ruthless Valor. For her no pallid Heaven beyond the grave, but a place in Valhalla, the ultimate home of Heroes."

Germany flung aside the "alien religion out of Galilee" and created a Religion of Valor (paganism restored), which is its own standard of conduct, its own judge of action. She attempted to confer this religion upon the world. The mediocre breeds of the world, who have usurped power while Germany has slumbered, should bow down before her majesty and might, and accept her Religion of Valor, if Germany would only nourish her valor and attempt what valor can achieve.

Not for Germany are the false ideals and ethics of any alien people. Rather is it Germany's destiny to create a religion and compel it on the conquered races of the earth.



Only by way of conquest may Germany reach world empire and so compel the German Kultur and the Religion of Valor upon the universe.

### England and Her American Spawn

ALIEN nations, with their absurd ideals of peace, preach against war. But they who cry out against war are guilty of an immorality, for war is not the scourge of mankind; it is the main thoroughfare of human progress, over which evolution advances. A great people must choose between world dominion and ruin. War is therefore a most virile need of life; only through war may a people rise to mastery. Germany must seek out

the greatest obstacle to be overcome; that obstacle is the sea-power of England. Other people must be overwhelmed; England must be crushed. And after England "her spawn in America." England's realm is built on rotten foundations, just as her spawn in the United States was born in corruption, expanding in vulgarity and British self-sufficiency. The Germans who go to America, seeking wealth, should live in communities apart, so that the German genius might not suffer weakening from American debasement. They should accumulate wealth so that on the day of reckoning they might help the Hohenzollerns to overthrow the English genius of the futile Republic.

## Prussians Still Uncivilized Pagans as Late as the 13th Century

How This Tribe of Hun-Vandal-Tartar-Mongol-Strain Carved Its  
Way to Empire by the Sword

IN order to envisage more fully the hideous ambitions of Germany in the World War, it is necessary to explore the psychology of the Prussian mind from its source in the Vandal tribes dwelling in the Baltic forests. At the outset, it should be mentioned that the Prussians are a Vandal, not a purely Germanic race. Their association with the Germanic race was from the beginning the result of German conquest. The spiritual Germany that for centuries endowed the world with the profoundest literature, the sublimest music and the loftiest conceptions of religious and civic liberty is no more. First coerced and at length corrupted by the dominant Prussians, Germany lost her spirituality, her national soul, and became the docile, even obsequious slave of her Prussian master. Some day the old Germany may recover her soul and again illumine the world with the light of her genius.

The Prussian-Vandals, on the contrary, were ever a barbarous race, carving out their destiny with the sword. The Prussian race has never produced an intellectual leader apart from Bismarck, either in the field of theol-

ogy, literature, music, or the fine arts. Lust for power, the exaltation of brute force, a supreme disdain for all moral restraints, these are the motives which have swayed them.

### First Glimpse of the Prussian-Vandals

THE first glimpse which history affords of the unregenerate pagans who so recently aspired to world dominion is supplied by Pliny, the Roman historian, who gravely asserts that the dwellers on the Baltic Islands "have horses hoofs instead of feet, and ears so large as to cover their bodies." The kings of Prussia, with justifiable pride, trace their descent back to the Vandals and Huns, those Asiatic barbarians who assisted in the overthrow of the Roman empire, outstripping even the Goths in sheer ferocity. Their original birthplace was somewhere within that vast reservoir of races lying south of Russia proper and north of Thibet, to which region ancient and modern scholarship assigns the land of Gog and Magog. Their kinship to the Tartars, the Mongols, and the Turks has been clearly established. It is supposed that they reached the shores of



the Baltic during one of those great migrations of the Asiatic peoples westward in the early centuries of our era. They were still an unnamed race when the chroniclers of the tenth century labeled them "Po-Russians"—that is, the tribe dwelling alongside Russia. Po-Russians gradually became known as Prussians.

### The Prussian's Religion

THEIR religion was polytheism—the worship of many gods—but particularly the gods Odin and Thor, the god of war, and the god of the winds. They resisted the efforts of thirteen centuries to bring them under the civilizing influences of Christianity. Boleslaus I of Poland invaded their lands in 1015, and at the point of the sword compelled the savage "Po-Russians" to profess Christianity, but their submission was only a pretence and they relapsed into paganism. Some few years later, an army led against them by Boleslaus IV of Poland was totally annihilated, enabling the Prussian-Vandals to hold a part of Poland in subjection for years. Again, in 1219, they defeated a Crusading army sent out of Germany to subdue them.

It was not till fifty years later that they were at length conquered by the Teutonic Knights, after both forces had suffered fearful losses. The Knights founded cities, planted German colonies, set up a code of German laws, and exacted passive obedience to German rule. Gradually the Prussian-Vandals resigned their heathen worship and took on the veneer of civilization. As early as the year 1400 we find Prussia famous for its gun foundry and its trained falcons, while orders for artillery came from great distances. Gunpowder, too, was manufactured in quantities and large sums were expended on saltpetre. The Prussian-Vandals were therefore trained for war in the best of schools 500 years ago.

### Downfall of the Teutonic Knights

As the wealth of the Knights increased they gave themselves up to wild orgies and abandoned their missionary expeditions. Their authority still further waned when, in 1386 A. D., the prince of Lithuania married the heiress of Poland, united the two coun-

tries under his own sceptre and imposed Christianity as the state religion. Wars with Poland followed, and the historical number of the slain passes all belief. The Knights, once so rich, now became desperately poor. In order to pay the heavy indemnity exacted by the successful Poles, they lured two wealthy burgomasters into the Castle, robbed and killed them. The Prussians thereupon formed a league to expel the Knights; but Emperor Frederick of Germany declared it illegal. Poland was appealed to and eventually conquered and held all of Prussia. By the Treaty of Thron, in 1466, half of Prussia was annexed by Poland and the balance became a vassal dependency. Henceforth, each grandmaster was required, to his great humiliation, to swear the oath of allegiance to the Polish conquerors.

### The Hohenzollerns Appear

IN 1511, Albert the Bear, Margrave of Brandenburg, was elected grandmaster of the Teutonic Knights, embraced the Lutheran cause during the Reformation era, dissolved the Order and reorganized it into a secular duchy, and eventually paid homage to Poland. Thus Brandenburg and Prussia were now alike in the hands of the Hohenzollerns, though of different branches. These branches were united when John Sigismund, elector of Brandenburg and a descendant of that Hohenzollern who had become possessed of Brandenburg in 1415 by foreclosure of a mortgage, succeeded to the dukedom after Albert Frederick became insane. Sigismund united with the Protestant forces and acquired Cleves and other possessions. His successor, George William, adopted a policy of neutrality during the Thirty Years' War, thus incurring the hatred of the Protestants and Catholics alike. Prussia was overrun by the Swedes, Poles, and Imperial armies for a period of twelve years, and suffered greatly under the scourge of fire and sword.

### Birth of the Prussian War Machine

THE Prussian war machine was created by Frederick William, the elector who ruled from 1640 to 1688, and who conceived that the future glory of his nation depended upon an invincible army. To the building up of



this machine, Frederick applied all the resources of his country, denying himself and his court even the ordinary decencies of living. In addition to his own stalwart Huns, he scoured the world for huge soldiers to add to his Prussian Guards. Soon all Prussia was converted into a drill ground, the severities of which rested like a pall on the nation. In his private life, King Frederick showed himself a true Hun. Macauley describes him as a frightful savage, whose rage vented itself in curses and blows. His subjects fled before him as from a ravenous tiger. He was wont to kick women he chanced to meet when out walking, and to cane clergymen. His palace was described as a Hell, and himself as the most execrable of fiends. Despising the higher arts and sciences, his own mind was uncultivated and his sole recreation was to drill, drill, drill his world-conquering army.

### **Birth of Prussian Treachery**

PRUSSIAN treachery toward an ally received its first grand exemplification in the acts of Frederick William. His great aim was to free Sweden and Poland. Assisted by 60,000 Cossacks and Tartars, he marched against the Swedes to revenge the plunder of Prussian monasteries, and succeeded in regaining Warsaw and most of the treasure. Frederick agreed to aid the Swedes if they would reward him with Posen, Kalisch, and other Polish provinces. The Prussian-Swedish army outfought an army greatly superior in numbers, recapturing and looting Warsaw. Before consenting to aid the Swedes again, Frederick induced Charles Augustus to recognize him as supreme, absolute, and sovereign duke of Prussia in 1656. Within a week, however, he had treacherously negotiated with the Poles, offering to renounce the Polish provinces which Sweden had promised him for recognition of his sovereignty. It was stipulated that this treaty should be kept secret till Frederick could ascertain whether Austria would assist him in the event that Sweden sought to revenge his perfidy. As Emperor Leopold needed Frederick's vote in the near election, he reluctantly consented. Sweden thereupon declared war on Prussia and the Emperor sent Frederick

10,000 troops, while Poland aided him with 7000.

Frederick succeeded in driving the Swedes out of Pomerania and Poland, but King Louis XIV of France compelled him to restore conquered Pomerania. At the same time he acknowledged Frederick as a free sovereign over Prussia, thereby raising the House of Hohenzollern to the rank of a European power in 1660.

### **The Prussian People Subdued**

THE Prussian nobility and burghers protested against Frederick's assumption of lordship over them, even affirming that they preferred the government of Poland. They insisted that no taxes should be levied against their will, no wars or alliances begun without their consent, and demanded the disbandment of the army. In the diet of Königsberg, in 1661, they accused the Hohenzollern ruler of wishing to reduce them to servitude. The wildest rumors filled the air. It was alleged that all Lutherans were to be driven from their churches in favor of Calvinists. There were hints about Jesuit intrigues. Finally a conspiracy was formed to depose the Hohenzollerns and return to the yoke of Poland, but it failed of consummation. Frederick had cowed his savage people at last, and then he proceeded to tax them outrageously, to support his wars, seizing their household goods if the cash were not forthcoming.

### **Refugees Establish Prussia's Industries**

YET during his reign Prussia prospered amazingly. This was due largely to Frederick's policy of persuading artisans, tradesmen, and intellectuals generally to come to Prussia. Thus in 1685, when the edict of Nantes was revoked and the Huguenots were being persecuted in France, some 20,000 of their most capable artisans found asylum in Prussia and these refugees laid the solid foundations of Prussia's subsequent industrial and agrarian progress. Some 600,000 of their descendants are now full-fledged Germans.

### **"King of the Vandals" Crowns Himself**

HIS successor, Elector Frederick III, with the gold he had wrung from his people by

taxation, bribed the bankrupt Emperor Leopold to bestow upon him the crown of royalty. Preferring the title, "King of the Vandals," or, failing that, "King of the Wends," he was finally permitted, in 1701, to call himself, not King of Prussia, but only "King in Prussia." He enlisted the aid of certain Jesuit priests in this transaction, encouraging them to hope for the establishment of a church in Berlin; but once the crown was his he cast them aside and neglected even to notify Pope Clement XII of his elevation, in consequence of which omission, the Popes for 100 years thereafter never addressed the rulers of Prussia as kings, but merely as "marchese di Brandenburg."

With his own hands he crowned himself king, thus placing the kings of Prussia for all time above the entire nobility and populace of Prussia, a precedent which the other autocrats of Prussia down to the latest Wilhelm, have been careful to follow. His court was a brilliant one, and became the rallying place for the intellectuals of all lands; and especially all who had been persecuted, like Jesuits and Huguenots, philosophers, and atheists.

### Frederick the Great Land Grabber

It was to Frederick the Great, however, that Prussia owes its pre-eminence as a military power. He inherited the throne in 1713, and with it a treasure of \$6,000,000 and an army of 70,000, comprising the best disciplined troops in Europe. With the Great Frederick began the Prussian wars of conquest which have continued to this day. His first act was to despoil Austria of the kingdom of Silesia, a flagrant crime against the law of nations. Though he had signed the treaty which guaranteed its possession to Austria and given to Empress Maria Theresa the most solemn assurance that he would not make war upon her dominions, he nevertheless broke both the treaty and the assurance. The story of his perfidy does not end there. Frederick had formed an alliance with France and Bavaria at the beginning of the Austrian war, but later, when Maria Theresa offered him terms, he broke with his Allies. Persisting in his perfidy, he subsequently broke his treaty with Austria and invaded

the territory of his ally without any declaration of war. By his various attacks on Austria, France, and Russia he established in the German mind the tradition of Prussian supremacy over the whole of Europe. He also participated with Austria and Russia in the crime of the century, the partition of Poland, and now, a century and a half later, Poland is restored and the three powerful empires which despoiled her lie broken into fragments. Frederick the Great left to his son, Frederick William II, in 1797, an army of 220,000 men, a treasure of \$50,000,000, a territory of 77,000 square miles, and 6,000,000 subjects. He had taken a long stride in the direction of world dominion.

### Napoleon Humbled the Prussians

THE great Napoleon destroyed this military machine in the decisive battle at Jena in 1806, and reduced the Kingdom of Prussia to one-half its former area; but after his downfall Prussia recovered her lost possessions and in addition acquired portions of the kingdom of Saxony, Berg, Juliet, and several provinces on the Rhine. The King, however, repudiated his solemn promise to give the Prussian people a liberal constitution. Instead, he set up a "patriarchal despotism," based upon military power, and practically enslaved the Prussian race as his successors were later to enslave the Germanic races.

### Another Insane Hohenzollern

HIS son, Frederick William IV (1840-61), continued this autocratic policy, crushed the popular rebellion of 1848 with a ruthless hand, destroyed absolutely the moral prestige of Prussia, and died a maniac in 1861.

### Enter Bismarck

HIS successor, Wilhelm I, with the aid of his brilliant, but soulless chancellor, Otto von Bismarck, succeeded in imposing the Prussian will over the lesser German states as a step toward Prussian supremacy in Europe. With Austria's aid, he stripped Denmark of the principalities of Schleswig and Holstein, and rather than share the loot with Austria, joined with Italy in declaring war against that decadent shell of empire in 1866, bring-



ing Austria to his feet in a few short weeks. The Treaty of Prague, which closed the war, provided for the formation of the North German Confederation of States, excluded Austria from participation in German affairs, and left the way open for a federation of the southern German states, which are largely Catholic. Prussia gained by this war Schleswig-Holstein, Hanover, Hesse-Cassel, Nassau, and Frankfort.

### Prussia Gains Ascendancy Over Germany

THE next step in Prussia's program of world empire took the form of German unity under Prussian leadership. Never in all their history had the German states consented to unite. Charlemagne almost succeeded in welding the Teutonic clans into a compact whole, but on the death of that mighty ruler the old empire quickly crumpled. The lesser German states, however, in the 19th century held the Prussian-Vandals in a sort of awe, and under coercion consented to Bismarck's proposals, resulting in the formation of a Prussian-Teutonic alliance.

### The Franco-Prussian War, 1870

BISMARCK and the military clique, by means of a forged document, betrayed France into declaring war against Germany.

So carefully had the plans of Bismarck been prepared that the Prussian victory over France was so quick and decisive as to startle the whole world. The Prussians, with the thought to bankrupt France, imposed an indemnity of one billion of dollars upon their fallen foe, but France paid the entire sum in a few years. More painful to France, however, was the seizure of her beloved provinces of Alsace-Lorraine, which she has recovered in the recent conflict.

After the Franco-Prussian war, the electors of Germany united to form an empire, naming the king of Prussia as the hereditary emperor of the German nation.

Thus, in the course of a few centuries, the Vandal-Prussians, an alien race of super-savages from out the land of Gog-Magog, by the power of the sword, by treachery, by deceit, by bribery, had achieved their ambi-

tion to dominate Europe, and now proposed to dominate the world at their pleasure. For centuries these Vandals had been unwearied in their endeavors to expand, at the expense of other peoples sprung from various sources. More than once, these ambitions have resulted in serious reverses. This was notably the case during the Thirty Years' War, in 1640, when Prussia was so utterly devastated that certain districts retained scarcely half their inhabitants, and the Vandal state was only preserved from extinction by offering asylum to the oppressed of other lands. Then was beheld that great influx of immigrants from the Netherlands, of Huguenots from France, of the afflicted from other lands, who introduced improved agricultural methods among the semi-savages, established a variety of new industries, and elevated Berlin from a squalid little town of 6000 souls, a mere market place, into a populous, progressive and prosperous city.

### Cannibalism in Prussia in 1639

Repeatedly Prussia has been forced to rebuild a national structure which internal anarchy, invasion, pestilence, plague, and other recurring visitations of divine wrath had shattered. During the Thirty Years' War ending in 1640, whole regions of the Margrave's domain were converted into a wilderness, and of the 330,000 inhabitants barely half survived. Similar afflictions were visited upon the Duchy of Cleves, the Duchy of Prussia, Pomerania, Magdeburg, Halberstadt, and Minden. From a town of 9000 souls, Prenzlau had shrunk to a village of 600 persons.

The magistrate of Prenzlau, writing in 1639, bewails the fact that "living has become so dear that everywhere are heard the wailings, the cries, the howlings of the famished. They feed upon the strangest of foods. They eat dogs and cats, and even appease their hunger in the open street with the bones of the dead; and—must one speak of such horrors?—famine rages so cruelly that, in the rural districts and even in the towns men attack one another; the stronger kills the feebler, cooks and eats his flesh."



### How Prussia was Colonized

THE first immigrants to enter Prussia were pillagers and adventurers in the train of the armies who had been left without employment, when peace was declared. Then, in 1685, an appeal was made to the French Huguenots to settle in Prussia, where freedom of faith was absolute. Responding to this appeal, 20,000 Huguenots flocked to the Mark of Brandenburg alone, representing more than a tenth of the whole population. Under Frederick II the work thus initiated was continued. Refugees from the devastated Palatinate, from Switzerland, from Austria, from Saalzburg, from Bohemia, from Silesia, more Huguenots and numbers of Vandois folks, found a home in Prussia. To each immigrant was given free possession of his lands, full liberty of religious worship, privileges, security and justice, to insure their co-operation in upbuilding Prussia. In 50 years, or by 1740, out of a total population of 2,400,000 inhabitants, the immigrants and their offshoots numbered 600,000. Thus Prussia's warrior race was strengthened by an infusion of skilled workmen in many crafts, agricultural experts, and industrial leaders. Frederick even looked outside his domain for material to improve his army, paying spot cash to neighboring princes for 83,000 men of giant stature, whom he placed in the van of his army.

Under Frederick the Great, systematic colonization became a special branch of the Prussian administration to the same extent as the raising of taxes or of the militia. Following the Seven Years' War "Prussia was restocked by human cattle and the living instruments of production, much as a farmer stocks his farm and works it." All Prussia became a vast machine whose wheels were adjusted and set whirling by the most pitiless exploiter of flesh and blood the world has ever seen. In his life work, Frederick symbolized the hidden creative forces which had labored and darkly striven to advance Prussia along its predestined way. His heirs deemed themselves destined to subjugate and regenerate the world.

### Prussian People Willing Slaves

FREDERICK molded Prussia into a state half modern, half feudal, with an artificial cohesion and unity, founded upon a most rigid military discipline, which knew no impulse save that of the king who was its living incarnation. Unlike all other states of Europe, the Prussian institutions were imposed by the absolute will of its ruler upon a most motley horde of immigrants, uprooted from their own country and destitute of personal or collective right. Heirs of the grandmasters of the Teutonic Order and of the Margrave's, the Hohenzollerns, re-established the autocracy of the Middle Ages, amid the anarchy of the lands they inherited. Conceiving themselves the spiritual fathers and military chiefs of their subjects, they were the absolute masters of their bishops, their nobles, their burgesses, and their peasants. There was no right in power or time superior to theirs, and from their decision there could be no appeal.

### Alliance Between Prussia and Germany

THE Napoleonic whirlwind overwhelmed Prussia, but when the storm had abated, Prussia renewed her life by the old method of colonization. The gates were again opened wide to admit artisans from other lands, who were granted many privileges. Masters of statecraft were drawn from other German dominions—Stein from Nassau, Hardenburg and Scharnhorst from Hanover, Gneisenan from Saxony, Blucher from Mecklenburg. Together they built a new Prussia, greater than the old, its roots drawn from every soil. Finally, an unholy alliance was formed between spiritual Germany and brutal Prussia, with Germany playing a subservient role, dazzled by the success of Prussian paganism. The Germans were quickly trained in mechanical and passive obedience until, like their Prussian mentors, they had lost their old spiritual ideals and directed their thoughts toward material ends, forever absorbed in a brutal and unscrupulous realism. The gospel of "success," at any price, the idolatry of might, became the religion of Germany, until the entire nation was transformed into a hideous beast of prey.



## Kaiser William Associated with Deity in the German Mind

Dismissing Bismarck, the Emperor Plans His Conquest of the World

**I**N pursuance of the cherished dream of world dominion, both material and spiritual, which should enable the German mind to prevail over the world, her historians, her philosophers, her theologians, publicists, and her politicians have been drilling into the minds and hearts of the German people of all classes, from the Kaiser to the peasant, the duty and necessity of the lofty and mighty ambition for their great country. They carried the idea of the superman so far, that they associated the Kaiser with Deity. As for that monster of egotism, the proof that he directly incited the acts of brutality committed by his soldiers in Belgium and in France, is contained in his address to his troops at Potsdam in 1891:

"Body and soul you belong to me. If I command you to shoot your fathers and mothers, you must follow my command without a murmur."

How well they obeyed his command the story of ravished Belgium offers sufficient proof.

### Bernhardi Disregards International Law

THE political conceptions with which the modern Prussian autocrats have inoculated the German mind were practically carried out by the early founders of the Prussian monarchy. The keynote of that policy, as enunciated by Gen. von Bernhardi and chorused by all the ruling classes was as follows:

"In its undertakings a state should consider only the factor of force, disregarding every law except that of its own advantage. We can secure Germany's position on the continent of Europe only if we succeed in smashing the Triple Entente, in humiliating France, and giving her that position to which she is entitled. The Middle-European states which are at present independent must be joined to Germany. Until we have crossed swords with England, our foreign

policy is condemned to failure. Not only our army and our navy, but our foreign policy, must be ready for immediate action."

Aided by her universities, her historians, her philosophers, her patriotic societies, but most of all by her system of military education in the public schools, Prussia succeeded in transforming the mental attitude of the German people in less than 50 years. Her historians flattered them with assertion of their superiority to all other nations; her philosophers taught them that morality was an illusion, and that the only reality was Might. Her politicians caused visions of universal domination, to glitter before their eyes, and her harsh barrack discipline enslaved their wills.

### Germany Spoon-Fed by the Prussians

OBEDIENCE to military authority disinclines the German to think for himself. The pupils in the public schools, from the primary grades up to the universities, have been "spoon-fed" by their Prussian masters. The system of instruction was one-sided. In the study of history, for example, no standard authors were permitted to be read even in the highest classes. The minds of all students were saturated with a Prussian version of world history. So strict a discipline was maintained that even the more liberal schools have been described as "purgatories" for the average boy, and as "infamous" to the less bright and incompetent. The sad consequence of the frightful overpressure to which the child mind of Germany was subjected, is seen in the yearly statistics of schoolboy suicides who had failed to secure the coveted certificate of exemption from military duties.

### True Liberty Unknown in Germany

THE kings of Prussia have always been absolute sovereigns of their realm, holding that the state was supreme and that the sole function of the people was obedience. Every-

thing was sacrificed to the principle of ceaselessly extending the territory of the Prussian monarchy. Personal liberty as understood elsewhere in Europe and in America was unknown in Germany. Religion was fostered in Germany by the state as an agency to keep the masses in order. A part of the religion was its cult of war, its negation of the Golden Rule, its repudiation of the teachings of Christ. The religion of war was taught in all the schools; it permeated the entire life of Germany.

### **Bismarck Becomes Dictator of Germany**

BISMARCK, the man of "Blood and Iron," and the one great man whom Prussia can boast in the past century, became the dictator of Germany from the birth of the Empire in 1876. The senile emperor, William I, was but a royal figurehead. Upon the declaration of Papal infallibility by the Vatican Council in 1873, Bismarck organized the *Kulturkampf* to oppose the power of the Catholic Church in Germany. The nation was split into two warring factions and Bismarck defiantly announced that he would never make a peace with the popes, or, as he phrased it, would never "go to Canossa." Six years later, however, when the growth of the Socialist party was so rapid as to endanger the safety of the state, Bismarck implored the aid of the pope in opposing Socialism. With hat in hand he went to "Canossa."

Germany's pre-eminence among the nations of Europe was shown in 1878, at the Congress of Berlin called to arrange a peace between Russia and Turkey. The Prussian delegates succeeded in depriving Russia of all the advantages she had won as the natural protector of the Balkan states. The Prussians did not wish Russia to be in the position to block their scheme of a Berlin to Bagdad railway. Russia remembered this injury in 1914.

### **Enter Kaiser William II**

Now was ushered in the most calamitous era in world history. Emperor William I died in 1888 and his successor, Frederick III, survived him only three months. Kaiser William II, the author of the Great World War, then ascended the throne. Upon his acces-

sion to power he at once threw down the gauntlet to England, declaring pompously that "Germany must be supreme on sea as well as land." England was even then so unsuspicious of her great rival that Lord Salisbury, the Prime Minister, was persuaded by the Kaiser to give him the island of Heligoland, "the Gibraltar of the North," which commands the entire eastern coast of Britain, in exchange for two parcels of land in Africa.

William II's utterances soon took on a dictatorial tone. Imbued beyond reason with the doctrine of the divine authority of the Prussian kings, no monarch since the days of the Roman Emperor Caligula ever placed himself so nearly on a level with Deity as he. And being set upon a pedestal as a model for the Germans, his vanity and egotism have encouraged in that race their most nauseating characteristics.

### **William Dismisses Bismarck**

THE policies of Emperor William were in frequent collision with those of the old chancellor, who had presented the Empire as a gift to the Hohenzollerns. Bismarck, after that great achievement, declared that Germany was "satiated" with glory and power and had reached the limit of territorial ambition. He particularly opposed the program of colonial expansion which was now being broached. In so doing he aroused the ire of the Emperor, whose dream of world empire now obsessed him. Too proud to share the imperial power, William II resolved to dismiss the aged pilot of the ship of state. The ostensible cause of the rupture was the effort of Bismarck to revive special legislation against the Socialists in 1890. William had been seeking to placate them, and he deposed the iron chancellor as a further sop to that body of radicals. But the Socialists failed to be won over by the Kaiser's wiles, and he became their virulent foe, nor did he again address them until the outbreak of the World War.

### **The Kaiser Throws Off the Mask**

WILHELM then threw off the mask of peace and strode the stage of Europe like an Alexander. The era of the "Mailed Fist" had



opened. His frequent addresses were often marked by a frenzy that was maniacal, as when he constantly referred to the fact that his throne was "founded upon bloodshed" and was "maintained by the bayonets of his faithful army." On another occasion he declared he owed his "awful responsibility to the Creator alone, and that no man, no minister, no parliament, can relieve the people of their allegiance to him." Addressing the soldiers at Potsdam, he urged them to remember that "they were his, body and soul, and if he ordered them to shoot their own parents they must do it without a murmur." When his troops were departing for China to subdue the Boxers he bade them "remember you are Huns; spare not, slay the enemy without pity." On his famous trip to Syria, in 1898, Kaiser Wilhelm assured "the 300,000,000 Mohammedans who live scattered over the globe, that he will be their friend at all times."

### Pauper Nation Becomes Enormously Rich

GERMANY, under William II's leadership, entered upon an era of commercial and industrial expansion successful beyond her most sanguine dreams. From a "pauper nation," priding herself on her simple manners, she became a very Colossus among the nations of the earth. The billion dollars coming from France enabled the Prussian banks to finance great enterprises. Giant corporations were formed, dwarfing the great American trusts. These were all state controlled. New enterprises were subsidized by the state. German ships sailed every sea; German banks were established in every corner of the earth. Labor was fully occupied. Everybody was prosperous. The old nations looked on this progress with sad eyes, fearing a competitor which might soon outstrip them.

German emigration, which had totalled 3,000,000 in the previous forty years, had shrunk to a negligible figure, 25,000 in the year 1913. Labor was in such demand in Germany that it was necessary to import many workmen for the factories. It is true that as the factories multiplied in the cities the agricultural regions were drawn upon for workmen and Germany could not produce over 80 per cent of the grains she required.

But she could and did export her manufactured products in exchange for the grains that she needed. Her population increased 30,000,000 in the 40 years since the Franco-Prussian War. Clearly the problem of expansion was a pressing one.

### Pan-Germanism

THEN was heard the cry that Germany must have a "place in the sun." Unfortunately for her, all the best places in the sun were already occupied by older nations. The Prussians decided to oust some of those nations from their colonial possessions. The most extreme among these colonial Chauvinists were the "Pan-Germans." They declared it Germany's duty to reconquer as soon as possible all countries, or parts of countries, that have been at any time affiliated with the ancient German Empire since the days of Charlemagne. This affiliation included, of course, the whole of France, Italy, Russia, Hungary, Holland, and Belgium. Aiding and abetting them was a renegade Englishman, named Houston Chamberlain, Wagner's son-in-law, who declared the Germans "the salt of the earth" and its predestined regenerators, and blasphemously asserting that "Christ was a Teuton also."

This Pan-Germanic Movement was merely a form of disguised propaganda for the inevitable war to be fought for the control, first of Europe, then of the entire world. Encouraged by the Pan-Germanists, Kaiser Wilhelm began more and more to identify himself with the decrees of the Almighty. The "Me and God" motif crept constantly through most of his public utterances.

As a preliminary step toward conquering Europe and the world, the Kaiser adopted a policy of alienating the "weak nations" one from another.

### Sought to Inflamm Europe Against U. S. A.

EMPEROR William's first real essay in world politics marked him as a covert enemy of this republic. In 1898, during our war with Spain, the Emperor sought long and vainly to rally the European nations against the republic that was laying impious hands upon another "divinely appointed ruler."

Upon England's refusal to take part in the



plot, the scheme died "aborning." It will be recalled, in this connection, that when a German fleet was on the point of attacking Admiral Dewey's squadron at Manila, the British fleet came to the rescue and the German fleet withdrew.

### Aided Boers Against Great Britain

Up to 1896 the relations of Germany with England had been generally pacific, at least upon the surface. These relations were strained at the time of Dr. Jameson's raid in the Transvaal, when the Kaiser sent his famous letter of congratulation to President Paul Kruger of the Boer Republic. There followed a violent agitation against England on the part of the press of Germany. Still, during this stressful period Kaiser Wilhelm paid two visits to his grandmother, Queen Victoria, and was cordially received.

### Germany's Naval Program Arouses England

IN 1901 Joseph Chamberlain suggested an Anglo-Saxon Alliance, but so violently was this proposal received in Germany that it was never renewed. At about this time, Britain was genuinely alarmed at the rapid growth of the German navy in rivalry to England's, following the completion of the Kiel Canal in 1898. This was construed in Britain as an act of naval defiance, a warning that Germany intended to establish her supremacy on the sea as on the land. The German press, at this period, was especially vituperative in tone. England quite naturally bestirred herself to form a defensive alliance, and the choice fell upon France and Russia, the enemies of Germany.

### The Triple Entente Is Formed

THE Triple Entente was now formed, though not without certain difficulties. The defensive alliance with France was effected in 1903 and that with Russia in 1907. This alliance was the "circle of steel" which so annoyed Germany. Meanwhile, Germany schemed to alienate France and England. France in 1904 had acquired a lien on the vast territory of Morocco in recompense for conceding England's right to undisputed possession of Egypt after the menacing affair at Fashoda. England and Russia had previously agreed upon the joint government of

Persia. Both Morocco and Persia were Mohammedan states. In these large transactions Germany, the "super-nation" of earth, was completely ignored. Kaiser Wilhelm, wounded in his imperial pride, informed the three "conspirators" that he should in the future claim the privilege to share in the "distribution" of all remaining "opportunities for colonial enterprise."

Biding his time until the following year (1905), Emperor Wilhelm suddenly appeared at Tangier and formally declared the Sultan an "absolutely independent sovereign." A council called at Algeciras, Spain, in the same year, declared the independence of the African sultanate. Only the warning of England prevented Germany from declaring war against France at this time.

### The Morocco Affair

A SECOND attempt at bulldozing France in 1911 was even more successful. The French had sent an armed force to Fez, the capital of Morocco, to preserve order among the Mohammedans. Germany thereupon dispatched a gunboat to Agadir and all Europe trembled on the very edge of war. Germany finally agreed in the peace conference at Algeciras to French control in Morocco, but demanded and received in "compensation" 100,000 square miles of valuable French territory in Africa. The wrath of the French nation blazed forth at this added proof of German perfidy, and all Europe knew from that moment that the German Beast would stop at nothing short of universal war.

During the next ten years England was so engrossed in her domestic affairs, more especially with the alarming state of Ireland, that she had but little heart for particular policies. Repeatedly her foremost military geniuses, especially Gen. Lord Roberts, warned her of the imminence of the German peril, but feeling secure on the sea she ignored the warnings and omitted to advance her preparations for defensive warfare. This British indifference to world affairs encouraged the Kaiser to believe that the British Empire could be crushed at his pleasure. During this period, however, the course of events in the Balkans gave him the gravest concern.



## German, Austrian, and Turkish Intrigues in the Balkans

### Kaiser Wilhelm Schemes to Build a Railroad from Berlin to Bagdad

SINCE the wrongs of Serbia were the cause of the great war, as the assassination of the Duke Francis Ferdinand of Austria was the pretext, it will profit the reader to retrace the origin of the Balkan troubles in which Serbia has ever played a foremost role. The Serbians, who belong to the great Slav race, first lost their independence five centuries ago with their defeat by the Turks in the decisive battle of Kosovo. Under their Czar, Stephen Dushan, they had been the dominant nation in the Balkan peninsula. A small fragment of the race, however, escaped and set up an independent kingdom in the mountain land of Montenegro. Here for four centuries they waged heroic and incessant warfare against the Turks, and finally threw off the hated yoke in 1804, thus sounding the doom of the Turk in Europe. The news of Greek liberation followed. A half century later Russia assisted the Bulgarians to expel the Turks from their land.

#### Disraeli Dooms the Serbians

IN 1875, when the Turks had been expelled from Serbia, Greece, Bulgaria, and Rumania, the Bosnians in alliance with their Slav brothers in Serbia and Montenegro, boldly attacked the foe. Just when their victory seemed certain, Austria-Hungary intervened and robbed the Bosnians of their victory. In the Congress of Berlin, which concluded a peace, the Jew Disraeli, then Prime Minister of England, restored Macedonia and Bosnia to the Turks, Bismarck secretly rejoicing and saying: "The Jew will do the job for us." This act of perfidy is denounced by one modern British historian as "the greatest wrong ever done to the cause of peace and the greatest outrage to honor." So Serbia was left to struggle alone with her ancient foe for a union of her separated peoples.

Austria, which had previously induced the corrupt King Milan to wage war with Bul-

garia in 1885, had prevented the Serbians from gaining access to the sea through Albania, thus forcing the Serbians to look toward Macedonia for their future expansion. This brought the Serbians into conflict with the rival ambitions of Bulgaria and was the sufficient cause of the Balkan War in 1912.

Meanwhile, in 1909, Austria, the cat's-paw of Prussia, had seized Bosnia in express violation of the Treaty of Berlin, shaking her "mailed fist" in the face of Russia, the natural guardian of the Slav race. Serbia and Montenegro, encouraged by Russia, resented this plot to separate them from their brethren and were ready for war, but at this juncture the Prussian Kaiser showed his hand, and Russia was forced to retire while Serbia and Montenegro had to crave for mercy.

It seemed now, Russia being disabled, as if the Serbian races were crushed forever, and the way was open for Prussia and Austria to realize their dream of a great Prussian empire in Macedonia, connected with the Fatherland by a Berlin to Bagdad railway running through the Balkans, under a Turkish concession.

#### The Balkan Federation

THE Kaiser's plans, however, were set awry in 1912 when the first great Balkan Federation was formed and the hitherto irreconcilable Serbians, Greeks, and Bulgarians united to drive the Turk out of Europe. Their victory was quick and decisive. The Greeks seized Saloniki, the Serbs Monastir, and the Bulgars, Adrianople. All three were at the gates of Constantinople, and the Turk was at their mercy, when the powers of "Christian Europe" interfered at a conference held in London.

It was decreed that Serbia must give up Albania upon the demand of Austria, whose purpose was to disrupt the Balkan League. Serbia thereupon demanded the right to hold

all of Macedonia, which she had won, in violation of her treaty with Bulgaria which provided for an equal division of that territory. To this proposal Bulgaria demurred and left the conference to finish her conquest of Adrianople. Greece also refused to yield Saloniki as the Congress decreed.

### Second Balkan War

URGED on by Austria and Prussia, the Bulgarians declared war upon their recent allies. The Bulgars gained a brief success over the Serbs, but the Greeks came to the rescue of the Serbs and drove the Bulgars out of Macedonia. Bulgaria's discomfiture was complete when the Rumanians took possession of northern Bulgaria, and the Turks reoccupied Adrianople. By the treaty of Bucharest, all of Macedonia was given to Serbia; the Greeks recovered Saloniki and a stretch of seacoast; a section of Bulgaria was Rumania's reward; while the Turk recovered much of Thrace.

### Austria Plans War Against Serbia in 1913

AUSTRIA, as a result of the war, had lost all hope of an outlet on the Ægean Sea, had made an enemy of Rumania, and was pained by the spectre of a Greater Serbia rising in her path. Nor was Serbia's cup of happiness filled. Austria's hold on Bosnia was as sore a point with Serbia as was Germany's hold on Alsace-Lorraine to France.

More ominous to Austria was the fact that millions of Slavs in Austria had been thrilled by the victory of Serbia and looked forward to the day when they, too, should throw off the German yoke and reunite with their Slav brethren.

Seeing the danger, and with Emperor William's consent, Austria made secret overtures to Italy in 1913 for approval of her plan to wage instant war against Serbia.

Italy refused to be drawn into a pact, and Austria, at Prussia's instigation, deferred the fatal blow for a year. The proof is contained in the Giolotti letter.

### The Lull Before the Storm

THE diplomats of Europe, following the second Balkan War, patched up a peace at a conference in Bucharest, and deceived themselves into believing that the danger of a European conflagration was past. But all Europe was in reality a volcano ready to belch forth in an instant. Throughout the Balkan states, the Serbians had organized secret political societies, and constant appeals were made to the spirit of Slavic patriotism. Austria and Prussia were prepared, as we have seen, by the proposal made to Italy, to strike at Serbia with the full force of their armies. The situation was further complicated by serious religious differences among the Serbs.

In the spring of 1914, negotiations were in progress with Pope Pius X, resulting in a concordat whose terms were especially satisfactory to the Catholic element among the Serbs. Archduke Francis Ferdinand of Austria, moreover, was known to be in sympathy with the Slavs; he was marriedmorganatically to a Slav woman, and had even promised a large measure of liberty to the Slavs in event of his accession to the throne of the Dual Monarchy. In so doing he had incurred the bitter enmity of the reactionary Magyar nobility of Hungary, the inveterate foes of the Slavs and the real ruling power of the monarchy. His death was desired because he had announced his purpose to establish a Federation in Austria, giving the Slavs a kingdom of their own, and thus diminishing the predominance of the Hun monarchy in the Dual Kingdom.



## Assassination of the Archduke Ferdinand the Pretext for War

Austria, at Germany's Dictation, Declares War Against Serbia.  
Russia, France and England to the Rescue.

THE Archduke Francis Ferdinand, heir to the throne of Austria, with his morganatic wife, the Duchess of Hohenberg, was paying a visit of state to Bosnia, then a subject province of Austria, peopled by Slavs. After viewing the maneuvers of two army corps at their field quarters, he expressed a desire to inspect the troops in the capital at Serajevo. He arrived in the capital early on the morning of Sunday, June 28, 1914, to find only the local governor and his staff waiting to receive him. The streets were thronged, for the day was a Serbian fete. While the party was motoring leisurely toward the place of inspection, a black package fell upon the opened hood of the archduke's car. He tossed it into the street, where it exploded, wounding two officials in a motor car and six spectators in the street. The bomb-thrower, a young printer by the name of Cabrinovitch, a native of Herzegovina, was seized, and confessed at his trial that he had received the bomb from the Serbian arsenal at Kragujevatz.

Arrived at the Town Hall, the Archduke protested against the lack of precautions taken to insure his safety, but when the civic officials sought to dissuade him from continuing his tour of the city, he refused and insisted upon driving to the hospital where one of the wounded aides-de-camp was receiving treatment. As his car was proceeding through a narrow street, the Appel Quay, a bomb was thrown which failed to explode. The assassin, a Bosnian student called Prinzip, and like Cabrinovitch a Protestant Serb, then approached the car and fired three shots from a Browning pistol. The Archduke was mortally wounded in the neck, and the Duchess was terribly wounded in the abdomen, she having offered her body as a shield to save her husband. Both died within an hour. The Austrian governor of Serajevo at once laid the blame at Serbia's door. The true authorship of the dastardly crime, however, is yet to be revealed.

The assassination was denounced generally throughout Europe, but no international complications were expected to result from it. President Poincare of France was spending a holiday in Russia; Emperor William of Germany was cruising his yacht in Norwegian waters; the trial of Madame Gaillaux engaged the attention of Paris, while England was engrossed with her Irish crisis in Ulster. The world waited calmly for the Austrian government to act in the matter.

### Secret Preparations for War

A WHOLE month elapsed before the Dual Monarchy deigned to notice the tragedy officially. We now know she employed these four weeks in preparations for war. July 23 the government of Austria-Hungary presented certain impossible demands to Serbia, and demanded an acceptance within 48 hours. Serbia accepted all the conditions except two. Concerning the demand that she "accept the collaboration in Serbia of representatives of the Austria-Hungarian government in the suppression of the subversive movement directed against the territorial integrity of the monarchy," Serbia would admit such collaboration as was permitted by international law. But against Article 6, which demanded that Serbia should consent to Austrian judges sitting at the trial of political cases in Serbia, a vigorous protest was made, on the ground that it would be a violation of her constitution. Had Serbia accepted these impossible terms, it would have been equivalent to surrendering her sovereignty as an independent nation, and conceding Austria's right to control Serbia's internal administration. However, Serbia did consent to refer the Austrian ultimatum to the Hague Tribunal for settlement. The offer was scornfully refused, and the Austrian minister left Belgrade. The fuse had been lit which started the world-wide explosion. It was an ultimatum, not to Serbia alone, but to the whole world.



### Efforts for Peace

WHEN the full text of the ultimatum was published, public opinion outside Hun-land was incensed at the severity of the demand. A feverish week of diplomatic effort followed among the nations of Europe. Sir Edward Grey, the British Foreign Minister, and Czar Nicholas of Russia worked ceaselessly in their efforts to prevent a declaration of war, for it had been foreseen that all Europe would be brought into the conflict because of pre-existing alliances.

It was proposed to hold a conference in London to mediate the dispute between Austria and Serbia. France and Italy quickly agreed, but the Teutons declined because their hearts had been set on war and their preparations completed down to the last detail. Indeed, it is known that the day after the crime, Austria issued secret mobilization papers to her subjects abroad. Kaiser Wilhelm had returned from his cruise and Britain went mad with war fever.

### War Is Declared

AUSTRIA sought to pacify or mislead Russia, July 24, by pledging herself not to annex Serbian territory in event of war. Russia asked that an extension of time be granted Serbia in which to reply to the ultimatum, but was answered in the negative. The next day Russia published her warning that she would render assistance to Serbia if the Slav race were attacked. Sir Edward Grey proposed a conference of neutral ambassadors to compose the differences of Serbia and Austria, but this solution was rejected by Germany, who on the same day urged France and Great Britain to persuade Russia to remain neutral, a cold-blooded proposal which England and France rejected. Next the Kaiser pleaded with Russia to allow Serbia to be destroyed by Austria. In reply the Czar suggested referring the whole matter to the Hague Tribunal. To this suggestion Emperor William made no reply.

July 28, Austria declared war on Serbia and marched her army toward Belgrade. The next day Emperor William made a shameless bid for British neutrality, pledging Germany to take no territory from

France in case of a German victory, but omitting mention of French colonies in Egypt and Africa; nor was any mention made as to sparing the French fleet, or as to the size of the indemnities to be imposed on France. This typical German proposal was declined with scorn. On July 30, while Austria's army was on the march, Russia began to mobilize toward the Austrian frontiers. The next day Kaiser William, whose own army of 830,000 was practically mobilized, sent an ultimatum to Russia, demanding that she cease further mobilization within twelve hours. The same day he made his last "shameful proposal" to England, saying he would not violate the neutrality of Belgium "provided" Belgium did not stand out against Germany. This proposal, too, was rejected by England. England then sent to Germany and France identical notes asking them if they would respect Belgium's neutrality. France gave her prompt assurance, but Germany countered by inquiring whether England would remain neutral if Belgium were spared. Again England declined to dicker with the Huns. Meanwhile the German ambassador at Brussels was giving daily lying assurances to Belgium that she would not be attacked.

France had made two requests to England to engage her support in event that France were attacked, but England would not at first consent. Meanwhile, in compliance with the terms of an old treaty, France withdrew her fleet from her own coast in order to protect British interests in the Mediterranean. England thereupon assured France that if her coast were attacked she would defend her on the sea.

On August 1, Sir Edward Grey, still hoping to avoid a general war, telephoned the German ambassador a suggestion that if both Germany and France would remain neutral the war might still be "localized," but this proposal was "doctored" so as to make it appear that England and France had agreed to remain neutral, leaving Russia to the tender mercies of the Huns. The Kaiser assented to the "doctored" version, but when the correction was sent to him it was carefully suppressed.



### Typical Hun Treachery

GERMANY, on August 3, while refusing to promise not to trample down Belgium, would agree not to attack France by sea if Britain should remain neutral.

Belgium, on the same day, heroically warned Germany that she was prepared to defend her borders against invasion by any nation, and asked the aid of England, France, and Russia in the event that an invasion took place.

The English government, on August 4, demanded an immediate answer from Germany respecting Belgian neutrality, and was startled to receive a reply from Foreign Secretary von Jagow saying that the German troops had actually crossed the border and it was now too late to reconsider.

Sir Edward Goschen, English Ambassador to Germany, was instructed to serve notice in person on the German Emperor that war would be declared at midnight unless a more satisfactory answer could be given.

The Chancellor, Bethmann-Hollweg, protested against making such an ado over a "scrap of paper." Sir Edward Goschen prepared for transmission to England a telegraphic summary of his interview, but this was never forwarded by the German government. A typical example, truly, of German Kultur!

At midnight, on August 4, Great Britain declared war on Germany in defence of Belgium's integrity, which she, as well as Germany, had solemnly pledged herself in 1870 to respect. France and Russia also declared war on Germany, and Italy declared her neutrality.

### The Mendacious Huns

SEEKING to justify their violation of Belgium, the Vandal-Prussians resorted to brazen falsehood. First they alleged that French troops had already crossed the Belgian border, and that in the circumstances Prussia was justified in trespassing across Belgium also. This was an absolute falsehood and so understood by the whole world, Germany included.

Next the German falsifiers pretended to the "discovery" in Brussels of secret documents proving the existence of a "conspiracy" on the part of Belgium, France, and England to destroy Germany. This story was also proved to be absolutely false.

Finally, Chancellor Bethmann-Hollweg publicly confessed the great wrong Germany had done in invading Belgium's soil, and promised reparation, "as soon as our military ends are reached." What "reparation" Germany made to Belgium during the next five years will appear in the historical narrative of the war that follows.

## The German Nation in Hopeless Moral Bankruptcy

So Declared by Prof. Fugman of Leipsic University. A Sad Picture of Decadency.  
The Inevitable Fruit of Anti-Christian Ideals

**B**EFORE proceeding with the narrative of the German occupation of Belgium, which precipitated the universal war, let us present this picture of the moral degradation of Germany just on the eve of the war. The indictment of the whole nation is from the pen of Dr. Fugman of Leipsic University, who was discussing war in general as a "biological necessity" and a "world cleanser." He said:

"The life led by the bulk of the German people is indescribable, even though serious men lift up their voices against the iniquity of it all. Fidelity and faith has disappeared. A man's word has no value. Contracts are made only to be broken. Business in general assumes a shape resembling a huge organized deception. The corruptions of life grow apace, in town and country, and no prophet, no speaker, no preacher of morals, no apostle

of nature, no seer is in a position to stem the tide of degeneracy and decay. Every man who practices an ideal is ridiculed. God so loved the German nation that he sent this war to heal it of the gangrene which is eating out its vitals. This war comes from God; therefore it is a blessing. War is the father of all things, and for Germans it is the cause of an incomparable regeneration, an indescribable blessing for the great future before us."

NOTE—This is the nation that felt itself "divinely appointed" to reform a decadent world.

# FIRST YEAR OF THE WAR 1914

## Important Events on Land and Sea

PAGE	WESTERN THEATER	DATE	EASTERN THEATER	PAGE
		June 28	Archduke Francis Ferdinand assassinated.....	38
84	Germany and Austria secretly mobilize.....	July 21		
		23	Austria's ultimatum to Serbia.....	40
		25	Serbia rejects Austria's demands.....	40
		25	Austrian Minister leaves Serbia.....	40
		25	European Powers plead for a conference.....	31, 40
		25	Serbia begins mobilization of Army.....	40
127	British Navy guards North Sea.....	28	Austria declares war on Serbia.....	31, 40
		28	Austrians bombard Belgrade, Serbian capital.....	40
127	Germans lay mines in North Sea .....	28	Serbian Government moves to Nish.....	40
128	Germans bombard Algerian towns, Africa.....	29	Russia begins "preparatory mobilization".....	84
		29	Austria orders general mobilization.....	84
		31	Russia orders general mobilization.....	84
		31	Germany declares, "a state of war exists".....	84
51	France orders mobilization of Army.....	Aug. 1	Germany declares war on Russia.....	84
45	Germans invade Luxemburg .....	2	German troops on Russian border driven back.....	86
45	Germany demands passage through Belgium.....	2	Russia prohibits sale of vodka.....	83
45	Belgium rejects Germany's demand.....	3		
57	German patrol invades France.....	3		
34	Germany declares war on Belgium.....	4		
47	Belgium mobilization begins.....	4		
32	England declares war on Germany.....	4		
32	France declares war on Germany.....	4		
125	President Wilson's proclamation of neutrality.....	4		
36	Italy declares her neutrality.....	4		
46	Germany begins invasion of Belgium.....	5		
46	Germans begin bombardment of Liege.....	5		
51	Battles on French frontier begin .....	5	Russian troops invade East Prussia.....	86
127	British cut German cables.....	6	Turks close Dardanelles to Allies.....	124
		6	Turkey takes over two German ships.....	124
46	Belgian garrison evacuates Liege.....	7		
51	French invade Alsace and seize Altkirch.....	7		
51	French seize Mulhousen in Alsace.....	7		
51	Germans recover Mulhousen in Alsace.....	8	Russia grapples with enemy on 1,000-mile front.....	82
47	Belgians rout Germany at Haelen and Diest.....	10	Austrian Armies cross Polish frontier.....	92
		11		
47	Last of the Liege forts reduced by German guns.....	12	Austrian Armies invade Serbia.....	41
52	Second French invasion of Alsace-Lorraine begins....	12	Austrians bombard Loznitza.....	41
47	Belgians repulse Germans at Tirlemont.....	14	Serbians check Austrians at Loznitza.....	41
52	French occupy Mulhousen and Thann.....	14	War in German East Africa begins.....	123
47	Germans capture and burn Belgian villages.....	15	Japan sends ultimatum to Germany.....	114
53	French occupy Saarburg (or Morhange).....	15	Boer Parliament Supports England .....	119
48	Belgian Government transferred to Antwerp.....	16	Serbians defeat Austrians at Jadar.....	42
49	Bombardment of Namur fortress begins.....	16		
109	Revolting atrocities in Belgium.....	17	Russian Army invades Galicia.....	93
110	Germans set fire to Liege, Belgium.....	17	Russians win Battle of Gumbinnen.....	86
48	Germans occupy Louvain.....	17	Russian victory at Frankenau .....	87
53	French defeated at Morhange, Lorraine.....	18	Serbians defeat Austrians at Shabatz.....	42
48	Germans occupy Brussels.....	19		
54	French retreat out of Lorraine.....	19	English invade German Kameruns, Africa .....	121
55	French Army, defeated at Neufchateau.....	20		
56	French Army, defeated at Charleroi.....	20		
57	French Armies everywhere in retreat.....	21		
50	French evacuate Lille, Arras, and Amiens.....	22	Hindenberg takes command in East Prussia .....	87
50	German Armies sweep through Belgium.....	22		
49	Namur fortress evacuated.....	22		
54	Battle of Nancy .....	23	Austrians expelled from Serbian soil.....	42
58	British begin retreat from Mons.....	23		
61	Germans worsted in Battle of Andregnies.....	23	Russians defeat Germans at Gumbinnen .....	86
57	French evacuate Dinant.....	23	Japan declares war against Germany .....	115
108	Belgians reoccupy Malines .....	23		
61	British fall back on Maubeuge.....	24		
62	Germans repulsed at Landrecies.....	24	Germans surrender Togoland, Africa .....	121
62	British face disaster at Le Cateau.....	25	Japanese warships bombard, Tsing-tau.....	115
108	German Zeppelin bombs Antwerp.....	26	Austrians defeat Russians at Krasnik .....	93
63	French save British at Cambrai.....	26	Russian Army destroyed at Tannenberg .....	88
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128 Naval battle of Heligoland .....	28	
64 Rheims, Chalons, and Lille evacuated.....	29	
64 British surrender La Fere and Laon.....	30 Russians defeat Austrians at Halicz .....	93
64 British and French retreat ends at the Marne.....	31 German Samoan Islands captured.....	124
69 German pursuit swerves to southeast of Paris.....	Sept. 2 Japanese troops landed at Shantung .....	116
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71 French victory at Montmorail.....	6	
80 Germans defeated in Battle of Nancy.....	6	
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81 Germans reduce Troyon to ashes.....	20 Russians seize Jaroslav, Galicia .....	95
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212 Great eight months' siege of Verdun begins in 1916....	23 Russians invest Przemyśl, Galicia .....	95
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104 Belgians repulse Germans at Dixmude.....	9 Austrians again invade Serbia .....	117
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104 Belgians open dykes, drowning Germans.....	10 Turkish torpedo boats raid Sebastopol .....	125
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	28 Japanese bombard Kiau-chau .....	116
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	3 British bombard Turkish forts .....	124
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## GERMANY LOOSES HER THUNDERBOLTS

Christian Europe Swept by the Fiery Cataclysm Foretold by the Prophets  
 Gigantic Armies Invade Belgium, France, Serbia and Russian Poland  
 Three Continents Become Battle Grounds in the War for Human Freedom  
 7,000,000 Men Engage in Mutual Massacre on the Several Fronts  
 Heroic Belgians Hold Back the German Hordes at Liege and Namur  
 Kaiser's Armies, Overflowing Into France, Decisively Defeated on the Marne  
 Austrian Armies Ingloriously Defeated by the Russians and Serbians  
 Thrilling "Race for the Sea" Ends in German Defeat at Ypres, Belgium

### The Invasion of Serbia and Belgium Sets the World on Fire

4,000,000 Germans, Austrians and Turks Launch Blow at Peaceful Europe  
 2,553,000 Soldiers Spring to the Defense of Human Liberty

Belgium's First Army	140,000	Germany's Advance Army	2,000,000
France's First Army	800,000	(3,000,000 Additional Trained Troops Mobilizing, Including Greatest Assem- blage of Artillery in History.)	
England's First Army	90,000	Austria's First Army	1,200,000
Russia's First Army	1,250,000	Turkey's First Army	800,000
Serbia's First Army	200,000		
Montenegro's First Army	50,000		
Japan's First Army	23,000		
		Total Teutonic Forces	4,000,000
Total Allied Forces	2,553,000		

### Survey of Events in the Year 1914

**T**HIS is the shuddering story of Europe's martyrdom, of Christendom's deliverance from the dread bondage of Moloch, of the world's chastened emergence from the fiery cataclysm in which it was so suddenly plunged on that epochal day in July, 1914, when the "Gates of Hell" suddenly opened and Earth was deluged with sulphurous flames and fumes. It is the story of the battle of Right against Might, of the Bible against Babel, of Christ against Anti-christ! As the tremendous scenes in the cosmic catastrophe unfold one by one before our still horrified vision, we shall see all the nations engaged in the first universal conflict ever waged on Earth. Three mighty empires fall into stark ruin. Ancient kingdoms are blotted out as by a sponge. Emperors and Kings are toppled over like blades of grass. Cities and towns by thousands are reduced to dust and ashes. Three continents are drenched with the blood of 30,000,000 human victims, that Moloch's thirst might be sated.



Thousands of vessels, with their precious lives and treasure, are sent to the bottom of the ocean. Earth, with its thousand-mile battle lines is too small to satisfy the lust of Moloch; the war is carried into the air by myriad planes, and under the sea by submarines.

All this saturnalia of strife, so clearly foretold by the prophets, was the sequel to the ambition of an Emperor-Egotist, spurred on by his atheistical guides, to realize in his own person a pomp and plenitude of power surpassing that of all conquerors in history.

Swollen with pagan conceit and defiant of the mandates of Almighty God, William Hohenzollern plotted to subjugate all Christendom to his will, overthrow Christian civilization and destroy personal liberty throughout the Earth.

With the most formidable war machine the world had ever seen obedient to his merest nod, and with Austria, Bulgaria and Turkey as his pliant aids, Emperor William felt assured of the success of his Satanic assault on civilization.

Invoking the aid of science, he laid his plans with mathematical precision. Not only should he conquer all Europe, and ultimately the entire world, but his conquest should proceed by schedule—by time-table, if you please.

Knowing that Europe was unprepared for war, he mistakenly assumed that Russia could not possibly, within six weeks, mobilize an army beyond the power of Austria alone to subdue. England had fewer than 100,000 soldiers available for immediate service; Belgium less than 150,000; France could not rally 1,000,000 to her colors within three weeks. Therefore, the German Emperor assumed it would be merely a holiday jaunt for his army of 2,000,000 to rush through Belgium, seize the channel ports, at which an English army might possibly disembark, descend into France, capture Paris in three weeks, dictate a peace to France and England, and then transfer his victorious army to the Eastern front and dispose of the clumsy Russian bear.

We shall see, in the detailed narrative that follows, all the plans of the egotist miscarry, all his conceptions prove unstable. Russia's mobilization was a miracle of celerity. Instead of being menaced by Austria, it was the Russians that swept the Austrians back across the Carpathians in those first few weeks of war, taking Lemberg and Przemyśl, and even preparing to advance through the Moravian Gap to Berlin and Vienna.

Little Serbia, too, had driven the Austrian armies from her soil and reasserted her independence. The Russians, it is true, had suffered disaster at Tannenberg, East Prussia, but this was more than retrieved by their victories in Galicia.

So effective was the Russian offensive that Germany faced defeat on the Eastern front at the close of 1914. Only by the aid of Russian traitors, who

first betrayed their army, and finally their government, was Germany able to impose her will in the Eastern theater of the war.

On the Western front, Germany's schedule had similarly miscarried. The German warlords had visioned an unmolested passage through Belgium, ending in the easy conquest of all the coast cities.

Never had they supposed Belgium capable of holding back their titanic war machine three weeks at Liege and Namur, until France could mobilize her troops on the northern frontier. Despising England's expeditionary force of 90,000 as a negligible factor in the war on the Western front, they made no special effort to prevent its landing on French soil. That "contemptible little army" was destined to give a good account of itself at Mons, at the Marne and at Ypres.

For a brief while, after the little Belgian army had been isolated in Antwerp, and the German legions were pursuing the French and English toward Paris, victory seemed again in Kaiser's grasp. But here again German calculations went awry. German strategy, plus German force, was impotent before the genius of Joffre and Foch, plus French and British valor. The Huns were stopped at the Marne and sent reeling back to the Aisne, narrowly escaping complete annihilation. The Emperor's dream of world conquest had ended in sudden and ignominious failure.

His legions might, indeed, burrow and wallow in French and Belgium soil, massacre whole villages, violate the sanctity of woman, crucify children, shell defenceless hospitals, bombard helpless cities for four years more, but advance they could not on French and Belgium soil.

With the defeat of his Vandals and Huns in the battle of Ypres, a few weeks later, the Kaiser knew that his great adventure had ended in trench deadlock. From that time on he had striven to create a military situation which might enable him to negotiate a "peace" that would recompense him for the loss of his colonial empire in Africa, and his rich insular possessions in Asia.

His much vaunted navy still skulked in the twisted waterways of the Kiel Canal, fearing to give battle to the British. His commerce was driven from the sea.

There was no hope for success on the Western front. Only the collapse of Russia could be of avail to the cause of Germany, but that was deferred until the following year.

We shall now trace in detail the story of the first year of the world war in all theaters from its inception in Serbia to the concluding campaigns of 1914.

The events of the year have been carefully correlated, enabling the reader quickly to grasp and intelligently to view the opening scenes in the most appalling conflict in the annals of the human race.



EASTERN THEATER. JULY 29—AUG. 25

## First Gun in the Great World War is Fired in the Balkans

Austria Ingloriously Defeated by Little Serbia at Jadar and Shabats

SECTION 2—1914

Serbian Forces, 200,000

Field Marshal Putnik, Commander  
Gen. Mishitch  
Gen. Yourishich  
Gen. Stepanovitch  
Gen. Boyovitch

Montenegrin Army, 50,000

Gen. Vukovitch

Austrian Forces, 400,000

Gen. Potiorek, Commander  
Gen. Frank  
Gen. Boehm-Ermolli

SERBIA, the ancient Slavic Kingdom that nestled among the rugged ranges of the upper Balkan peninsula, was the tiny stage on which the tremendous drama of the World War first opened.

The apparent provocation to war was supplied by the assassination at Sarajevo, on June 28, of the Archduke Ferdinand, heir to the Austrian throne, by two youthful Serbians, bent on revenging the injuries inflicted upon their country by their Austrian masters.

The true cause of the great conflagration, however, lay farther back in time; it was concerned with Germany's long-matured purpose of subjugating all the Balkan nations as a necessary step in her greater plan of conquering all Europe and Asia. Let us briefly examine the several factors in that dark conspiracy.

Serbia, though a mere cipher in the sum of the world's progress, nevertheless had occupied a position of importance among the nations, as the guardian of the sole historic highway connecting Europe with Asia. Sitting athwart the spurs of the great Carpathian range of mountains, Serbia controlled the gates of the Morava valley, extending from Nish northward to Belgrade, and affording the only direct path by which an army of invasion might pass into Europe from the east or into Asia from the west.

Southward through this valley, nine centuries before, the Crusaders had swarmed on their way to the Holy Land to rescue the Sepulchre from the hands of the infidel Turks. Northward through the same defile, on a later day, the Moslems had advanced

when they invaded Hungary and overran the south of Europe.

Germany's interest in the Morava highway, and consequently in Serbia's destiny, dated from the birth of her grandiose vision of a vast Teutonic Empire, embracing all the East, and connected with the Fatherland by a continuous line of railroad extending from Berlin to Constantinople and thence to Bagdad. She had even begun to construct that railroad.

The Turks, those remote kinsmen to the Prussian-Vandals, had given their consent to a German railroad extension across their domain. Austria, at once the dupe and the ally of Prussia, assisted in extending the Berlin-to-Bagdad railroad through Bosnia as far as the great seaport at Saloniki. All was merry as a marriage bell. But Germany was not content merely to secure a passage through the Balkans; she desired to Germanize the whole Balkan peninsula.

As far back as 1878, when Russia had beaten the Turks to their knees, and was preparing to occupy Constantinople, the Germans and the Austrians in unison, had stripped Russia of the fruits of her victory. The treaty of Berlin restored power to Turkey, but placed the Slav provinces of Bosnia and Herzegovina under Austrian control.

The next step in the plot was to bring the Balkan states under German influence through rulers of German blood or affiliations. Thus, by Germany's connivance, Alexander of Battenberg was placed on the throne of Bulgaria; Ferdinand was sent to rule over Rumania; and the Crown Prince of Greece, after a military training in Germany, be-

came the husband of Princess Sophia, sister of Emperor William of Germany!

In 1912, the Kaiser's Eastern plans received England's sanction when Lord Grey, Great Britain's Foreign Minister, agreed that Germany should be permitted to extend her sphere of influence over all Mesopotamia. But in the same year the Kaiser's plans for control of the Balkans received a setback when Serbia, Bulgaria, Montenegro, and Greece united in crushing Turkey.

To prevent the further expansion of this Slavic confederacy and at the same time restore the Turks to their seat, the Kaiser with great cunning sowed the seeds of discord among the Balkan allies, persuading Bulgaria suddenly to attack Serbia and Greece in order to secure a greater share of the spoils of the first Balkan War.

As a result of this second Balkan broil, Bulgaria was defeated and the Turks were restored in their possession of Constantinople.

Serbia, however, still blocked the way to the East. If Germany was to succeed in establishing an Empire in Asia, she must first gain control of the Morava valley in Serbia in order that her legions might have a clear road for their march into Asia.

Using Austria as a cat's-paw, Germany, in 1913, sought to gain Italy's consent to a war against Serbia, but Italy honorably declined to be a party in the plot, although at the time she was an ally both of Germany and Austria.

Nevertheless, war was not long to be deferred. The German armies were on tip-toes, awaiting the word; the Kiel Canal improvements were nearing completion, and with the opening of the enlarged canal in 1914, "The Day" arrived which Germany had so long awaited. Weeks before the assassination at Sarajevo, Germany's war plans had been perfected down to the last detail. That murder merely served as a pretext.

Four weeks were permitted to elapse before the Austrian government took any public action on the murder of Archduke Ferdinand. Under the surface, however, both in Austria and in Germany, there was great activity in executive and military circles.

While Europe elsewhere was lulled to a sense of false security, every Teuton knew that war would certainly be declared, and that the interval was being used in preparation for the coming conflict.

So obvious was the imminence of war that the Socialist leader, Karl Liebknecht, in a speech in the Reichstag, spoke ironically of the murder of the Archduke as "a gift from Heaven" to the German Junkers.

Kaiser Wilhelm, who was enjoying a cruise on his yacht at the time of the murder, hastily returned to Potsdam, and in his palace there, on July 5, a conference was held of all the principal leaders in both the Empires. At that conference an ultimatum was drawn up to be presented to Serbia, embodying demands which Serbia could not comply with and preserve even the semblance of her poor sovereignty.

The Austro-German plotters knew full well that Serbia could not, would not, accept the ultimatum in its entirety. They also knew that Serbia's refusal would be tantamount to a declaration of war.

In their dull, stupid minds there lurked the notion that world opinion would hold Serbia culpable if war should result. At least, they hoped Serbia would appear as the aggressor and undeserving of any aid from Russia, her natural guardian, in event of war being declared.

With Russia held in leash, France and England would likewise remain quiescent, and Austria would proceed to the annihilation of Serbia without hindrance.

At the request of the financial and industrial leaders of Germany, the Austrian ultimatum was held back 15 days, to give the German financiers the necessary time in which to arrange their affairs. They employed this interval in unloading their securities on the bourses throughout the world, the German transactions on the New York Exchange being conducted on an enormous scale, with no hint of impending war.

On July 21, two days before the time set for the ultimatum, the German General Staff sent out secret orders preliminary to mobilization, including the movement of troops toward the French frontier. At the same



time the Austrian armies were secretly ordered to prepare for mobilization on the Serbian and Galician frontiers.

After the stage had been prepared for the opening scene in the world drama, the Kaiser undertook to deceive all Europe as to the imminence of war by starting on a yachting cruise to Norway, though keeping in constant communication with his War Staff by wireless.

The premiers of France and Serbia were also absent from their capitals, but the British Fleet was distinctly on the "job," paying a visit to Kiel.

### The Ultimatum Is Presented

AUSTRIA presented her ultimatum on July 23, allowing Serbia only 48 hours to answer it. There were ten demands such as never before had been addressed by one independent state to another.

Serbia was required 1, to suppress all propagandist literature; 2, to dissolve the secret patriotic society known as the Narodna Odbrana; 3, to dismiss all propagandist teachers and prohibit such teaching; 4, to dismiss all Serbian officers and functionaries guilty of anti-Austrian propaganda, who might be denounced by the Austrian government; 5, to permit Austrian agents to "collaborate" in the police work of Serbia; 6, to permit Austrian judges to "participate" in the trial by Serbian courts of those Serbians who were suspected of complicity in the plot to murder Archduke Ferdinand; 7, to arrest two persons in particular whose names were specified; 8, to stop trade in arms and explosives across the Austrian frontier, and punish the officials guilty of allowing it; 9, to require certain high Serbian officials to explain their "hostile utterances" after the murder of the Archduke; 10, to answer "in the affirmative" before 6 p. m. on July 25th.

Serbia's reply was forthcoming within the specified time. On the advice of the Russian, French, and British governments, Serbia accepted unconditionally all the demands except the fifth and sixth. Even the fifth demand, permitting Austrian agents to assist in the police work of Serbia, she accepted in part, to the extent that it should conform to inter-

national law and criminal procedure and friendly relations between nations.

As to the sixth demand, permitting Austrian judges to sit with Serbian judges in the trial of Serbian subjects, she refused to comply, on the ground that such collaboration would be a violation of the Serbian Constitution and of the law of criminal procedure.

She promised, however, to bring the Serbian suspects to trial and to keep the Austrian judges, or delegates, informed on the progress of the trials.

It should here be noted that Serbia's acceptance of the sixth demand would have been equivalent to the surrender of her sovereignty, rendering her officials liable to impeachment for high treason. Moreover, the Constitution could only be amended by vote of the entire people, and such a vote could not be taken in the 48 hours allowed for acceptance of the ultimatum.

### The Declaration of War

AUSTRIA insisted upon a full acceptance of the terms. Serbia begged for respite, and Russia, France, and England pleaded with the Teutonic powers to refer the matter to a conference of the Powers. But the Teutons, thirsting for war, steeled their hearts, declined to accept mediation and set their gigantic war machines in motion. The great war had begun.

On July 25, 1914, Baron Giesel, the Austrian Minister to the court of Serbia, demanded his passports and left Belgrade. Austria on the previous day had begun mobilization; Serbia at once began the mobilization of her army. Austria's formal declaration of war against Serbia was made on July 28, 1914. On the same day, Austria assembled 25,000 troops on the west bank of the Danube, opposite to Belgrade, Semendria, Gradishte and other Serbian cities along the whole Danube front.

As the first shell burst ineffectively over the battlements of the old Turkish citadel of Belgrade, an answering cannonade immediately sounded from the Serbian guns.

Thus was ushered in an artillery duel which continued for weeks along the Danube front. The Serbian government at once

withdrew to Nish and the evacuation of the citizens of Belgrade was hastily accomplished.

Little was left of the once beautiful city of Belgrade after the bombardment had ceased. More than 750 buildings were demolished. Only the shell of the King's Palace remained standing. The University of Belgrade was entirely destroyed; the old unarmed Fortress, a grim reminder of the Turkish occupation, was reduced to dust; the venerable Museum, stored with antiquities derived from pagan Rome, was wrecked; the great cigaret factory, which the Serbian government operated as a state monopoly, was demolished; factories, foundries, and bakeries along the banks of the Danube were razed to the ground; the hospital buildings and the foreign legations all suffered injury; and the principal streets were torn up by the exploding shells.

### Two Austrian Armies Invade Serbia

MEANWHILE two Austro-Hungarian armies, 400,000 strong, under the command of Gen. Potiorek, were secretly concentrating at six points along the Western and Northern Serbian frontiers, 340 miles in extent. On the Western frontier, the River Drina divided Serbia from Bosnia.

On the Northern frontier the natural boundary was formed by the Save River, west of Belgrade, and the Danube River east of Belgrade. Thus the Serbian capital was included in a salient which projected into Austro-Hungarian territory on the northwest.

By simultaneous invasions north and west, the Austrians expected to cut through this salient, capture Belgrade and with it a part of the Serbian army. The Serbian forces, all veteran soldiers who had recently emerged victorious from two Balkan wars, numbered 200,000 rifles. Under the direction of Field Marshal Putnik, they were likewise concentrating near the northern border.

On August 12, the Austrian batteries on the west bank of the Drina River, opposite the Serbian city of Loznitz, opened a heavy bombardment of the town. Under cover of this fire, a fleet of barges, filled with Austrian soldiers, crossed the river. The landing was opposed by two Serbian battalions,

acting as an outpost, supported by a few old field guns. They were quickly driven back to the heights behind Loznitz, where they continued their plucky resistance.

The Austrians then laid a pontoon bridge across the Drina and landed an army of 120,000 on Serbian soil, quickly throwing up defensive breastworks and constructing elaborate trenches.

On the same day an Austrian army, 100,000 strong, crossed the Save River at Shabatz, on the Northern frontier, strongly fortified the town, and laid a pontoon bridge across the river from the railroad terminus at Klenak.

Four other Austrian columns were invading Serbia at Zvornik, Luibovia, Amajlia and Branjevo. All these positions converged on Valievo, the terminus of a railroad, extending into the heart of Serbia.

The two main armies of Austria, advancing into Serbia along the lines of the Save and Drina rivers, were separated by the Tzir ridge of mountains. It was necessary that the Austrians should gain this ridge if a junction between their armies was to be effected. On the other hand, if the Serbians could occupy this ridge, they would be able to drive a wedge in between the main forces of the enemy and flank either wing of the Austrian army. In the race for the ridge the Serbians were successful. The battle front along the Tzir ridge was approximately 100 miles long.

### First Battle at Loznitz

THE first battle of the war opened on August 14, when the Austrian armies at Loznitz attempted to storm the heights held by three small battalions of Serbians. The Austrians charged up the hill in mass formation, but were met by a volley which sent them in confusion down the hill. Re-forming in mass, they advanced with fixed bayonets. This time the first line of Austrians reached the summit, but in a hand-to-hand fight they were again checked by the plucky Serbians. Under the cover of night, the Serbians withdrew to Jarebitze, where they met the first Austrian army, 80,000 strong. Here, the Serbians entrenched on a ten-mile front.



During the night of August 15, the Austrians took possession of the Tzir and Iverak ridges. Meanwhile, at Shabatz, Austrian troops were pouring across pontoon bridges into Serbia; an Austrian flanking column from the Drina had reached Slephevitch; another force was centered on Krupain.

### **Austrians Defeated in Battle of Jadar**

AT daybreak, on the 16th, an Austrian army corps, 50,000 strong, was seen moving along the lower spurs of the Tzir Mountains, their aim being to prevent the insertion of a Serbian wedge between the Austrian army at Shabatz and the Austrian forces in the valley of the Jadar. With the idea of creating a diversion which should give the main Serbian army time to cope with the new situation, a Serbian artillery officer, Major Djukibch, secured permission to meet this body of Austrians with a single cannon. With a handful of volunteers, Djukibch planted his lone cannon in the path of the advancing army and opened fire. The Austrians, evidently believing they had been surprised in force, turned and fled from the field. Some reinforcements of infantry and cavalry were sent to Major Djukibch and the Huns were driven back to the mountains. Here they re-formed and gave battle to the small Serbian force that had pursued them.

The Serbian outposts, though pressed hard, held their ground till evening, when the advance corps of the main Serbian army came to the rescue. Though they had marched 60 miles that day, the Serbians sprang over the breastworks, dashed through cornfields and tall grass, and with fixed bayonets charged the Austrian ramparts, driving the enemy in panic flight from their trenches through the Jadar valley. Two Austrian regiments which had held their ground were almost annihilated.

Before nightfall, the Austrian corps was dispersed, leaving much booty behind. By this brilliant feat of arms, the Serbians cut off the Austrian army in Shabatz.

### **Crushing Defeat of the Austrians at Shabatz**

AT dawn, on August 18, the Austrian army in Shabatz, on the Northern frontier, came forth to give battle to the Serbians. Out-numbered two to one, the Serbians gave way

slowly, and at nightfall the infantry entrenched along a line from Leskovitz to Mibana. The Serbian cavalry division at the same time retired on a line from Meskovibch to Brestovatz, its right wing being threatened by the Austrian advance out of Shabatz. Thus the armies were disposed across both the Tzir-Iverak ridges, which dominated the theater of war.

The Serbian army on the Iverak ridge attacked the Austrians at Yargovitobi, driving them from their trenches. An Austrian counter-attack, late that night, was repulsed at the point of the bayonet.

On the 19th, the Austrians out of Shabatz forced back the Serbian forces operating in the south to the right bank of the Dobrava River. On the Tzir ridge, however, the Serbians took Rashulatcha, pursuing the Austrians along the Leshnitsa River. The Serbian forces on the Iverak ridges also put the Austrians to rout. The third army, after a stiff engagement at Soldatovitcha, also dispersed the Austrians, taking many prisoners.

The next day saw the end of Austria's hopes. The army of the Shabatz, which had made so successful an advance only a few hours before, was now forced back from the Dobrava River. Mauled in turn by the Serbian artillery and cavalry, the Huns finally fled in wildest disorder, through cornfields and villages.

In the Jadar and Leshnitsa valleys similar scenes were witnessed. From the high ridges, the Serbians directed their artillery fire against the fleeing Huns. Soon the whole Austrian army was in flight toward the Drina. Shabatz was evacuated on August 24, and the last Austrian invader was expelled from Serbian soil.

The Austrian losses in this battle were 6000 killed, 35,000 wounded, and 4000 prisoners. The Serbians lost 3000 dead and 15,000 wounded. The Serbians captured 45 cannons, 30 machine guns, and vast stores of munitions.

Of 400,000 Austrians who had invaded Serbia in August, barely 300,000 returned. In 13 days the Serbs captured 40,000 prisoners, while fully 60,000 Austrians had been killed or wounded. The Serbian casualties were placed at 20,000.

WESTERN THEATER, AUG. 2

## Germany Masses 2,000,000 on French and Belgian Frontiers

Prussian Strategy Revealed—Gen. Joffre's Consummate Counter-Strategy Disclosed

### SECTION 3—1914

#### Belgian Forces, 140,000

King Albert, Commander-in-Chief  
Gen. de Moranville, Army Commander

#### Belgian Garrison at Liege, 40,000

Gen. Leman, Commander at Liege

#### French Forces, 800,000

Gen. Joffre, Commander-in-Chief  
First French Army, Gen. Dubail  
Second French Army, Gen. Castelnau  
Third French Army, Gen. Ruffey  
Fourth French Army, Gen. Langle de Carey  
Fifth French Army, Gen. Lanrezac

#### British Forces, 90,000

Gen. French, Commander

#### German Infantry, 1,500,000

#### German Cavalry, 10 divisions

Gen. von Moltke, Chief of Staff  
First German Army, Gen. von Kluck  
Second German Army, Gen. von Buelow  
Third German Army, Gen. von Hausen  
Fourth German Army, Duke of Wurttemberg  
Fifth German Army, Crown Prince of Prussia  
Sixth German Army, Bavarian Crown Prince Rupprecht  
Seventh German Army, Gen. Heeringen  
Detached Corps, Gen. Daimling  
Detached Corps, Gen. von Emmich

ON Sunday, August 2, 1914, while Christian Europe was assembling for divine worship and the German Ambassador at Brussels was calling on Heaven to witness that Germany had no thought of violating the soil of Belgium, 1,500,000 German soldiers were secretly concentrating on the Western frontiers of France and Belgium.

A vanguard of German troops already had motored into Luxemburg to "spy out the land," and a selected force of 740,000 infantry, supported by 65,000 cavalrymen and trains of huge artillery, were awaiting the signal to dash into Belgium by three routes, reduce the forts of the little kingdom at Liege and Namur, sweep across the great central plains of Belgium to the channel ports, and then descend into France and invest Paris.

Behind the group of seven German armies, the greatest assemblage of combat troops known to modern warfare, 3,000,000 additional German soldiers were being mobilized.

Heirs of Attila and Alaric, the German warlords had haughtily resolved to draw the sword against all Christendom, if need be. Confident of achieving a quick victory, they had perfected their strategy down to the smallest details.

Foreseeing that France, Russia, and Great Britain would unite against them, but believing that Russia's first mobilization could not be completed within six weeks, the German warlords expected to overwhelm the unprepared French armies, capture the city

of Paris, and dictate terms of peace to France before ponderous Russia could mobilize her vast war machine.

After a quick peace with France had been arranged, the German hordes would be shunted over to the Eastern front and unite with Austria's army of 1,200,000 in dealing a death blow to Russia.

In perfecting their whirlwind campaign against France, the German strategists had attempted to forecast the probable French strategy of war. They assumed that, when the German forces overran Belgium, France and Great Britain both would rush small "sentimental" armies to the relief of the Belgians. These would be trapped and annihilated by vastly superior German forces already on Belgian soil.

The whole French defensive being thereby weakened, it would be an easy matter to break through the French frontier, north and east, crush the French armies as between a vise and advance to the capture of Paris.

Gen. Joffre refused to fall into the trap. Instead of sending a small "sentimental" army into Belgium, he established his northern line just below the Belgian frontier, meanwhile arranging for the debarkation of the first British expeditionary force of 90,000 men at a French, instead of a Belgian port. This British army, marching through northern France, would unite in due time with the left wing of the French army.



Subsequently, the two German armies of von Kluck and von Buelow swung through Belgium, like a huge gate on its hinges, in quest of the "sentimental" French and British forces which their psychologists supposed to be on Belgian soil. So engrossed were the Huns in their futile hunt for the phantom Allied armies that they quite neglected at this time to seize the channel ports which were theirs for the taking. In fact, they "foozled" their warfare from beginning to end.

When finally they did pursue the Allied armies across the Belgian border, although they outnumbered them in the ratio of seven to four, they were completely outgeneralled by Field Marshal Joffre, who lured them on to defeat at the Marne River by a series of maneuvers, which for brilliancy of concep-

tion and execution, have seldom been equalled in all the annals of warfare. Like the army of rats that followed the pied piper of Hamelin, the German hordes were at all times obedient to the will of the master strategist.

At the outbreak of the war, Germany's numerical superiority in man power on the whole Western front was as seven to four, counting all combatants, but in certain sectors and in particular engagements she outnumbered the Allies five to one.

On the sea, Great Britain was supreme. German commerce was driven from all oceans, and the German Grand Fleet was for the most part content to hide in the Kiel Canal, or the adjacent Baltic Sea. With this preliminary view of Vandal aims and preparations, the narrative history of the cataclysmic war may now proceed.

WESTERN THEATER, AUG. 4-14

## Liege and Namur Heroically Defended by Small Belgian Army

For Three Weeks the Little Belgian Army Held Back the German Tidal Wave

SECTION 4—1914

Belgian Garrison at Liege, 20,000 men  
Gen. Leman

Belgian Garrison at Namur, 26,000 men  
Gen. Michel

Luxemburg Gendarmerie, 300 men  
Major Van Dyck

Belgian Army, 120,000 men  
Gen. Selliers de Moranville

German Forces, 1,000,000 men

Gen. von Kluck  
Gen. von Buelow  
Gen. von Hausen  
Gen. von Emmich

TWO days before the actual declaration of war, the German tidal wave was moving with irresistible force towards the Luxemburg and Belgian frontiers. Two colossal German armies, commanded by Generals von Kluck and von Buelow, numbering 480,000 infantry and supported by 65,000 cavalrymen, with trains of heavy artillery bringing up the rear, were assembling near Aix-la-Chapelle and Limburg.

Close behind them, half a million more picked troops were advancing, making a combatant force of fully one million men who were prepared to invade and overrun the little Kingdom of Belgium.

To the south, all the way along the Eastern French frontier, nearly one million more Im-

perial troops were being disposed at strategic points, awaiting the word to break through and capture Paris.

The most inviting route to Paris lay through the wide valley of the Meuse in Belgium. It was along this roadway that the legions of Cæsar marched to the conquest of Germany 2000 years before.

This gateway was guarded by the fortified cities of Liege and Namur, which must be reduced before the Germans might hope to gain an unimpeded passage to the Northern French frontier. These obstacles, however, were regarded as trivial by the German warlords.

Confident in their numbers, in their prestige and especially in their incomparable ar-

tillery, which could pulverize the staunchest forts, they hoped to romp through the Meuse valley and thence into France without let or hindrance.

They knew that the Belgian forts were defended by slim garrisons, that the Belgian army at most would number 150,000 men, and they looked for no resistance worthy of the name.

Accordingly, the armies of von Kluck and von Buelow requisitioned the four principal routes into Belgium from the Rhine valley. The first led through Luxemburg to the central valley of the Meuse; the second from Malmedy, opening on the Meuse valley at Dinant, Liege, and Namur; the third from Aix-la-Chapelle by way of Verviers, which is the main line from Paris to Berlin; the fourth from Aix-la-Chapelle to the bridge of Vise on the Dutch frontier. Along these several routes the German hordes were set in motion.

### The Violation of Luxemburg

THE first overt act of war on the Western front occurred at 1.30 o'clock on the morning of Sunday, August 2, 1914, when a detail of German officers in motor cars crossed the Moselle River at Wasserbilig and entered the Duchy of Luxemburg, whose neutrality Germany had guaranteed.

They scoffed at the little Duchess of Luxemburg, who thought to block their passage by maneuvering her motor car across the roadway; sneered at the Luxemburg "army" of 300 gendarmes that lined the roadway; ignored the protests of the burgomaster and proceeded to the seizure of the Adolf bridge. Treves and Luxemburg were occupied the same day.

Presently, the movement of German cavalry across the bridge began, and before evening von Buelow's army of the Moselle had occupied the Duchy of Luxemburg. On the same day, clashes occurred between border patrols at Longwy and Luneville, French frontier towns.

### Germany Fails to Cajole Belgium

AT 7 o'clock on the same Sunday evening, the German Minister to the court of Belgium, Herr von Below-Saleske, presented a

"highly confidential" note to M. Davignon, the Belgian Minister for Foreign Affairs, falsely alleging that the German government had received reliable information of the intention of the French forces to invade Belgium through the valley of the Meuse, and declaring Germany's purpose to come to Belgium's aid and "forestall this attack of the enemy."

If Belgium should consent to the German invasion and exhibit a friendly attitude, the German government would guarantee the kingdom and its possessions in their whole extent, and give indemnity for any damage resulting. If, on the contrary, Belgium should behave in a hostile manner toward the German troops, Germany would consider Belgium as an enemy.

The Belgian Minister, on the following day, replied that the intentions attributed to France were in contradiction with the express declarations made to Belgium on August 1 by the French government; that in event of a violation of Belgian neutrality by France, Belgium would offer the most vigorous opposition to the invader "without German assistance," and closing with the firm declaration that "the attempt against her independence with which the German government threatens her, would constitute a flagrant violation of international law," and that the Belgian government "has firmly resolved to repulse by every means in her power any attack upon her rights."

Germany, thereupon, threw off the mask of hypocrisy and proceeded with her plans for the invasion of Belgium.

The Imperial Chancellor, Dr. von Bethmann-Hollweg, in a speech to the Reichstag on August 3, announcing the occupation of Luxemburg by German troops, publicly acknowledged that the invasion was "in contradiction to the rules of international law," but justifying the act on the plea of "necessity," and pledging the German government to "right the wrong as soon as our military ends have been reached."

### Invasion of Belgium Begins

KING Albert of Belgium exerted himself to repel the invaders. By his orders nearly all the bridges, roads and tunnels in the Ardennes district, were at once destroyed at a



total loss of \$200,000,000. Then, placing himself at the head of his army, numbering 100,000 rifles, King Albert awaited the onset of the Huns.

Von Klück's army of the Meuse moved out from the plains of Aix-la-Chapelle on August 3, crossing the German border and advancing to points overlooking Vise, Limburg, Herve, and Verviers in Belgium. Their first objective was Vise, some ten miles north of Liege, on the Meuse River. This frontier town was defended by a single Belgian regiment.

The destruction of the bridge at Vise, and the stout resistance of the Belgian regiment, delayed the German advance two days. Pontoon bridges built by the Germans were repeatedly destroyed by the Belgian batteries, but finally, after a severe bombardment, a crossing was effected on August 5 and the Huns poured into the town.

To strike terror in the hearts of the townspeople, several civilians were seized and shot on the pretext that they had killed or wounded a few German soldiers.

The male inhabitants were all rounded up and sent to Aix-la-Chapelle as prisoners, while the women and children were ordered to depart into Holland, many of them being reduced to a state of utter destitution. The torch was then applied to many houses, while looting was general among the Hun soldiers.

### The Siege of Liege

MEANWHILE, the general movement of the German troops was proceeding along the Meuse valley toward the city of Liege, which occupies both banks of the river. The investment of Liege was intrusted to Gen. von Emmich, with a body of infantry and cavalry totaling 150,000 men. The defenses of Liege consisted of twelve pentagonal forts, four miles apart, six on the right bank of the Meuse and six on the left bank, forming an irregular girdle or chain about the city. These forts were slimly defended by a garrison of 20,000 men.

On the afternoon of August 4, von Emmich's forces began closing in on Liege from three directions. That evening a German envoy entered the city, demanding its surrender under the threat of immediate bom-

bardment. Unawed by the numbers of the enemy, the brave Belgians declined to make terms with the invaders. An hour later, the German batteries opened fire on the outlying forts with their six-inch guns, but the shells rattled harmlessly against the massive walls.

On the following day, the German eight-inch guns were brought into action, but these, too, proved ineffective. The great 16-inch German howitzers, which were destined to reduce the forts to powder, had not yet arrived.

Furious at the vigor of the Belgian resistance, and fearing that any further delay might give France the opportunity to hasten her troops to the relief of the beleaguered fortress, von Emmich rashly decided to storm the city of Liege. A corps of 50,000 picked German troops was pushed forward between two of the outlying forts, advancing toward Liege in mass formation.

A single Belgian division, of less than 10,000 men, uprose to give them battle, singing their national hymn as they faced the onrushing Huns. At close range, the Belgian machine guns opened fire on the dense German squares, cutting them down like grass.

Again and again the Germans were driven to the assault, but they melted away by thousands before the withering fire of the Belgian guns. After four hours of sanguinary conflict the plucky Belgians, though outnumbered six to one, in a final terrific bayonet charge, drove the Huns from the field.

### Germans Occupy Liege

WITH the arrival of the huge German howitzers, on the following day, the situation changed. These colossal howitzers, emplaced far beyond the range of the Belgian batteries, began throwing shells weighing a ton each into the Belgian forts.

All six forts on the east side of the river were gradually pulverized. Fort Fleron was dismantled on August 6. On the following day Forts Chadfontaine, Evegnée, and Barchon succumbed to the avalanche of steel. Liege being now at the mercy of the invaders, Gen. Leman quietly ordered the evacuation of the city by the Belgian infantry. On August 7, Burgomaster Kleyer and the Bishop of Liege formally surrendered the

city to the Germans. That night Liege was occupied by 10,000 German soldiers.

The six forts on the west bank of the Meuse, though deluged daily with shells, were yet to be silenced. So long as they held out, the passage of the German armies through the valley of the Meuse was menaced.

General Leman, with the survivors of the eastern forts, had transferred to the western forts and was prepared to defend them to the last gasp.

The Germans lost no time in bringing forward their great siege guns and training them upon the new targets. A continuous hail of shells fell upon the western forts. Fort Enbourg, after surviving an inferno of shells for ten days, was reduced to powder on August 13. On the same day the cupolas of Fort Boncelles were shattered and the electric lighting apparatus was destroyed.

Nevertheless, though they fought in stygian darkness, risking suffocation from the gas shells that penetrated the interior, the brave garrison held out till the 14th, when the collapse of the inner concrete walls of the fort made surrender imperative.

Fort Loncin was demolished on the same day, the last defensive shot being fired by a Belgian gunner whose right hand had just been severed. Gen. Leman was found unconscious and partially buried under debris in the sulphurous ruins of the fort. Gen. Emmich, the German victor, congratulated him for his gallant and noble defence of the fort, and bade him keep his sword which he had offered as a token of surrender.

The heroic resistance of the defenders of Liege had not been in vain. For eleven days they had held in check the armies of von Kluck and von Buelow, enabling the French armies to complete their first mobilization and arrange a new offensive alignment. Belgium had saved Europe!

### Belgian Army in Retreat

KING Albert had ordered the mobilization of the Belgian forces on August 4, the day Liege was first invested by von Emmich's forces. A week later, on August 11, the army had a total strength of 120,000 men. Under command of Gen. Selliers de Moranville, the

army formed on the bank of the River Dyle, with its left touching Malines and its right resting on Louvain.

Subsequently, the right wing was extended to Eghezee in readiness to form a union with the French left wing, which rumor said was pushing northward into Belgium. This expectation, however, was disappointed, for the Allies were not as yet in a position to assist the Belgians directly. Outposts were so placed as to screen the Belgian army from the German advance. These outposts were soon in collision with the advanced posts of von Kluck's army.

### First Field Battle in Belgium

THE first field battle of the war in Belgium took place northwest of Liege, on August 12, when a force of 5000 German cavalry, supported by artillery and infantry, attacked the twin villages of Haelen and Diest, with the intent to seize the bridges across the River Gethe.

Here the Huns met with their first serious repulse. From behind improvised barricades, the Belgians decimated the German lines with a terribly effective machine-gun fire, driving them back in confusion. Two thousand Germans fell in this engagement, while hundreds of others threw down their arms and surrendered.

Again and again the Belgian soldiers proved their superiority over the Germans when they met on even terms. Thus a flanking movement against the Belgian left wing at Cortenachen was easily repulsed.

On August 15, after a sharp bombardment, a force of 2000 German cavalry galloped into Tirlemont, but were quickly driven out. A German cavalry detail which had bivouacked in Eghezee, was likewise expelled.

But after the fall of the western forts at Liege, and when the overwhelming strength of the German armies was at length disclosed, the Belgian army prudently withdrew from its position on the River Gethe, falling back on Aerschot. Meanwhile, the advancing Huns had applied the torch to Pellenberg, Boutersem, Corback-Loo, and Lovenjoul. Diest, St. Trond, and Waremmme were occupied by the Huns without resistance.



### The Retreat from Aerschot

AT Aerschot, the Belgian forces were pressed back by von Kluck's huge army, 300,000 strong, supported by 1100 cannon and hundreds of machine guns. An orderly retreat was begun toward Brussels.

The inhabitants of all the villages on the countryside were now in panic flight before the German tidal wave. All roads leading to Brussels were choked with vehicles of every description and multitudes of village folk. Belgium's martyrdom had begun.

### Destruction of Louvain

A BRAVE stand was made in front of Louvain, on August 19, by the right wing of the Belgian army, acting as a rear guard, while the center fell back on Antwerp, but so superior in numbers and artillery were the Germans that a further retreat on Antwerp by way of Malines was ordered. Louvain was occupied the next day by an army of 50,000 Huns.

Governor General von Arnim, after taking formal possession of the city, disarmed the citizens, ordered them to bed at 8 p. m. daily and admonished them to leave one lamp burning in each house at night. All doors were to be left unlocked.

A proclamation was issued threatening with immediate death any citizen found with a weapon in his possession or in his house.

It was decreed that every house from which a shot was fired would be burned. The burgomaster and other city officials were secured as hostages, and were subsequently put to death.

The Huns were determined to destroy Louvain in reprisal for the brave resistance offered by the Belgians to the German invasion. Seeking a pretext for the reign of terror which they intended to inaugurate, they falsely alleged that German soldiers had been killed by citizens of Louvain.

Three hundred men and boys were seized and shot in the streets. The burgomaster, two magistrates, the rector of the university and all police officials had previously been put to death. The torch was then applied to the "convicted houses" from which it was alleged shots had been fired.

Beautiful Louvain soon became a roaring

furnace. Whole districts were wiped out, and with them the architectural gems for which the town was famous. The Halles, the University with its priceless library, and St. Peter's Cathedral, were wholly or partially destroyed.

The quaintly beautiful Town Hall alone was spared among the historic edifices that fell before the Vandal's torch. Whole streets were left in blackened ruins. Women and girls were given over to the brutal uses of the Hun soldiers; priests and aged civilians were shot, and scores of innocent townsfolk, without regard to age or sex, were massacred. Finally, a war indemnity of \$40,000,000 was assessed upon the ruined city.

### The Occupation of Brussels

LEAVING a garrison of 3000 behind to guard Louvain, the German army swept forward toward Brussels. The Belgians had thought to defend their capital, but now, fearing its destruction by bombardment, they wisely decided to evacuate the city. King Albert, on August 17, had transferred his government to the fortified city of Antwerp. He was accompanied by all the diplomatic corps, excepting Brand Whitlock, the American Minister to Belgium, who remained at Brussels to render invaluable services to the cause of humanity.

On August 20, 50,000 German troops entered Brussels without a shot being fired, while on the nearby plain of Waterloo the main body of von Kluck's huge army was encamped. Aping the vulgar, brutal pomp of Asiatic conquerors, these Huns paraded through the streets of lovely Brussels, stopping now and then to tear down the national colors or to menace the populace with direful threats. Like another Pompey, an officer of the mounted Uhlans dragged two manacled Belgian officers by the stirrup leathers at the heels of his horse.

The Belgian populace groaned at this barbarous spectacle, whereupon a troop of Uhlans backed their horses into the ranks of the spectators, threatening them with raised sabers. That night, under cover of the darkness, many thousands of refugees left Brussels, filling the roads leading to Alost, Ghent, and Ostend.

As at Louvain, only a few thousand Huns were left behind to guard Brussels, the left wing of von Kluck's army having moved southward to attack the French on the Sambre front. The center army, after passing through Brussels, advanced south by east into the plains of Belgium. The right wing had already passed between Brussels and Antwerp to the capture of Bruges and Ghent. Governor General von Arnim imposed a fine of \$40,000,000 on Brussels, which was raised after much difficulty.

The soldiers of occupation refrained from massacring the inhabitants, contenting themselves with excesses in wines and liquors in saloons, the hotels, cafes, and private homes.

The right wing of von Kluck's army, after compelling the retreat of the Belgians to Antwerp, had pushed rapidly forward to the west, seizing Alost, Ghent, and Bruges. From the latter city they gained their first glimpse of the North Sea. The channel ports then were theirs for the taking, but they neglected this opportunity, to their subsequent-sorrow and chagrin.

### **A Belgian Sortie Out of Antwerp**

THIS rapid push westward of von Kluck's right wing gave Gen. Moranville a chance to make a sortie out of Antwerp. Learning that Malines was but slimly defended by the Germans, he launched a counter-offensive on August 24, easily re-taking Malines and gaining possession of the trunk line railroad from Germany into Flanders.

Had the British and French been able at this moment to come to the assistance of the Belgians, the right wing of von Kluck's army might have been flanked and destroyed, but no reinforcements were sent and the plucky Belgians were compelled to defend their fatherland unaided for weeks. It is true, a force of 2000 British marines was landed at Ostend, but they proved a negligible factor in determining the general result.

### **Germans Capture Namur in Four Days**

WHILE von Kluck's army was investing Liege and its fortresses, von Buelow's army, 280,000 strong, was advancing up the valley of the Meuse toward Namur. The villagers

fled from their homes by thousands at sight of the Huns. On August 12, the town of Huy, midway between Liege and Namur, was occupied with but slight resistance, giving the Germans control of all the railroad lines.

Soon the huge German siege guns, drawn in three parts by teams of forty horses, or by thirteen traction engines, were rolling along the roads to Namur. The defence of Namur consisted of nine detached forts arranged around the confluence of the rivers Meuse and Sambre. These forts were held by a garrison of 26,000 men.

The first bomb from the German field guns fell on the roof of the railway station at Namur on August 17, but the actual siege did not begin until August 21, with the arrival of the huge German howitzers, some of sixteen-inch caliber, and throwing projectiles weighing a ton each.

On that day thirty batteries concentrated their fire on the Namur forts, smothering them with shells and obliterating the barbed wire defences in the spaces between the forts.

The puny armament of the Belgian forts was impotent against this assault. One by one the little six-inch guns were snuffed out under the avalanche of fire from the German batteries, while the armor-plated turrets were reduced to fragments.

Throughout four sulphurous days the brave defenders of Namur withstood the attack of 300,000 Germans, living in a veritable inferno after the forts had become untenable, and praying for French assistance that never came; for the French themselves were hotly engaged with the enemy at Dinant, south of Namur, and could only send two regiments to aid the Belgians.

The casualties among the Namur garrison were frightful, whole regiments being decimated. On August 23, Gen. Michel ordered the evacuation of Namur. The garrison, in great disorder, fled from the ruined city, pursued and harassed by the German hordes; and after seven days the 12,000 survivors reached Rouen, whence they embarked for Havre and Ostend. More than half the garrison had perished in the defence of Namur.

On Monday, August 24, Gen. von Buelow entered Namur with all the arrogance of an



Asiatic potentate, accompanied by the military governor of Belgium, Field Marshal von der Goltz.

After taking hostages, and dispossessing the citizens of their arms, von Buelow's hordes moved southward, leaving a body of reservists in control of the captured city. Fort Suarlee held out till the 25th, when the garrison of 800 surrendered, and the fort was blown to fragments on the following day.

### **French and Germans Clash in Dinant**

ANTICIPATING the attempt of the French to march to the relief of the beleaguered fortress of Namur, the Germans on August 14 had dispatched a division of cavalry, a division of Prussian Guards, several infantry battalions, and a few batteries of light artillery to Dinant, some ten miles south of Namur, hoping to seize the town and head off the French.

Though the Germans excelled in numbers, the French made such good use of their "75's" that the bridges over which the Germans had to pass were destroyed and some of the German units were forced into the river. The French guns also played havoc with the German infantry columns. Though the battle was a minor one and undecisive in its results, whatever advantage accrued was credited to the French.

### **Von Kluck's Sweep Through Belgium**

AFTER the occupation of Louvain and Brussels by the Germans, the main army of Gen. von Kluck had made a wide sweep through Western Belgium, preparatory to a descent across the French frontier. This movement has been compared to that of a farm gate swinging shut upon its hinges.

The advance guard of von Kluck's army consisted of four divisions of cavalry, sup-

ported by batteries of horse artillery, machine guns and motor transport mounting quick-fire guns, with the German Second Corps in rear.

### **Lille, Tournai, Arras, and Amiens Evacuated**

WITH incredible speed, this German vanguard swept down on Tournai and Lille, capturing a French brigade and a British battery, and spreading panic through the countryside. The immediate object of this raid was to cut out the communications of the British army with its principal bases at Boulogne and Havre.

Further west, across the Lys, other bands of Uhlans raided the unprotected towns and villages, terrifying the inhabitants. Pushing southward, without serious interference, von Kluck's raiders crossed the frontier and seized Arras, which gave them control of the northern lines to Calais and Boulogne. Advancing toward Amiens, possession of which would imperil the chief line of supply of the British force, the Germans at Bapaume encountered a division of French Territorial troops, who fought gallantly until they were almost surrounded.

At this critical juncture, a British detachment came to the rescue of the French, enabling them to escape from their perilous position. The evacuation of Amiens followed, but before abandoning the city the British and French were able to save most of their rolling stock.

The British supply base at Boulogne, being no longer tenable, a new base was established in the west of France at St. Nazaire, with an advanced base fifty miles inland at Le Maus.

The sorely pressed Allies were now forming on the Mons-Charleroi line awaiting the attack which was to send them reeling back 150 miles to the Marne.

WESTERN THEATER, AUG. 4—SEPT. 6

## French Invasion of Alsace-Lorraine Ends in Defeat at Morhange

200,000 Germans Perish in the Terrible Battle of Nancy Where Gen. Foch Wins His Spurs with the 20th Corps

SECTION 5—1914

### French Forces, 350,000

Gen. Joffre, Commander-in-Chief  
 Second French Army—Gen. de Castelnau, Com-  
 20th Corps, Gen. Ferdinand Foch [mander  
 16th Corps, Gen. Taverna  
 15th Corps, Gen. Espinasse  
 9th Corps, Gen. Durand  
 First French Army—Gen. Dubail, Commander  
 8th, 13th, 14th, and 21st Corps  
 Detached Division—Gen. Pau, Commander  
 70th Reserve Division—Gen. Fayolle

### German Forces, 500,000

Gen. von Moltke, Chief of Staff  
 Army of Lorraine—Crown Prince Rupprecht  
 Army of Alsace—Gen. von Heeringen  
 Gen. von Deimling

ON the day Liege was occupied by von Emmich's troops, August 7, the war was carried into Germany by a division of Gen. Dubail's First French Army, under command of Gen. Paul Pau. Crossing the Alsatian frontier at a point near Belfort, Gen. Pau expelled a small force of Germans from Altkirch that evening, and seized Mulhousen on the following day. Pushing northward close to Colmar, both his flanks were suddenly threatened by the 14th German Army Corps, and he was compelled to retire to Altkirch.

Pau's raid into Alsace, which was started before the French had completed their mobilization, served the double purpose of uncovering the German troops and of inspiring the French nation with the hope that the "lost provinces" might soon be recovered. The moral effect of this short but brilliant campaign was to bolster up French spirits at a time when the nation was in a state of suspense.

Previously, on August 3, a German patrol had taken advantage of the diplomatic withdrawal of the French troops from their own frontier, to invade French territory as far as the villages of Vaucourt, Xousse, and Remoncourt, but Gen. Foch's 20th Corps had sent them scampering back into the Rhineland. On the same day several German cavalry regiments had been seen in the Seille Valley.

### "Battle of Frontiers" Begins

THE first real encounter on the Franco-German frontier took place at La Garde, on August 5, when Gen. Foch's 20th Corps car-

ried the village against the stout resistance of the 21st German Army Corps and a German cavalry division, inflicting heavy losses on the enemy.

Under orders of Gen. Castelnau, Foch evacuated the village on the following day, as the French high command did not wish to be drawn into a general engagement which might be premature.

### The Plan to Invade Germany

THE French War Staff, years before, had perfected plans for the immediate conquest of the "Lost Provinces" of Alsace-Lorraine in event of war with Germany. Pursuant to the plans, they had quickly mobilized two armies on the Eastern frontier. Gen. de Castelnau, in command of the Second Army, with his base on Nancy, was ordered to advance through Lorraine and seize the bridgeheads over the Rhine as a preliminary to a possible invasion of Bavaria.

Gen. Dubail's First Army, from its base in the Vosges, was to move north through Alsace, masking Strasburg and preventing the flanking of de Castelnau's army. Gen. Pau's division, stationed at Belfort, was to co-operate in the double movement.

The general direction of the advance was to be east of Metz, toward Sarreburg, so as to serve as an additional threat against the German communications. The combined strength of Castelnau's and Dubail's forces was 280,000; that of the Germans, 500,000.

The Germans, by the use of reserve corps in their first rapid mobilization, had put in motion a striking force, incomparably



stronger than the French had anticipated. Seven colossal German armies were available in the first week of the war. Three of these armies—von Kluck's, von Buelow's, and von Hausen's—had poured like a flood into Belgium, seeking the easiest route to Paris from the north. These formed the right wing of the German strategic deployment.

England and America were long deceived into believing that these armies constituted the main German advance. But the French staff were not so deceived. They knew that the chief striking force of the Germans was concentrated in the wooded country east of the Ardennes and in Luxemburg. Here were assembled three great armies, forming the enemy's center and prepared to deal the death blow to France.

The left wing of the German line was made up of two armies—that of Prince Rupert of Bavaria in Lorraine, with headquarters at Metz, and that of Gen. Heeringen in Alsace, with headquarters at Strasburg.

On the day that witnessed the invasion of Belgium by the German right wing and the attack on Longwy by the German Crown Prince, von Heeringen was standing on the defensive in Alsace.

Opposed by an enemy outnumbering them two to one, and preparing to attack them simultaneously from the north and the east, the French were reduced to two alternatives. Either they might stand on the defensive, guarding both their frontiers with insufficient troops, or else they might boldly attack the enemy on the Eastern frontier while holding back the German hordes at the Belgian frontier on the north.

If they remained everywhere on the defensive, the French were in danger of being smothered under the weight of superior numbers. But if they should carry the war into both Alsace and Lorraine, they might succeed in halting temporarily the German advance from the east, and the movement of additional German troops into Belgium as well.

The inherent weakness of the latter plan lay in the fact that it involved a division and therefore a weakening of the French forces, in violation of a cardinal rule of offensive warfare, calling for the concentration of all

available forces in a given area of action. Gen. Joffre, however, decided to take the risk.

### The Advance Into Lorraine

ON the morning of August 15, Gen. de Castelnau's Second French army moved rapidly toward the Lorraine border on a front extending from the Grand Caumont to the Vosges. In the van of this advance was the 20th Corps, commanded by Gen. Ferdinand Foch, the incomparable strategist who was destined four years later to lead all the Allied armies to a glorious victory.

The French army aimed at seizing the Metz-Strasburg railroad, and especially the junction at Saarburg, in order to cut the direct communication between the armies of Prince Rupert and von Heeringen. The actual frontier line was then held by a mere screen of enemy troops, the main German army occupying an entrenched position of great strength in the hilly country a few miles back of the border.

Gen. Foch's 20th Corps, across the frontier, advanced in two columns, the left aiming at Delme, the right at Chateau Salins, both driving the German outpost guards before them. Bridges were thrown across the Seille River and the corps crossed to the German side before night.

Gen. Espinasse's 15th Corps, meanwhile, was moving toward the lake region, and Gen. Taverna's 16th Corps on Saarburg, with Gen. Conneau's cavalry division guarding its right flank and exploring the wooded uplands in front. On the extreme right, a division of Dubail's army was co-operating in the move on Saarburg.

The German frontier forces continued to fall back slowly during the next two days, fighting delayed actions on a large scale, but leaving neither guns nor prisoners in the hands of the French. Gen. Foch's right column seized Chateau Salins on the 18th and his left column occupied Delme, thus controlling the junction of the Nancy-Morhange railway with the frontier line to Metz. The French center, advancing through the lake region, was approaching the main Metz-Strasburg railway; the French right wing had occupied Saarburg Junction.



### The Battle of Morhange

ON the 19th, the French advance came under heavy artillery and machine-gun fire and the well-concealed German battle line was at length disclosed, extending eastward from Morville through Morhange and Fene- strange to Phalsbourg, its left resting on the Vosges and its right supported by the fort- resses at Metz. Gen. de Castelnau gave or- ders for an immediate attack.

Gen. Foch's 20th Corps stormed the vil- lage of Couthel and gained the northern mar- gin of the Forest of Chateau Salins all the way to Delme. Espinasse's 15th Corps, in the center, captured the village of Vergaville and advanced toward Bendsdorf Junction. Taverna's 16th Corps, pushing forward west of Saarburg, advanced toward Fenestrang. Dubail's Division, on the other hand, was checked north of Saarburg. From their strong main position in the uplands, largely masked by belts of wood, the German bat- teries swept every open space with a hurri- cane of shell fire.

Still unaware that six German corps were opposing his three, and that Prince Rupert's entrenched line bristled with artillery drawn from the arsenal of Metz, Gen. de Castelnau, on August 20, re-formed his line and gave battle to the enemy on a front of forty miles, extending from Delme to Saarburg. Gen. Foch held the left of the line, from Couthel to Delme; Gen. Espinasse the center in the region of Vergaville; Gen. Taverna the right, with his base on Birphing.

Foch's "Iron Corps" led in the grand as- sault. The 11th Division, advancing through a storm of high explosive shells and a hurri- cane of machine-gun fire, gained a footing in Rodalbe, the 26th Regiment penetrating the German trenches and sending back 115 pris- oners of the Saxon Corps. Though heavily counter-attacked, they clung doggedly to the ground they had won, but could advance no further. Foch's 39th Division also made some gains in the direction of Marthil.

Elsewhere, the French offensive met with disaster. In the center, Espinasse's Corps was brought to a dead stop under the tempest of the enemy's fire. Whole batteries were put out of action by the howitzer shells, while the infantry, in attempting to push forward

through the woods, found their progress barred by wire and were mowed down by machine-gun fire. On the right, Taverna's Corps also found it impossible to advance beyond the wire barrier. Their losses were appalling.

By noon the French troops were well-nigh exhausted, while the Germans, fighting under cover, were comparatively fresh. Prince Rupert then launched a counter-attack, which was heralded by a tremendous burst of shell fire directed at the French center. Espinasse's Provencal troops gave way be- fore the onslaught of the Bavarians. Guns were abandoned and the retreat became a rout.

As the French center collapsed, Gen. Foch's two divisions, in their advanced position on the left of the line, were left isolated and in danger of annihilation. Their peril was in- creased when a Bavarian reserve corps pushed out from Metz to attack their flanks.

Luckily this German stroke was parried by two French reserve divisions which had en- trenching the ground between Nomeny and Delme, and now held back the Bavarians.

With his left flank protected, Gen. Foch was able not only to cover his own retreat, but to protect Espinasse's demoralized corps in the center from complete disruption.

With his 11th Division Foch launched an immediate counter-attack on the flank of the advancing enemy. Then, skillfully withdraw- ing his divisions, he fought a series of rear- guard actions with the German right as they pressed forward toward Chateau Salins, making use of the forest-clad ground in his fighting retreat.

His tactics were successful; the German assault gradually slackened and by evening the battered center was brought to a position of temporary safety on the line Jelancourt- Maizieres. Meanwhile, the retreat of Tav- erna's Corps, on the right of the French line, had been covered by reinforcements from Dubail's army.

Gen. Dubail's army had been more suc- cessful in the invasion of Alsace. The Donan heights and the neighboring line of the Vosges had been seized, and Gen. Pau's Divi- sion had captured Mulhousen with thou- sands of prisoners and twenty-four guns.



### Skilful Retreat Conducted by Foch

DE CASTELNAU'S Lorraine army was still in peril, however, and a further withdrawal across the Seille and Meurthe rivers and thence into France, was decided upon. The army was ordered to fall back to a new position on the French side of the frontier, covering the Trouvee de Charmes, a gap in the Eastern fortress barrier, with the entrenched camp of Toul on its left and that of Epinol on its right.

In co-operation with Dubail's First Army, they would there await the inevitable attack by the victorious Germans.

Foch's 20th Corps was assigned to act as the rear guard of the whole army, covering its retirement across the Meurthe to the new battle positions. A welcome reinforcement reached the Second Army on August 21, made up of three brigades and several batteries of artillery belonging to the 9th Corps which had mobilized at Tours.

The retreat across the frontier was begun on August 21. Gen. Foch, with his "Iron Corps," guarded the retirements, holding the heights on the left bank of the Meurthe above and below St. Nicholas and covering the river crossings with his artillery fire.

On the right bank, a brigade of the 11th Division, with several batteries, held the heights above Flainvol against repeated attacks, and only withdrew across the river at dark, blowing up the bridges as they went. The only French troops left on the right bank were those that held the Grand Cauronne. On Sunday, August 23, the Second Army was in position on its chosen battle ground for the defence of the Charmes Gap.

### Allied Line in the North Also in Retreat

ON the same day, Lanrezac's French army on the Sambre was defeated by von Buelow, the British had begun their retreat from Mons, the armies of De Ruffey and De Langle had both been shattered and the whole Allied line on the Northern frontier was falling back.

As a result of the defeat of the Second French Army at Morhange, Gen. Dubail's First Army was obliged to abandon the

Donan heights in Alsace and the neighboring line of the Vosges, and Gen. Pau was withdrawing from Mulhausen. Both were ordered to unite with Gen. de Castelnau in front of Trouvee de Charmes.

### Battle of Trouvee de Charmes (Nancy)

SUNDAY, August 23, found the armies of Castelnau and Dubail standing in battle formation in front of the Trouvee de Charmes, the 20-mile gap opening in the side of France, near Nancy, flanked on its northern end by the fortified Meuse heights and on its southern end by a fortified spur of the Vosges.

De Castelnau's battle line, with its left on the heights of the Grand Cauronne and extending southward toward Essey, formed almost a right angle with Gen. Dubail's line, which ran from Essey by way of Baccarat to the Vosges. The German advance, therefore, must either be frontal against one army, exposing a flank to the other, or else form a salient enveloped by the French from the outset. Including the terrain swept by the guns mounted in the forts of Toul and Epinol, the front was 45 miles long.

The Germans, after occupying Luneville on the 23d, advanced toward the Gap and gave battle on the following day. A corps of Gen. Heeringen's army made an attempt to turn Dubail's flank by forcing the Pass of St. Marie in the Vosges, but was repulsed by the 14th French Corps, reinforced by troops from the garrison of Epinol.

At the same time, two corps of Bavarian troops had pushed along by the Meurthe valley and engaged the 21st French Corps at Celles and Baccarat, but still the line did not budge. The main attack was made against De Castelnau's front.

Advancing across the Mortague valley on both sides of Gerbeviller, the Germans flung themselves in dense masses against the positions held by the 15th and 16th French Corps, but the men of Provence and Languedoc amply retrieved their failure at Morhange, resisting every attack. On the right of them, Conneau's cavalry fought dismounted. Here the attack was pressed furiously for hours, but in vain. Now began a terrific bombardment, shells and shrapnel raining upon the

Plateau, but it could not disperse the indomitable Frenchmen.

### Foch's Great Victory at Nancy

THE German assault having failed, Gen. de Castelnau resolved to launch a counter-offensive, in charge of Gen. Foch. In addition to his own 20th Corps, Foch was given command of the 70th Reserve Division and two brigades of the 9th Corps.

Foch hurriedly planned a turning movement against the German right flank, with the heights beyond the Sanon as his objective, thus cutting the German communications and endangering their whole position. Under cover of the guns of the Grand Caumont, Foch led his 20th Corps, first across the Meurthe by bridges, and then against the heights of Sanon, while the other detachments, under Gen. Fayolle, were pushed forward toward the Luneville-Chateau Salins road, north of the Marne and Rhine Canal.

Seeing their danger, the German defenders of Sanon called for reinforcements, but the whole German army was by now wholly engaged repelling the counter-offensive, and no troops could be spared. Before nightfall, Gen. Foch had reached the heights beyond Sanon, had stormed Flainval and the neighboring villages, and cleared the wood of Crevic of the enemy. Gen. Fayolle, with the 70th Reserves, had co-operated splendidly, having advanced within 21½ miles of Serres on the Chateau Salins road.

By desperately using all his reserves, Prince Rupert on the following day managed to hold both Foch and Fayolle in check, for a

few hours, but this was fatal to his main battle line, which showed signs of weakening. When the German front began to waver, Gen. de Castelnau ordered a general offensive.

The French attacked from three directions, compelling a retreat of the Germans through the wide gap between the Chateau Salins road and the Vosges. They fought stubbornly as they withdrew, but in three days they were driven across the German border, with heavy losses. This was the first great victory won by France, and coming so soon after the defeat at Morhange, it filled the nation with joy.

### Foch Promoted to Command of an Army

THE generalship displayed by Gen. Foch in that victory entitled him to promotion. Summoned by Gen. Joffre to Chalons, he was complimented for his work at Nancy and given command, not of a corps, merely, but of an army—the immortal Ninth French Army—which was to be hastily formed out of army units then retreating from the Belgian border, and destined two weeks later to win imperishable glory as the real victor of the Battle of the Marne.

### German Losses 250,000

THE German casualties in the Battle of Nancy are said to have reached the astounding total of 250,000, and this disaster to German arms was brought about by a French force but little more than half as large as the Germans.

WESTERN THEATER, AUG. 22—SEPT. 6

## French Armies Overwhelmed at Neufchateau and Charleroi

Their Retreat Towards the Marne Leaves British Forces Isolated at Mons

SECTION 6—1914

French Forces, 480,000

Gen. Joffre, Commander-in-Chief

Third Army, Gen. de Ruffey

Fourth Army, Gen. Langle de Carey

Fifth Army, Gen. de Lanrezac

(succeeded by Gen. d'Esperey)

German Forces, 800,000

Duke of Wurttemberg

Crown Prince Frederick

Gen. Hausen

**W**HILE Gen. de Castelnau's army was retreating out of Lorraine, on August 21-22, three other French armies further north were being over-

whelmed by the German flood along the Belgian and Luxemburg borders. At this time there were four Allied armies in alignment on the French frontier—Sir John French's



British Expeditionary Force near Mons, Gen. de Lanrezac's Fifth French Army near Charleroi, Gen. Langle de Carey's Fourth French Army north of Sedan, and Gen. de Ruffey's Third French Army holding the pivot position near Verdun.

As a preliminary to his plan of driving a wedge in between the armies of von Kluck and von Buelow, and uniting with the Belgian army at Brussels, Gen. Joffre had sent strong reinforcements to Gen. Lanrezac, ordering him to proceed through Charleroi and flank von Buelow's army. While Lanrezac's army was moving up to the line of the Sambre to give battle to von Buelow's forces, Gen. Langle de Carey's army was advancing from Sedan across the Semois River to confront the Duke of Wurttemberg, and throwing out detachments on the left bank of the Meuse in hopes of keeping in touch with Lanrezac on the west. Further to the east, Gen. Ruffey's Third Army was advancing on Luxemburg to oppose the German Crown Prince and raise the siege of Longwy.

Unknown to the French Staff, there was another large German army, that of Gen. Hausen, lying concealed behind the forests of the Ardennes, and it was this unsuspected force that was destined to bring disaster to the Allied cause.

The two German army groups, commanded by the Duke of Wurttemberg and Crown Prince Frederick, were at this time separated by the River Meuse, and it seemed entirely feasible to defeat them separately. The Germans, however, had outwitted the French by planting Gen. Hausen's army in reserve behind the Ardennes.

So, instead of attacking seven German corps, as they had anticipated, the French encountered thirteen corps of infantry and three of cavalry. In addition, the Germans had a great superiority in artillery, aviation, machine guns, and material in general.

### French Defeat at Neufchateau

STILL unaware of the vastly superior forces which the Germans had assembled, the French forces, on August 21, confidently advanced to give them battle. Namur had not yet fallen, and indeed, the fortress was expected to hold out for weeks. The Third French Army, commanded by Gen. Ruffey, followed from the east to the west the course of the Semois River, a tributary of the Meuse. The Fourth French Army, under Gen. Langle de Carey, operated between the Meuse and the Lesse. The German forces occupied the wooded plateau, extending from Neufchateau to Palisent, which they had strongly fortified.

On August 21, Gen. Langle's infantry boldly attacked the Wurttembergers, but were repulsed. Still fighting, they fell back across the Meuse River. The pursuit by the Germans was punctuated by strong counter-attacks, inflicting great losses upon them.

Gen. Ruffey's Third Army was similarly checked in its advance on Neufchateau by the superior forces of the German Crown Prince and was thrown back on the line of the Semois River. Both offensive actions undertaken by the armies of the French center had miscarried. Not only were they unable to lend their aid to Gen. Lanrezac, operating before Charleroi on their left, but they were obliged to retreat.

## The French Disaster at Battle of Charleroi

French Army, 120,000  
Gen. Lanrezac

German Army, 300,000  
Gen. von Buelow  
Gen. von Hausen

THE French army of Gen. Lanrezac, on the day following the battle of Neufchateau, met with defeat, because that general had failed to carry out his instructions, which were: To occupy the city of Charleroi in full force, to entrench on both sides of the Sambre River, to destroy bridges across the river, and to secure his right flank from attack.

Gen. von Buelow invested Charleroi on August 22 with his full strength of 300,000

men. Crossing the bridges above and below Charleroi, the Germans poured into the city. There ensued one of the deadliest battles of the war. The thoroughfares of Charleroi at once were swept by a tempest of machine-gun fire. Great chimneys toppled over upon the combatants, burying hundreds in the debris. Hand-to-hand conflicts took place in factories, in workshops, and in the electric power station.

Into this desperate fray leaped the savage Turcos and Zouaves, fighting with long sheath knives and bayonets. Again and again they forced the Germans back to the environs of Charleroi. The city became a roaring furnace and in a few hours was reduced to ruins.

### **Lanrezac Succeeded by d'Esperey**

THAT night Gen. Lanrezac learned of the fall of Namur. More startling still, he was informed that Gen. Hausen, with a new German army, 300,000 strong, had crossed the Meuse River at Dinant and was moving against his flank. To avoid being crushed between two enemy armies, Lanrezac gave orders for a hurried retreat southward. With heavy losses, he managed to reach Maubeuge, where he resigned his command to Gen. d'Esperey. So rapid was Gen. Lanrezac's flight that he could not find time to notify the British army of his intended retreat. The losses in this battle of Charleroi were appalling on both sides.

### **Retreat of the French Armies**

LANREZAC'S Fifth Army, on retiring from Charleroi, barely escaped envelopment by these German armies. Von Buelow attacked from the north, von Hausen assailed the right wing, while the path of retreat was threatened by a third German force. By fighting desperate rear-guard actions, and with Sordet's cavalry protecting their western flank, the Fifth Army reached Guise. Here, strongly reinforced, they turned upon their nearest pursuers, August 23, driving the Prussian Guards and the Tenth German Corps across the River Oise and continuing their retirement without hindrance in the direction of the Gap of Chimay.

### **Evacuation of Dinant, Charleville, Mesieres**

LANGLE DE CAREY'S Fourth Army, operating along the Meuse, made a stand at Dinant on August 23. Here the Saxons, in great strength, sought to gain possession of the bridges. The French for a time retained the bridges, but later they blew them up before retiring southward toward their own frontier. The Saxons, however, succeeded in crossing the Meuse at Givet and resumed the pursuit.

On the following day, August 24, the French evacuated Charleville, leaving behind a small artillery garrison whose machine guns were so placed as to command the three bridges that connect Charleville with Mesieres. As the German vanguard entered the two towns the bridges were suddenly blown up behind them by contact mines, and their ranks were riddled by the French machine guns.

At the same time, the main German army appeared in view in the valley below and were greeted by a shower of shrapnel from the French guns on the hills above the town. The French, yielding to numbers, finally evacuated both Charleville and Mesieres, and retreated to Neufchateau, where they were attacked by the Duke of Wurtemberg's army.

On the same day, the garrison of Toul was compelled to evacuate before the attacks of the Crown Prince Rupprecht of Bavaria.

### **Donchery Is Captured**

THE collapse of the Meuse line on August 27 was followed by the rapid retreat of Ruffey's and Langle de Carey's armies, closely pressed by the three German armies of Crown Prince Frederick, Gen. von Hausen, and the Duke of Wurtemberg. A decisive action was fought on August 7 at Donchery, near the famous battlefield of Sedan. Von Hausen, moving up the left bank of the Meuse, attacked Langle in flank, menacing his line of retreat, while the Duke of Wurtemberg struck at his front. Against such odds Gen. Langle de Carey could not hope to prevail. Accordingly, he fell back hastily toward Rethel.

### **Longwy Surrendered to the Germans**

LANGLE'S retirement from Donchery exposed the flank of Ruffey's army on his right, compelling the latter's retreat toward the wooded plateau of the Argonne. This retirement involved the surrender of the forts of Mesieres and Montmedy on the 27th.

Longwy capitulated on the 27th to the Crown Prince Frederick, who advanced into France in the direction of the Argonne. Its brave defender, Lieut. Colonel Darche, had held out for 24 days against the assaults of



the enemy, but the ancient fort could not longer withstand the pounding of the German guns. All the northern strongholds, excepting Maubeuge, were now in the enemy's possession.

### Rheims, Chalons, La Fere, Laon Captured

THE French made a brief stand on the Aisne River, where Langle de Carey had occupied the town of Rethel. After two days of hard fighting, the French were forced, on August 29, across the Aisne, and the town

of Rethel was put to the torch. Crossing the Aisne, in hot pursuit of the French, the Germans captured Rheims and Chalons on August 29, without firing a shot, and on the next day the fortified towns of La Fere and Laon surrendered.

The general retirement on the line of the Marne was continued, and the pursuit of the Germans slackened. By September 3, the French armies had finished their retreat and were awaiting the word that would send the Huns reeling back.

WESTERN THEATER, AUG. 24—SEPT. 6

## British Army Retreats 150 Miles from Mons to the Marne

Bloody Battles Fought at Mons, Le Cateau, Andregnies, Landrecies, Maroilles, Cambrai

SECTION 7—1914

### British Forces, 90,000

Gen. Sir John French, Commander  
First Army Corps, Gen. Douglas Haig  
Second Army Corps, Gen. Smith-Dorrien  
Gen. Allenby (Cavalry)  
Gen. Chetwode (Cavalry)  
Gen. Sordet (Cavalry)  
Gen. d'Amale (Cavalry)

### German Forces, 300,000

Gen. von Kluck's army  
Gen. von Buelow's army

WITH four French armies in full retreat on their several fronts, after the repulse at Charleroi, only the small British Expeditionary Force at Mons remained on the northern border to stem the German flood which was surging southward through Belgium.

Realizing at last that he had greatly underestimated the strength of the German invasion, Gen. Joffre's immediate strategic concern was how to save the Allied armies from irreparable disaster. Of French reserves he had at most four corps, which he might send north to assist his routed armies in making a final stand against the Germans. His Gallic caution, however, advised him that the situation was too fraught with danger to justify so desperate a risk. Outnumbered in the ratio of seven to four, the French forces could not hope definitely to hold the Germans in check.

If Joffre should hazard a battle in the north, his armies would be far removed from their base, while the German line of communication was not yet strained. Defeat

now would spell disaster to the Allied cause and the complete triumph of Germany. With the surrender of the French armies, Paris would fall, and the Germans could dictate an ignoble peace, both to France and England. Germany might then give her undivided attention to Russia and by annihilating the Czar's armies attain to the mastery of Europe and Asia.

With these reservations in mind, Gen. Joffre wisely decided to waive the opportunity for battle in the north, and, instead, continue his retreat to the Marne, leading the Germans on to an insecure position where he might counter-attack them with some hope of success. Each step of the German advance would draw them farther from their base of supplies, while the French were retreating toward their base. Moreover, the French mobilization was rapidly progressing, and Joffre already had taken steps to form two new armies which would be in readiness to attack the German line when he had lured it southward to the Marne. Joffre accordingly ordered a general retreat and thence-

forward he played with the German pursuers as a cat plays with a mouse. The Germans, too dense to comprehend the strategy of Joffre, and believing that the French armies were demoralized, fell into a trap that had been laid for them. Like the army of rats that trailed behind the piper of Hamelin, they followed whithersoever Joffre led, and never realized their blunder until the French and British fell upon them in the immortal Battle of the Marne. At the very outset, however, Joffre's plans miscarried, in part, on account of the confusion arising from the hurried retreat of the French armies.

### British Are Isolated at Mons

ALTHOUGH the French armies on his right were in full retreat from the Belgian frontier on August 23, following their defeat first at Neufchateau and then at Charleroi, Gen. Sir John French, the commander of the British forces, still remained in fatal ignorance of this important fact for at least 24 hours. His intelligence department appears to have functioned imperfectly. Gen. French was unaware that his little expeditionary force of 76,000 infantry and 10,000 cavalry had been left in complete isolation on the 25-mile front along the Mons-Conde Canal. He knew nothing of the sweep of von Kluck's army through Belgium and the German intention to turn his left flank. His airmen had failed to detect the presence of swarms of German soldiers in the adjacent woods. Serene in the belief that he was supported on the right by Lanrezac's Fifth French Army and on the left by a screen of French cavalry, and confident that only two German corps at most opposed him in front, Gen. French tranquilly sat him down amid the slag heaps of the Mons region on that fatal Sunday, August 23, to await the attack of the Huns.

Gen. Smith-Dorrien's Second Army Corps held the left of the British line in front of Mons, while Gen. Douglas Haig's First Army Corps lay at Binche on the right, nearest to the position just vacated by Lanrezac's French army. Gen. Allenby's cavalry, numbering 10,000 horses, was stationed in the rear, while a French cavalry force under Gen. d'Amade, guarded the British left flank. In

addition, a cavalry corps of three divisions, under Gen. Sordet, rested farther south at Maubeuge, prepared to assist in any emergency that might arise.

### The Surprise Attack by the Germans

AT high noon, on Sunday, August 23, while the church bells in the neighboring villages were pealing joyously and the British soldiers were variously engaged at play or in washing their soiled garments, the heavens were rent with the screech of German shells fired from the cover of the woods fronting Mons. Squadrons of German airplanes suddenly appeared, circling over the British line.

The British airmen at once soared upward to give them battle. British cavalry patrols galloped in, bringing the information that the adjacent woods swarmed with German troops and heavy guns. Too late Gen. French learned that his little army faced, not two German corps, but six—a force of 300,000 Huns, as against 86,000 Britishers.

Six hundred German guns were at once brought into action, drenching the British left with shrapnel, and the right of the line with bomb-shells. German airplanes, by dropping smoke bombs, gave the range for their artillery. Thus while the air battle was in progress, the infantry faced a hurricane of shells.

Presently, from the cover of the woods, the German columns advanced in mass formation, a seemingly irresistible horde. Undismayed, the British veterans stood their ground, seizing their rifles and pouring a fusillade of bullets upon the oncoming squares, which melted in the heat of the British fire. As the living walls advanced, each in turn withered away before the bullet or the bayonet, until the German dead were piled breast high in places.

Again and again the driven Huns advanced, wavered, thinned, and retreated to the cover of the woods, but they were as constantly urged forward under the lash of their officers, until finally they all but reached the British line. As the dense masses of German infantry worked right up to the British trenches, the firing ceased and the British cavalry charged. With a blood-curd-



ling yell, the Huns ran back as though the fiends pursued them. Yet as the day waned, the British trench line was wearing thin; the awful tempest of German artillery fire was eating the heart out of the defense. Slowly but surely the British batteries were silenced.

### British Evacuate the Loop

THE attack had now spread along the whole line of the canal, but except at the loop on the British right wing, the Huns had made no impression. There, however, numbers prevailed at last and in mid-afternoon the Third Battalion was ordered to retire from the salient and the Fifth Division on the left to conform.

After blowing up the bridges in the loop, the retreat was sounded and the Second Corps withdrew to a position on higher ground. As the right wing fell back, Gen. Chetwode's cavalry, by headlong charges, broke up every effort of the Germans to disorganize the rear.

On the left flank, held by Smith-Dorrien's corps, the Germans were seeking to suffocate the British line by sheer weight of numbers. They tried also to cross the canal by bridge and by pontoons, but the English for a time prevented this by the accuracy of their shell fire. The odds were, however, too uneven; in the end the British details holding the bridgeheads were cut to pieces, the gunners dying to a man. The bridges were then destroyed by British engineers.

Foiled at the bridges, the enemy massed on the bank and tried to hold their positions. An artillery duel followed for possession of the canal bank. In the beginning the German masses were cut down by the British gunfire, but other German masses pressed on, and slowly, under frightful loss, they began to work their pontoon bridges across the smoke-clouded face of the canal.

Ten times they almost got the pontoons over, and as often the British guns reduced the boats to splinters. But the heroic efforts of the British were in vain. Fresh hordes of Huns were let loose against them; their flanks were in danger; a great turning movement was developing away to the west of Tournai; it was time to retire.

### The Retreat Begins

STILL unaware of the overpowering strength of the German forces which were bearing down upon his little army, though the true situation might have been discovered by efficient air scouts, Gen. French was dumb-founded when Marshal Joffre notified him at 5 p. m. that three German corps were moving against the British front, while a fourth German corps was endeavoring to outflank him from the west.

He was also informed that the Germans, on the previous day, had captured the crossings of the Sambre River, between Charleroi and Namur, and that Lanrezac's army on his right was retreating. In other words, the defensive pivot of the Franco-British line at Namur, on which the Allied strategy depended, had fallen almost at a blow. By Sunday the Germans had left Namur, and, in numbers far exceeding French predictions, had seized the crossings of the Sambre and Middle Meuse and were hammering at the junction of the Fifth and Fourth French armies in the fork of the river. The junction was quickly pierced, and the French, being overwhelmingly assaulted both in front and in flank, could do nothing but retire.

When the British commander received this information, the French armies had been retreating for ten hours and were a day's march removed from him. Thus the British found themselves wholly isolated, engaged in front by three German corps and threatened by a fourth German corps on their left, with the French army a full day's march away. Undaunted, and with their proverbial coolness, the British made methodical arrangements for a retirement toward the pre-arranged line. The hard-pressed Second Corps began its retreat at midnight, its flank covered by the First Corps with massed artillery.

### French Army Helps the British Right Wing

MEANWHILE, Gen. Joffre had ordered D'Esperey's retreating Fifth French Army to turn about and counter-attack, in order to prevent the cutting off of the British right flank by von Buelow's forces. D'Esperey at once attacked the Germans, driving them back almost to the gates of Charleroi. In



this brilliant engagement, the Algerian troops especially distinguished themselves, humbling the Kaiser's Prussian Guards.

### The Battle at Andregnies

To still further protect the retirement of Smith-Dorrien's Corps on the left of the line, Gen. French ordered Gen. Haig to boldly launch a counter-offensive along the Mons road from Bray to Binche. The enemy were then crossing the Mons Canal in great numbers and pouring down on the villages to the south. Haig's heavy artillery fire held the Huns in check, giving the Second Corps time to form a strong battle line five miles to the south. Much desperate fighting took place on the 24th. A Cheshire regiment, nobly sacrificing itself, held the ridge from Andregnies to Elongues for several hours against overwhelming odds. Six hundred soldiers of the regiment fell in this heroic defence. Meanwhile, Gen. Allenby's cavalry, 10,000 horses, had been ordered to swing over to the extreme left and protect the Second Corps from a flanking movement begun by von Kluck from the west. At Andregnies the cavalry halted, facing the Huns at a range of 1000 yards.

Then the gallant Ninth Lancers charged the German flank in the face of a tornado of shell and rifle fire, with no protection from the withering blast. The Lancers were further confronted by double lines of wire, strung within 500 yards of the enemy. Men and horses fell by the hundreds before this withering fire. Only by super-courage were they enabled to save their batteries and make good their retreat. But von Kluck's flanking movement had failed.

### Germans Held Ten Days at Maubeuge

AFTER a short halt and partial entrenchment on the line Dour-Quarouble, to enable the First Corps to break off its demonstration, the retreat of the Second Corps was resumed, and by the evening of the 24th the whole British Expeditionary Force had reached the prearranged line, Jenlain-Bavai-Maubeuge.

The Second Corps, on the left, was protected by the cavalry operating westward, and by a new British brigade, the 19th, which had been brought up in the nick of

time. The First Corps, on the right, was sufficiently protected by the guns of the fortress of Maubeuge.

The Germans now began a wide enveloping movement, hoping to coop up the British army in the fortified town of Maubeuge and capture it entire. In pursuance of this plan, Gen. von Kluck made a deep detour in the west in his effort to outflank the British left wing, while von Buelow was trying to roll up the British right flank.

Meantime, in their sweep forward on the 24th, the Germans had captured the French brigade of Marquis de Villaret at Tournai, and a British battery.

Gen. French, knowing the danger he incurred in relying upon the defences at Maubeuge, decided to vacate the position. Accordingly, the British army, on August 25, set out on the next stage of its retreat, marching south on either side of the forest of Mormal.

The French garrison, however, remained in Maubeuge, holding the fortress against repeated German attacks for ten days and thus depriving Gen. von Kluck of the services of 60,000 troops in the subsequent Battle of the Marne.

The British army made their stand in the neighborhood of Le Cateau, where civilian labor had been employed to prepare and entrench the grounds. There the British were reinforced by a new division, sent forward to assist the retirement of the Second Corps. For both corps it had been a day of torture, marching under a blazing sun along roads crowded with transports and packed with refugees.

Under these trying conditions, the various units of the Second Corps had marched 20 to 35 miles on August 25, reaching their appointed line on the Cambrai-Le Cateau road as night was falling and in a cold, steady rain. The First Corps, having been delayed, did not reach the allotted position; its units were scattered over a wide area, at some points 30 miles apart, and at no point nearer than Landrecies, eight miles from Le Cateau.

The difficulties of movement had been increased by the convergence of the French troops, retiring from the Sambre, who cut across the British line of march. The



enemy's pressure, moreover, had been continued well into the night.

### Battle of Landrecies

AT Maroilles, Haig's First Corps was so hard pressed that aid was urgently asked from the French. Two reserve French divisions responded, and by diverting the attention of the enemy they extricated Haig's corps from a perilous position. The enemy allowed the British no respite. At 8.30 that night, when the exhausted British soldiers were preparing for a night's rest, the Germans, in countless motor busses, bore down upon Landrecies.

Fortunately, the town had been put in a hasty state of defence, the houses loopholed, machine guns installed, barricades erected, and a company detailed to guard each unit. Singing French songs and wearing French uniforms, the Germans poured into the town, for a while deceiving the British as to their true identity. The battle which ensued was as violent as it was sudden. All through the the night, with only brief intermission, the sanguinary struggle continued. Though outnumbering the British three to one, the Huns were nevertheless compelled to withdraw at dawn, leaving 1000 of their dead in the streets.

The town was ablaze in many sections, and scores of buildings had been destroyed. Meantime, the First Corps was heavily engaged at Maroilles, but it stood firmly, reinforced by the French division.

### British Disaster at Le Cateau

THE crisis of the retreat was now approaching. With his two corps widely separated, Gen. French decided to abandon the Le Cateau position and retire beyond the Somme or the Oise. Though terribly exhausted, Gen. Haig's First Corps set out from its scattered halting places in the early hours of the 26th. By dawn the whole corps was marching south toward St. Quentin. Gen. Smith-Dorrien, deeming his Second Corps too exhausted to retire, so notified Gen. French, but was advised that any delay in retiring might compromise the plan of Allied operations and entail fatal results. To assist his retirement, the entire body of cav-

alry and the Fourth Infantry Division had been placed under his orders.

In disobedience of express orders, Smith-Dorrien on his own judgment decided to engage the Germans, who numbered 200,000 men with 600 guns.

With both his flanks exposed and with only three divisions to meet the attack of the enemy's legions, Smith-Dorrien rashly decided to hazard an engagement. The battle opened at dawn. It was a desperate fight for the Britishers. Everything was thrown into the scale. Regiments and battalions, with complete self-abandonment, faced hopeless duels at impossible ranges. Brigades of British cavalry on the flanks boldly threatened whole German divisions.

In the shelter of the trenches, withering away but never budging, the infantry grimly dwindled before the German guns. For the first six hours the guns never ceased their thunder. To the infantry it was a battle of stubborn and almost stupefied endurance, broken by lucid intervals of that deadly musketry which had played such havoc with the Germans at Mons.

To the British gunners, it was a duel which they accepted gallantly, causing the German masses to shiver and recoil. But once again sheer numbers prevailed. By mid-day, many of the British batteries were silenced and the enemy had begun a flanking movement. A desperate bout of hand-to-hand fighting ensued, men and horses being mixed in a seething, compact mass. Against such fearful odds the British could no longer contend.

To prevent the total annihilation of his corps, Smith-Dorrien ordered a gradual British retreat. In the pandemonium that reigned, the orders could not be conveyed to all parts of the line. Consequently, many isolated units of the British army were cut to pieces. In covering the retirement that followed, several companies of the Fifth Division were almost annihilated. Fully a third of Smith-Dorrien's forces were erased on that fateful field. Single battalions lost as many as 600 men. Never had Britishers fought more bravely or more hopelessly. The story of the nineteen survivors of B Company, Yorkshire Lancers charging the



enemy is typical of the spirit which inspired the British regiment.

For this error of judgment, Gen. Smith-Dorrien was removed from his command, and exiled to Africa as "commander of the British African forces."

The Third British Division, after repulsing a determined attack on Caudry, the apex of their position, retired slowly, their left wing being covered by the newly arrived French division which bore the brunt of the battle with great gallantry. Parts of this division shared the fate of other units engaged in covering the retirement.

In the deep darkness of the night, many British units lost their way. Some were cut off or captured; others won their way through the German line to the sea. But of all adventures which befell them, none equals the tragedy of the First Gordons, a regiment that marched in the darkness into a German division in bivouac some miles south of the battle ground and were shot or taken prisoner almost to a man.

But with unruffled courage, the British continued their retirement and by nightfall, after another long and weary march, the remnant of the Second Corps and the Fourth Division halted and bivouacked in the pouring rain, the exhausted troops falling asleep by the roadside, too utterly spent to think of shelter.

### Saved by the French at Cambrai

THE German pursuit was checked that day by the timely arrival of French reinforcements. From Arras, Gen. Sordet and Gen. d'Aumade had hastened with large bodies of French cavalry, horse artillery, and some battalions of infantry. In resistless charges, the Frenchmen drove the Germans back out of Cambrai, inflicting a blow that recoiled on the whole of von Kluck's army for fully a week, enabling the British to resume their retreat without serious molestation.

The great British retreat, which the battle of Cateau had so dangerously interrupted, was resumed on the 27th. Haig's separated First Corps, perpetually harassed, was moving south as best it could, keeping its general direction but otherwise marching and bivouacking by brigades.

Some mishaps occurred during the retreat, as when the Second Munster Fusiliers were cut off at Bergueson, being saved from annihilation by the skillful and audacious action of the Fifteenth Hussars. On August 27, the Second Corps was still in advance of the First Corps, Gen. Sordet's French cavalry protecting the left flank, but the retreat was never halted.

The whole north of France was now in a state of panic, hundreds of thousands of families were in flight along the country roads. Food or drink, there was none, and of shelter, only what the forests afforded.

### 2000 Scots Repulse 20,000 Huns

ONE column of Britishers, after passing through Cambrai, had halted at St. Quentin, and orders were given to turn on the pursuers. Two thousand Scots of the Black Watch, the Greys, the Lancers, and the Cameronians, jubilantly faced 20,000 Germans. Advancing to within 100 yards of the enemy's lines, they charged the Huns gallantly. The Scots Greys, galloping forward through a cloud of bullets, with the infantry hanging on the stirrups, tore past the emplaced maxims and were on the gunners before they had recovered from the surprise.

The Black Watch and the Scots Greys fought like demons. It was Scottish bayonets against German swords. The Huns went down by hundreds; their ranks wavered as the carnage among them increased, and they soon broke and fled before the bayonets, like rabbits before a shotgun. Still the slaughter went on, with here and there a fierce hand-to-hand exchange, as when the Germans, with their retreat cut off, fought to the last man. After four hours of fighting, the Germans were either dispersed, dead, or captured. Four thousand prisoners were taken by those 2000 Scots.

The terrible retreat continued. It was one long nightmare for the wearied British. Their chief enemy was no longer the German, but the blazing sun, the toilsome roads, and the limits of human endurance. Sleep was cut down to a minimum. Men fed, drank, and slept as best they could. And day by day the footsore, shoeless troops were continually harassed by the deadly German artillery fire and by the cavalry.



By night the Britishers picked their cautious way, in black darkness, through a strange country, fearing at every step to stumble into a German ambush. Yet so stubborn was the spirit of the soldiers that they rebelled against the order to retreat, not knowing that their steady withdrawal was part of a prearranged plan which was destined to bring victory to the Allied cause.

By August 28, movement by corps was possible. On the following day the whole British line was once again restored.

After eight days and nights of constant marching, their feet worn to the raw, the British reached the La Fere line on August 29, and were out of present danger. Reinforced on the left by the 6th French Army and on the right by the 5th French Army, the Britishers were prepared to turn and again give fight to the enemy. This was not to be, however; Gen. Joffre's plans called for a further retirement.

### **Rheims and Chalons Taken**

It had been intended to make a stand on the line from La Fere to Rheims, but this plan was abandoned when the three armies constituting the German center, after smashing the French resistance at the Meuse River, had pursued and driven the French out of Rethel on August 29 and set the town afire. The next day Rheims and Chalons were abandoned to the Huns, and the fortresses of La Fere and Laon surrendered.

General Joffre thereupon ordered a general retirement on the line of the Marne, to which the French forces in the more eastern theater of war were directed to conform. Accordingly, the retreat of the British was resumed on Saturday, August 29, first toward the line of the River Aisne, from Soissons to Compeigne, and then toward the Marne about Meaux. Ten thousand French troops also withdrew from the Somme, blowing up the bridges in their wake.

### **Skirmishes at Villers-Cotterets and Nery**

Two lively skirmishes were fought on September 1, one at Villers-Cotterets, where the Irish Guards received their baptism of fire while repulsing a German attack, and the other at Nery, where a British brigade held

off eight regiments of Germans until relief arrived. Time and again Gen. von Kluck endeavored to turn the British left flank, but in vain. Twice he pressed the Allies too closely, at Guise on August 29, and at Mezieres on the 30th, but in each case was driven back in confusion with great losses.

On September 2, the British left wing reached the Marne River, and on the following day the whole army crossed over, destroying the bridges in the path of the advancing Germans. There followed a further retirement of twelve miles to a line based on Lagny, and there the British left wing made their last stand preparatory to the great offensive that was arranged against von Kluck's advancing army.

To sum up, the Allied armies in twelve days had successfully retreated 150 miles from Mons and Charleroi, had fought two pitched battles, and many rear guard actions and several cavalry skirmishes. The British Second Army Corps had sustained the brunt of battle and its casualties were not less than 10,000 men. Now, at Regaix they were reinforced by 2000 fresh troops from the 6th Division, and prepared for battle.

### **French Government Transferred to Bordeaux**

WHILE von Kluck's army was approaching Paris, the French capital had preserved its outward quiet and calm. Nevertheless, in view of the weakness of the city's defences, it was thought best to evacuate the population and transfer the seat of government to Bordeaux.

President Poincare, the Cabinet Ministers, the Senate and Chamber of Deputies, the judges of the higher courts, and the financiers with the reserves of the Bank of France, took passage for Bordeaux on September 3. The civil government of Paris was vested in the Military Governor, Gen. Gallieni, the prefect of Paris, and the prefect of police. An exodus of the population followed, 1,500,000 citizens fleeing to points in the south of France.

General Gallieni's first concern was to strengthen the defences of Paris. Hundreds of small buildings within the military zone were demolished in order to leave a clear field of fire. The city gates were barred with

heavy palisades, backed by sandbags; barricades were erected in the main thoroughfares, and batteries of machine guns were emplaced in all the public buildings for use in emergencies. Besides the 50,000 soldiers comprising the Paris garrison, the available forces for the defence of the capital on September 3d included some four or five divisions of French troops, chiefly cavalry, holding an advanced position near Dammartin and forming the nucleus of a new French army, under command of Gen. Maunoury, which was gradually being concentrated in the fortified area northwest of the city.

The fortified camp of Paris consisted of a number of outlying forts, arranged in a circle around the city, and with a radius of thirty miles. Within this circle there were parallel lines of trenches, and in addition a network of railroads to facilitate the transit of troops and supplies from fort to fort. Before the actual investment of Paris could begin, therefore, the Germans would have to break through this circle of outlying forts and then engage the army of ambush within the fortified area.

### German Drive on Paris Abandoned

THE fates had kindly decreed, however, that Paris should be spared the agony of a siege. On the same day, September 3d, which witnessed the general exodus of the Parisians from their capital, French air

scouts jubilantly reported the abandonment of the German drive on Paris. When within gun range, almost, of the outlying forts, Von Kluck's main army was seen to swerve sharply to the east, turning its back on Paris and then shaping its course in a southeasterly direction, apparently aiming at the four Marne bridges between Meaux and Chateau Thierry, which D'Esperey's retreating French army had crossed only a few hours before.

### Von Kluck's Fatal Maneuver

THE Paris garrison breathed a sigh of relief which rose to exultation when, a few hours later, information reached the capital that Von Kluck's army had thrust itself obliquely in the path of Von Buelow's Second German Army, sealing all the roads over which that army was advancing and compelling the cessation of all its movements.

Von Kluck, it appears, had deliberately flouted the orders of the German high command. To him had been assigned the task of guarding the flank of the entire German line, with his whole army facing Paris between the Oise and the Marne, while Von Buelow was in pursuit of D'Esperey's Fifth French Army below the Marne. Von Kluck's jealousy of Von Buelow had prompted him to appropriate the latter's task, so instead of remaining above the Marne he had selfishly blocked the path of Von Buelow's advance.

WESTERN THEATER, SEPT. 5-15

## Civilization Saved in the Immortal Battle of the Marne

Blunder of a German General Paves the Way to Allied Victory — Gen. Foch's Wonderful Strategy Compels a General German Retreat

SECTION 8—1914

#### Allied Forces, 1,200,000

Gen. Joffre, Commander-in-Chief  
Army Alignment from Paris to Epinal:  
(Paris Garrison, Gen. Gallieni)  
Sixth French Army, Gen. Maunoury  
British Army, Gen. Sir John French  
Fifth French Army, Gen. D'Esperey  
Ninth French Army, Gen. Foch  
Fourth French Army, Gen. Langle de Carey  
Third French Army, Gen. Sarrail  
Second French Army, Gen. de Castelnau

#### German Forces, 1,750,000

Field Marshall von Moltke, Commander  
Army Alignment from Paris to Epinal:  
First Army, Gen. von Kluck  
Second Army, Gen. von Buelow  
Third Army, Gen. von Hausen  
Fourth Army, Duke of Wurttemberg  
Fifth Army, Crown Prince of Prussia  
Sixth Army, Crown Prince of Bavaria  
Seventh Army, Gen. Heeringen

THE safety of France, and through her, of all civilization, was assured in that fateful hour when von Kluck's army, after turning its back on Paris and then thrusting von Buelow's vanguard jealously

aside, plunged eastward toward the Marne, "like a boar with lowered head", in blind pursuit of D'Esperey's battered French army, already below the Marne, which von Kluck



mistakenly supposed to be wholly isolated and consequently ripe for destruction.

Von Kluck's jealousy of von Buelow had led him into the double indiscretion of usurping the latter's appointed task, and, in disobedience of explicit orders, taking four corps of his army south of the Marne, instead of remaining behind, facing Paris, with his entire army, to guard the west flank of the whole German line. Von Kluck's amazing indiscretion proved fatal to the German plan of campaign and to his disobedience of orders is attributed the subsequent defeat of the Kaiser's legions.

All unwittingly, and at the precise moment when he made his detour east of Paris, von Kluck had fallen headlong into a trap prepared for him by the sagacious Gen. Joffre. His frantic efforts to escape from the trap, whilst the French and British armies were endeavoring to close it, precipitated that sequence of decisive battles, involving all the belligerent armies on a front of 150 miles, and known under the generic name of the First Battle of the Marne—a battle in which the very life of France was at stake and which resulted in the humiliating defeat and compulsory retreat of the entire German host.

The trap, which so nearly engulfed these modern Huns, on the same battlefield where their ancestors, under Attila, were vanquished 1500 years before, had been prepared by Gen. Joffre during the anxious twelve days' retreat, of the French and British armies southward from the Belgian border. Whilst the German armies were following in breakneck pursuit of the Allies, Joffre had evolved the strategy which was destined to halt the pursuit, confound the enemy and end forever the pretension of the German warlords to world dominion. At any time during that memorable retreat, had he so desired, Joffre might have made a successful stand against the foe. His eager troops, chafing under the ignominy of an enforced retreat, repeatedly implored their commander to strike back at the enemy. Joffre, however, had a larger plan in view. His purpose was to lure the Germans on until he had reached a secure position from

which he might launch a decisive blow. So, in his backward swing of 150 miles, "Papa" Joffre was content to bide his time, keeping the Allied line always intact whilst thwarting the constant German efforts to outflank him, and compelling the German pursuit to take the precise direction he had indicated. Knowing that the Germans would defer their intended siege of Paris until all the French armies in the field had been disposed of, the initiative remained with him, even in retreat. Not von Moltke, but Joffre, was controlling the general movement of the German armies; all unwittingly, the Kaiser's proud legions were obedient to the will of the French strategist!

### Two Armies Secretly Organized

UNSUSPECTED by the Germans, Gen. Joffre had secretly organized two new armies as the chief instruments of his triumphant strategy. One of these armies, the Sixth, under command of Gen. Maunoury, and composed of units drawn from other French armies on the Eastern frontier, lay in ambush north of Paris, in readiness to spring out instantly and attack von Kluck's flank if he passed to the east of the capital. The second new army, the Ninth, under command of Gen. Ferdinand Foch, "the hero of Morhange", was forming below the marshes of Saint Gond, near Fere Champenoise, awaiting the word to take its place on the battle line.

On September 3rd, when von Kluck's army swerved eastward from Paris, all the Allied armies of the left and center were ensconced below the Marne. The British Expeditionary Force, after eluding the German pursuers, and blowing up the bridges on the Marne west of Meaux, had withdrawn beyond the Grand Morin River, secreting themselves behind the Forest of Crecy. A third British corps had secretly arrived in France, increasing the army strength to 120,000 rifles and 10,000 cavalry. The Germans seem to have been unaware of the recuperation of the British forces, deeming them wholly dispersed or destroyed. D'Esperey's Fifth French army occupied an advanced position to the right of the British on a line extending from Courtacon to Epernay. Foch's



Ninth Army, to the East, was concealed between the waters of the Grand Morin and Compté de Mailly. Further East lay the Fourth Army, commanded by Gen. Langle de Carey. Gen. Sarrail's Third Army rested on the Meuse River, from Bar-le-Duc to Verdun. Gen. de Castelnau's Second Army lay athwart the Gap of Nancy in Lorraine.

### How the Germans were Deceived

THE original plan of the German high command, to envelop the left flank of the Allied line, having miscarried, when the British Expeditionary Force had eluded von Kluck, and D'Esperey's French army had escaped from the clutches of von Buelow, a new plan of battle, covering the operations of all the German armies, was devised on September 2nd. This plan was based upon German misconception of the actual strength of the Allied armies. The existence of Foch's new army in the center of the Allied line and of Maunoury's new army north of Paris was wholly unsuspected by the German high command. German aviators had jubilantly reported a great gap, some forty miles wide, in the center of the Allied line, where Gen. Foch's new army lay all the time snugly concealed below the marshes of Saint Gond. Similarly, the German aviators discovered a wide gap to the East of Paris where the British army had made its deep withdrawal below the Grand Morin. To the Germans the only visible French force on the west wing was the battered army of D'Esperey, lying with both its flanks exposed below the Marne. On the Eastern wing of the long battle line, the situation was equally favorable to the German design. The Gap of Mirecourt, near Nancy, was defended by a French force not exceeding 100,000 rifles, while Verdun was defended by a French army of less than 160,000 men. The only other French force visible to the Germans on this wing was the small army of Langle de Carey, in position just East of the gap in the center of the Allied line.

With seven great German armies in the field, outnumbering the French in the ratio of 7 to 4, it seemed an easy matter to overwhelm and destroy these isolated Allied armies. The German Crown Prince, with

500,000 picked troops, would quickly dispose of Gen. Sarrail's small force at Verdun. At the same time Crown Prince Rupprecht with 350,000 Bavarians would overpower the 100,000 French defending the Gap of Mirecourt. To the army of Gen. Hausen was assigned the task of annihilating Gen. Langle de Carey's apparently isolated French Army. On the western wing, there was only D'Esperey's battered French Army to consider. Von Buelow would have the honor of despatching that isolated army. Finally von Kluck would guard the German flank, his army being ordered to face Paris, north of the Marne, prepared to cope with any garrison force that might emerge therefrom, and with any remnant of the dispersed British army that might reappear. Such was the general situation on that memorable 3rd of September when the German west wing armies made their detour East of Paris.

All these German plans were destined to miscarry, partly because of the heroic defense of the eastern line by the armies of Castelnau and Sarrail; largely because of the surprise attacks by Gen. Joffre's unsuspected new armies, but most of all because of the confusion into which the German west wing had fallen as a result of von Kluck's disobedience. Von Kluck, when assigned to the task of guarding the west flank of the German line, had received explicit orders to hold his army between the Oise and the Marne, facing Paris, and to remain a day's march behind von Buelow's army, whose task it was to cover Paris from the Marne southward to the Seine, and at the same time outflank D'Esperey's apparently isolated French army. No account seems to have been taken of the "contemptible British army," but the Germans were very soon to learn of its existence and its powers.

Von Kluck, unwilling that the glory of outflanking D'Esperey's army should fall to von Buelow, resolved to earn that fame himself. Leaving a single corps on the west bank of Ourcq as a rear guard, he took his remaining four corps below the Marne, marching directly in front of von Buelow's right wing and throwing that army into immediate disorder.



It was at this juncture that Gen. Joffre decided to spring his trap. After a momentous interview on September 4th with Gen. Gallieni, the commander of the Paris garrison, he issued his historic order for the flank attack from Paris on September 5th. Only a single corps of Maunoury's new army was then available for the surprise attack. These troops, marching out from their place of concealment above Paris, engaged the flank corps which von Kluck had posted on the west bank of the Ourcq, expelling them from the heights which they occupied and liberating scores of villages. Von Kluck, now engaged with D'Esperey far below the Marne, was quick to realize the plight into which he had fallen, and to take the necessary steps to retrieve his blunder. Withdrawing his four corps from the battle line, he sent them north to engage Maunoury and, being still further reinforced from the Maubeuge fortress, he succeeded in bending Maunoury's line back upon Paris. His withdrawal from below the Marne, however, had left a gap of thirty miles in the German front with von Buelow's flank exposed. Into this

gap the French and British troops poured, compelling the immediate retirement of von Buelow's right wing. As a result of this retirement, von Kluck found it necessary in turn to break off his battle with Maunoury and retreat northward as far as Soissons.

Meantime, in the center of the long battle line, Gen. Foch's Ninth Army was sustaining the combined attack of von Buelow's left wing and von Hausen's entire army. At the critical moment, when Foch's right wing was bent double and his army seemed doomed, he risked all on a single bold stroke. Noticing a slight gap at the point of junction of the two attacking armies, he detached a corps from the end of his line and using it as a battering ram, broke through the enemy line, compelling a general retreat of all the German forces to the Aisne. Foch's victory came just in time to save the situation on the eastern frontier, for the small garrison at Fort Troyon was on the point of yielding to an overwhelming German force. We shall now take up the various phases of the great Battle of the Marne in detail.

## The Battle of the Ourcq

### Allied Forces, 515,000

Sixth French Army, 175,000  
 Gen. Maunoury, Commander  
 Gen. Pau, Chief of Staff  
 Paris Garrison, 50,000  
 Gen. Gallieni, Commander  
 Admiral Ronarch (Marines)  
 British Expeditionary Force, 130,000  
 Gen. Sir John French, Commander  
 Fifth French Army, 160,000  
 Gen. D'Esperey, Commander

### German Forces, 520,000

First German Army, 270,000  
 Gen. von Kluck, Commander  
 Gen. von Kuhl, Chief of Staff  
 Group Commanders:  
 Gen. von Linsingen  
 Gen. von Armin  
 Gen. von Quast  
 Second German Army, 250,000  
 Gen. von Buelow, Commander

THE "Battle of the Ourcq," which inaugurated and so largely determined the issue of the Battle of the Marne, is properly viewed, not as a single isolated action, spending itself wholly on the banks of a remote little stream, but rather as a sequence of widely separated battles, requiring for their vast theater the entire region lying between the Aisne and Aubertin Rivers, and involving four gigantic armies—a third of the whole embattled host of the Marne—throughout the period of the German repulse and retreat.

Timed for the strategic moment of the Allied offensive, when Gen. Joffre was preparing to launch his surprise attack on the German right flank, the Battle of the Ourcq River began just at dawn on September 5th with the movement Eastward from Dammartin of four divisions of Gen. Maunoury's Sixth French Army, then secretly concentrating in the fortified area north of Paris, to give battle to Gen. Gronau's Fourth Reserve Corps and Gen. von Marwitz's cavalry brigade, which were posted on the west bank of the Ourcq as the flank guard of Gen. von

Kluck's First German Army. It was the French intention, after disposing of this German rearguard, to cross the Ourcq above Lizy and then advance eastward in the general direction of Chateau Thierry, thus getting in rear of von Kluck's main army, which was then massed below the Marne. Neither von Kluck nor the German high command as yet suspected the existence of a new French Army north of Paris.

The chosen battlefield west of the Ourcq presented the aspect of a broad level plateau, traversed by numerous small streams and dotted over with small villages, ending in an abrupt descent as it approached the river. The level monotony of the whole region is relieved by two forested heights, the Monthyon and Penchard hills, a mile or more in length, which rise near the confluence of the Ourcq and Marne Rivers, just north of Meaux. These heights, trenched throughout their length, and fairly bristling with machine guns, had been occupied in force by the German Reserve Corps. Von Marwitz's cavalry brigade was positioned further north. Strong German outposts held all the villages west of the Ourcq. The high east bank of the river, from Lizy to La Ferte Milon, was lined with German howitzers and fields guns of large caliber.

### **Germans Driven from the Hills**

THOUGH much exhausted, after their forced march from the eastern frontier, and lacking in artillery support, the French troops advanced confidently against the German foe, liberating scores of villages before noon. Barcy and Etrépilly were carried at the point of the bayonet by the French Reserves. Before evacuating, the Germans had deliberately set fire to all the villages and a heavy pall of smoke settled over the whole extent of the battlefield.

Advancing toward the Monthyon and Penchard hills, the French Zouaves encountered a hail of machine gun bullets, which took a heavy toll. Nevertheless, before night set in, the Germans had been driven from those fortified hills, recoiling towards the Ourcq valley. Meantime, further north, Gen. Sordet's French Cavalry brigade had

begun a flanking movement around the German right wing, compelling the German Uhlans to retire northward across the little Thourianne River in the direction of Antilly. Though the west bank of the Ourcq, between Meaux and Crouy, was now practically cleared of Germans, the French divisions could not yet cross the stream, since all the crossings were commanded by those ominous German howitzers emplaced on the Eastern bank.

### **Both Armies Re-inforced**

DISMAYED by the danger which threatened his flank, but which he still wrongly attributed to a sortie out of Paris, Gen. von Kluck on the 6th detached two full corps from his line below the Marne and sent them north to the relief of Gen. Gronau. The Second German Corps, commanded by Gen. von Linsingen, moved in two columns, one northwards across the Marne in the direction of Varedde, the other eastwards across the Ourcq at Lizy in the direction of Trocy. These columns quickly established a liaison with Gronau's Reserve Corps holding the line from Vincennes south to Varedde. The Fourth Regular German Corps, commanded by Gen. Sixt von Armin, went further north, crossing the Ourcq at Crouy and establishing a line from Antilly south to May-en-Multien, which placed them in a position to counterflank the French.

Gen. Maunoury's new army, meanwhile, had been gradually taking shape north of Paris. Two reserve divisions from the East, under Gen. Ebner, which had arrived at Pontoise on September 4th after an exhausting march, were ready to advance to Ablainville on the 6th. The 45th Algerian Division under Gen. Drude, although reporting at Dammartin on the 5th, did not enter the battle till the next day. Gen. Boelle's Fourth Corps was not fully detrained at Gagny until the 7th. Some eight or nine other battalions, chiefly Zouaves and Spahis, were expected at Paris on the 9th. So, as yet, Maunoury's available forces were outnumbered by the Germans.

### **The Holocaust on the Ourcq**

THE battle of the Ourcq widened on the second day, but in despite of their superiority



in numbers, the Germans were compelled to give ground everywhere. The French infantry fearlessly faced the terrific German artillery fire, winning village after village at the point of the bayonet. The slaughter on both sides was terrible. When night closed in on the scene, the whole landscape was lit with burning villages, farms and haystacks. By the light of these burning structures, the Germans built enormous pyres of wood and straw, saturated them with paraffin and cremated their dead on the battlefield. One of the special horrors of the battle was the burning alive of 1500 Germans who had been trapped in a sugar refinery which afterwards caught fire. Of the 1800 occupants, only 300 won their way to safety.

Gen. von Kluck, sensing his plight at last, tardily decided to carry out his orders from headquarters to protect the flank of the German line. On the evening of September 6th, he recalled from the Marne front the Third and Ninth Corps, which he had obligingly lent that very day to Gen. von Buelow's hard-pressed Second German Army on his left, ordering them to wheel about and proceed northward on the morrow as far as Mareine and Crouoy, cross the Ourcq River at those points and come into action on the right flank of the German army group commanded by Gen. von Armin north of Antilly. With these additions to his forces in the Ourcq area Gen. von Kluck would have 250,000 German infantry and 10,000 German cavalry, together with a tremendous assemblage of artillery to oppose Maunoury's army of 175,000 men.

### **Maunoury Is Pressed Back**

THE tide of battle turned with the arrival of the Third and Ninth German Corps in the Ourcq area. Maunoury's fatigued army, now hopelessly outnumbered and outgunned, had lost its chance of outflanking von Kluck. Instead of turning the German west flank, Maunoury's own west wing was now being pressed back and in danger of envelopment. To avert this fate, Maunoury ordered all the troops of the French Fourth Corps still available to hasten to the support of his left flank at Nanteuil-le-Haudoin. Obedient to his wishes, the entire Paris garrison force,

50,000 men, was packed into 10,000 motor-cars and despatched to him post haste. But before the arrival of this "Taxicab Army," at its destination, the situation had changed for the worse. Gen. von Quast, with two German infantry corps and a division of cavalry, already had bent back Maunoury's flank north of Antilly. An added misfortune was the arrival at Verberie that day of two fresh German divisions, one from Brussels, the other from the Maubeuge fortress which had just fallen. These new divisions co-operated with von Quast in a wide encircling movement against Maunoury's northern wing. Proceeding down the Nanteuil-Senlis road as far as Baron, it was their purpose to cut Maunoury's path of retreat towards Paris. With his flank thus threatened, Maunoury on the 8th began his retirement from Nanteuil to a line based on La Plessis-St. Soupplets-Monthyon, only a few miles above Paris.

Nevertheless, on the same day, Maunoury's "Taxicab Army" made a desperate attempt to break through the German front at Trocy, but the attack was repulsed.

### **Von Kluck's Army Ordered to Retreat**

ON September 9th, when Maunoury had all but lost hope and when the Paris garrison stood to arms expecting any moment to see the German foe, the situation underwent a sudden and startling change. Gen. von Kluck had received peremptory orders from the Supreme Command to break off the battle at once and retire northward as far as Soissons, in conformity with the retreat of von Buelow's army on his left which had already begun. Before daybreak of the 10th von Kluck's forces had departed. Let us now review the events which were taking place below the Marne during the battle on the Ourcq and which brought about this sudden retreat of the entire German right wing.

### **British Victory at Coulommiers**

VON KLUCK'S plunge across the Marne in pursuit of D'Esperey's Fifth French army had carried five corps of his army as far south as the Grand Morin River. Below that stream, and concealed behind the Forest of Crecy on a line extending from Rozoy to



Beton-Bazoches, lay the British Expeditionary Force, now increased to three full corps and well supported with cavalry and heavy artillery. Von Kluck seems to have been unaware of the close proximity of a reinforced British Army to his southern flank, but he was very soon to be enlightened. On the morning of the 6th, as already shown, von Kluck had withdrawn the Second and Fourth German Corps from the right of his line on the Grand Morin, sending them north to the relief of Gen. Gronau on the Ourcq and filling the gap so created with Gen. von Marwitz's Second Cavalry Corps. Apart from his cavalry, he now had but three corps at his disposal below the Marne. These troops were vainly endeavoring to turn the left flank of D'Esperey's line which extended from Courtacon east to Esternay.

The long awaited moment had arrived when the British forces, hidden in the woods to the west, could retaliate upon the foe! Emerging suddenly from the Forest of Crecy, Gen. Haig's First British Corps surprised and annihilated several squadrons of von Marwitz's cavalry, driving back the rest of the Huns towards Coulommiers, where von Kluck had established his headquarters. Advancing on Coulommiers before dawn on the next day, the British brought their heavy guns into play, shelling the Huns out of their headquarters. So sudden and furious was the British assault, that von Kluck himself and Prince Eitel, second son of the Kaiser, were interrupted in the midst of their morning repast, barely escaping in their pajamas to their motor cars. An intense artillery duel ensued throughout that day. Whole batteries of German cannon were smashed to pieces and the path of retreat was littered with broken gun carriages. Ten thousand casualties, mostly German, resulted from this brief and bloody engagement.

Continuing their pursuit of the Germans, the British on the 8th engaged the enemy at La Tretoire. The Germans struck back savagely at the British, but were swept by a hail of machine-gun bullets and forced to retreat across the Petit Morin, leaving behind them many dead and wounded, besides great stores of guns and ammunition.

### German Line in Confusion

MEANTIME, the German line to the East of von Kluck had fallen into confusion for a variety of reasons. In their blind plunge across the Marne the Germans had failed to detect either the hidden British Army on the left of D'Esperey's line or Gen. Foch's hidden French army on his right. Supposing D'Esperey's battered army to be wholly isolated, neither von Kluck nor von Buelow anticipated much difficulty in enveloping his flanks. Von Buelow experienced his first rude awakening when Gen. Foch, bringing his army into action on the 5th, had struck hard at the left of his line. Though von Buelow had the assistance of von Hausen's Army further East, the two together were still unequal to the task of overcoming Foch. Moreover, a part of von Buelow's Army was yet engaged with D'Esperey. Von Buelow was in fact so hard pressed on the 6th that he induced von Kluck to lend him two of his three remaining infantry corps, the Third and the Ninth. This left von Kluck with only one infantry corps and one cavalry corps at his disposal, since his second and Fourth Corps had gone north to the Ourcq that morning. He was soon to repent his generosity, for on that very day the observant Britishers successfully attacked his western flank, which was guarded only by von Marwitz' Cavalry Corps, and an urgent appeal had come to him to send additional reinforcements to the relief of his hard pressed forces on the Ourcq. Von Kluck that evening beseeched von Buelow to release his Third and Ninth Corps in order that they might go north to the Ourcq. Von Buelow consenting, the two Corps early next morning began their backward wheel. Their departure left a gap some 30 to 40 miles wide between von Kluck's and von Buelow's Armies.

### French Victory at Montmirail

INTO this gap, on the heels of the retiring German corps, Gen. D'Esperey sent two corps of his Fifth French Army. The French pursued von Kluck first across the Grand Morin River at LaFerte Gaucher and then across the Petit Morin at Montmirail. The battle at Montmirail was a desperate



encounter in which the French proved their superiority over the Germans, man for man.

### **The Retreat Across the Marne**

THE retirement of von Kluck from Montmirail had the effect of exposing the right wing of von Buelow's army. Both the French and the British pounded away at this flank, bending it back until envelopment seemed certain. A retreat was necessary if the whole army was to be saved. Von Buelow, accordingly, without permission from the high command, gave orders for a retreat across the Marne on 8th. This necessitated

the withdrawal of von Kluck's corps also. By clever maneuvering the battered remnants of the two German armies succeeded in escaping from the trap laid for them. Crossing the Marne on pontoons at Chateau Thierry and LaFere-sous-Jouarre, the Germans for a time held the French and British at bay on the banks of the stream, and at the same time reinforced Von Kluck's flank guard on the bank of the Ourcq, enabling the army engaged with Maunoury to break off the battle in that sector and withdraw on the 10th to the Aisne River.

## **Gen. Foch's Victory at Fere Champenoise**

French Ninth Army, 120,000

Corps of Fifth French Army, 40,000

Gen. Ferdinand Foch, Commander

Gen. Grosetti

Gen. Humbert

German Forces, 500,000

Gen. von Buelow's Army

Gen. von Hausen's Army

MEANWHILE, the Allied battle line, 150 miles long, had been sagging at its center, around Fere Champenoise, where the brunt of the German assault was borne by the Ninth French Army, commanded by Gen. Ferdinand Foch, destined to become generalissimo of all the Allied armies. Formed out of units from other French armies, the Ninth had not previously functioned in battle as a separate organization. Its formation had been completed on September 4, after the retreating British and French armies from Mons and Charleroi had reached the Marne.

On September 5, Gen. Foch was ordered to move his army back to a position on the line Sezanne-Fere Champenoise, between the armies of Gen. D'Esperey on his left and Gen. Langle de Carey on his right. The southern part of the terrain which the Ninth Army was assigned to defend is a country of low ridges and hills, traversed by innumerable water-courses flowing toward the Marne. Its northern part is occupied by the great marshes of St. Gond, an impassable morass whose eastern and western edges are penetrated by two military roads extending north and south.

This battlefield was historic ground. There Attila and his Huns made their camp 1500 years before. Near by, at Chalons, the Turks had met defeat. There, at Domremy,

Joan of Arc was born. And there, in 1814, Napoleon Bonaparte had won a decisive victory.

Pursuant to his orders to fall back, Gen. Foch directed the movement of the Ninth Army southward toward the River Aube. The Germans were now in close but slow pursuit. Von Buelow's Prussian Guards already had crossed the Petit Morin River, occupying the northern villages of the plateau of Sezanne on the western edge of the St. Gond marshes. Von Hausen's Saxon troops were skirting the western border of the St. Gond marshes in the direction of Fere Champenoise.

At midday, on September 5, Gen. Foch received the memorable order from Marshal Joffre to halt and prepare for a general counter-offensive at daylight on the morrow. Foch's army was ordered to cover the right wing of D'Esperey's Army on his left, to hold the debouches south of the marshes of St. Gond, and to post a part of the forces on the plateau north of Sezanne.

### **When Gen. Foch Didn't Follow Orders**

GEN. FOCH did not wait for the morrow before putting his army into action. Instead, at 3 p. m., on September 5, he ordered an attack on the German front. His left wing, in co-operation with D'Esperey's right, was to drive von Buelow's Prussian Guards from

the Sezanne Plateau and recover the high ground west of the marshes which Foch had vacated that morning under orders from Marshal Joffre. His center was to advance northward from Fere Champenoise in the direction of Vertus and expel von Hausen's Saxon troops from the high ground they occupied just north and east of the marshes.

On the French left, batteries were dragged swiftly up the slope of Mont Aout and the spur of Allemont, and thence to the high ground near the village of Mondement. The 42d Division, led by the fearless Gen. Grosetti, moved rapidly from Sezanne to the northeastern heights of the plateau; the eager Moroccan Division, with Gen. Humbert in the lead, reoccupied the villages of Broussay le Grand and Le Petit, and advanced to seize the adjacent roads; the Ninth Corps pushed forward through Bannes.

At 4 o'clock, on September 5, 17 hours before the Battle of the Marne had officially opened, Gen. Foch's batteries opened fire on the German advance west and north of the marshes. The German guns replied from the heights of Congy, from the plateau toward Charleville, and from the Gault woods.

Undeterred, the French infantry pressed forward; Grosetti's Division seized the St. Prix bridge over the Petit Morin River; the Moroccans, crossing the marshes to the northern side, drove the German detachments out of Joches and Corzard; the Ninth Corps captured the wooded hill of Toulon-la-Montagne, planting three batteries of 75's on its crest; and German outposts were driven out of the villages round about.

The French right wing, meantime, in its advance west of the marshes, had encountered no opposition. The Eleventh Corps had occupied the bank of the little Somme-Champenoise River from Ecurie-le-Repos to Semmesous. Aviators and cavalry scouts reported the near proximity of von Hausen's Saxon army, disposed along the upper Marne. The German outposts were stationed in the woods along the course of the River Soude, a few miles north of the Somme-Champenoise.

That night von Buelow's Prussian troops delivered a surprise attack on the French

left, expelling the Moroccans from the villages of Joches and Dorzard.

### Germans Hesitate to Attack Foch

At dawn on Sunday, September 6, the great Battle of the Marne opened officially all along the line from Paris to Verdun, except in the center, where Foch held sway. There, for an hour after sunrise, the Germans hesitated to advance.

On Foch's left, Grosetti's 42d Division was holding the northeastern heights of the Sezanne plateau in touch with the right wing of D'Esperey's Fifth French Army; next came Humbert's Moroccan Division, holding the south edge of the marsh hollow, with some detachments north of it; then came the 17th Division of the Ninth Corps, under Gen. Dubois, one brigade disposed about Toulon-la-Montagne, north of the St. Gond marshes, the other brigade holding the ground at their eastern end and about Morains le Petit; Gen. Eydout's Eleventh Corps carried the line southeast for some miles along the course of the Somme-Champenoise to Sommesous.

Here there was a break of ten miles, between Foch's right wing and the left of Gen. Langle de Carey's Fourth French Army, south of Vitry le Francois. This gap was thinly covered by Gen. De l'Espece's 9th cavalry division, comprising only 24 squadrons with 12 guns.

For a reserve, Gen. Foch had Gen. Bat-testi's 52d Division near Mont Aout and Gen. Joppe's 60th Division between Fere Champenoise and Sommesous. A considerable part of Foch's artillery had been massed on the height near his left and center.

All told, Foch had but eight slender divisions with which to oppose the greater part of two huge German armies. The Germans, moreover, were greatly superior in artillery, the hills on Foch's left fairly bristling with the enemy's long range guns.

### The Battle Begins

SHORTLY after 7 o'clock the French guns began to bark and spit on the left wing. Then, protected by the covering fire of the French batteries on the Toulon-la-Montagne, Dubois' Ninth Corps and Grosetti's 42d Division pushed forward to capture the Congy heights. Attack after attack was launched



against the Germans, but no ground was gained.

As the morning advanced, the enemy batteries from the curve of the Congy heights concentrated their fire on the Toulon-la-Montague, occupied by the French. By noon the village was in flames, the woods were reduced to splinters and the hilltop was wrapped in a pall of smoke and dust from the huge shells that burst in showers all over the ground.

The position being no longer tenable, the French withdrew. Their retirement from the heights was the signal for a furious attack by the Prussian Guards, supported by a storm of artillery fire beating down on the villages of the lower ground. The Moroccan troops, in their hazardous retreat along the narrow causeways of the marshes, were decimated by a deadly fire of shrapnel and high explosives.

West of the marshes, the Hanoverians retook the bridge of St. Prix and the adjacent hill. Most of the ground gained by the French in the direction of Charleville had to be abandoned. Grosetti's 42d Division, however, doggedly held on along the Sezanne road without losing touch with D'Esperrey's Tenth Corps on his flank. East of the marshes, a brigade of the Ninth Corps stopped the rush of the Prussian Guards at Morains le Petit, and a regiment of the same corps held on steadily at Auloray.

By late afternoon, the Germans had gained a footing south of the St. Gond marshes; their artillery had crowned the height of Toulon-la-Montague and their infantry had driven the Moroccans out of Corzard and Aunizeus. With the converging attack from these two directions, the Germans fought their way into Bannes, but the French clung to the southern exists of the village. West of Bannes, they held on to the villages of Brousy-le-Petit, supported by the artillery on Mont Aout and the Allement Spur.

#### Wide Gap in the French Line

EAST of the marshes, the situation was unchanged. The French still held the line along the Somme-Champenoise River. Beyond this, Eydoux's Eleventh Corps was defending a ten-mile front, with only 3000 men to the mile. And where that front ended, there

opened that wide gap of eleven miles between the two French armies, with only De l'Espece's Cavalry Division to cover it.

Fortunately, no serious attack developed on this flank during the day. Once only the German cavalry pressed forward toward the gap, but De l'Espece drove them back so promptly they did not care to repeat the performance.

On the third day of battle, September 7, D'Esperrey's right wing gave useful support to Foch's hard-pressed left by clearing the Gault woods of the enemy and joining with Grosetti's 42d Division in the counter-attacks toward Charleville. Humbert's Moroccans also assisted on the eastern heights of the plateau, where ground was lost and regained and lost again all through the day.

The rallying point for the French defense was Mondement Chateau, standing on a bold spur of the Sezanne Plateau, looking out northward over the wooded slopes that sink down to the marshes of St. Gond. The Germans, heavily reinforced, had gained possession of the villages on the margin of the marsh, north of the Mondement Spur. The position formed a sharp salient, projecting into the enemy's lines and subject to fire from three sides. German batteries sent plunging fire over the woods and into Mondement, but the French clung to the ground. Aulnay had to be abandoned, while Morains-le-Petit was in flames and no longer tenable. The Prussian Guards pressed forward and by nightfall held the firm ground at the eastern end of the marshes. A fourth advance might have endangered the left of the Breton Corps about Ecury-le-Repos.

#### The French Center Is Broken

MEANTIME, to the east of the marshes, von Hausen's Saxons were attacking the French line along the Somme-Champenoise River, but the Bretons held firm, repeatedly charging with the bayonet to check the rushes of the Saxons. Gen. Foch had sent in his reserves and directed that "the offensive should be vigorously maintained."

Before this order could be communicated to the troops, a crisis arose. In the darkness of the night, at 3 a. m., on Tuesday, September 8, von Hausen's army suddenly attacked



all along the line of the Somme, Normee was stormed and set ablaze, and the French garrison, after a hard fight amidst the burning houses, withdrew to the railway line beyond the river. At Lenharee, two companies held back an entire German column for fully an hour.

On the right of the line, Vaussimont, Haussimont, and Sommesous held out till some hours after daylight. The Eleventh Corps retreated in some disorder, but at the call of Foch they rallied along the railway line.

Coincident with this retreat, many of the peasantry, fleeing from Ecury and Normee, had poured into the artillery positions of the Ninth Corps, putting several of Gen. de Monssy's batteries out of action. At the same time the Prussian Guards attacked in front. The right of the line, in consequence, was compelled to fall back and form again for battle in the scattered woods between Mont Aout and Fere Champenoise.

Fere Champenoise, lying in a hollow, is commanded by the higher ground to the north and east of it. These heights were seized by the Prussian Guards and the Saxons.

### **Foch's Army Faces Destruction**

WITH Foch's center broken and the whole Ninth Army on the point of collapse, the Germans supposed the battle was won. But Foch was not defeated. He telegraphed to Marshal Joffre: "My center is broken; my right is giving way; the situation is excellent; I will attack immediately."

And attack he did. Sixty French guns, posted from the slopes of Mont Aout to the St. Sophie farm, bombarded the German positions about Fere Champenoise. Supported by their fire, Battesti's 52d Division attacked the Prussian Guards, preventing their gaining ground beyond the low ridge west of the town. Another French attack across the Bannes-Champenoise road toward the railway was stopped by a mile of German machine guns athwart the line of advance.

When night fell, the French right wing had fallen back to a line based on Corray-Gourganeon-Mailly. On the French left, Grosetti's 42d Division had scored heavily in a number of counter-attacks and was keeping in touch with the advance of D'Es-

perey's Fifth Army, which had reached Montmirail, the center resting on the Petit Morin. Humbert's Zouaves and Marines were clinging to the ground round about Mondement, which was now in flames from the rain of German shells that were falling.

### **Foch Discovers Weak Point in German Line**

It seemed as if Foch's army faced destruction, and in its fall it might involve the whole Allied line in ruin. The center was wavering and the right wing bent back at an angle. Only the left of the line held firm.

Challenging two huge German armies with a broken army, the strategical genius of Foch was put to the supreme test. He decided to risk all on one bold stroke. If he could pierce the enemy's line at its weakest point and strike one sudden, powerful, unexpected blow, he might be able to throw both German armies into confusion. Foch discovered that weak place in the enemy line. The two German armies while driving the French backward, had not preserved their alignment. Thus, von Buelow's Prussian Guards, having met with stiffer opposition on the part of the French left wing, had been held up just west of Fere Champenoise. Moreover, von Kluck's retreat near Paris was tending to draw von Buelow's line ever toward the west.

Von Hausen's Saxons on the other hand, had pressed the French center and right wing far to the south of Fere Champenoise, with the result that the Saxon right toward Corroy and Gourganeon was well south of the Prussian left on the ridges west of Fere Champenoise.

The two German armies were barely in contact and Foch had seen that the junction between them presented a vulnerable point of attack. Here the French battering ram could be driven home, the blow being aimed at von Hausen's flank.

But what troops could Foch spare for this enterprise? His reserves were all spent; his outnumbered troops, except on the left flank, were thinly holding the line.

He resolved, nevertheless, to create a reserve by withdrawing Grosetti's 42d Division from the line and employing it as a battering ram.



That night, September 8, Gen. Foch perfected his plans for the masterstroke of the war. Fortunately, the retreat of von Kluck enabled D'Esperey to spare one of his corps to strengthen Foch's left wing.

Gen. Foch ordered Grosetti to disengage his battalions and batteries from the line, re-form to the southeast on a new line between Linthes and Pleurs, then push forward, on September 9, between the Ninth and Eleventh Corps of the French army, and fall upon the flank of the Saxon army.

### Foch's Masterstroke at Fere Champenoise

THE order was duly carried out, but while Grosetti's Division was withdrawing and before D'Esperey had sent the promised reinforcements, a Hanoverian brigade was flung against Mondement, driving out the French. Luckily, reinforcements were at hand. Humbert's Moroccans, assisted by a regiment from Dubois' Ninth Corps and three of Grosetti's batteries, prevented the further advance of the Germans on this wing.

Meantime, on the center and right, the Germans were moving successfully. Eydoux's Eleventh Corps and De l'Espece's cavalry were steadily forced back. Still Grosetti had not arrived. Early in the afternoon the Ninth Corps gave ground in the center, the Prussian Guards advancing to Conantre, compelling the French to evacuate Mont Aout.

The broken French line was re-established from Mont Chalmont across the railway in front of Linthes and Pleurs, to keep in touch with the retiring Eleventh Corps, whose left was now near Fresnay. But the progress of the Saxon advance had made the fissure between von Hausen's right and von Buelow's left even more vulnerable than before.

And now Grosetti was arrived at the designated line with his 42d Division—Foch's battering ram. At a given signal, Grosetti led his troops between the two French corps and fell upon the Saxon flank. At the same time Foch ordered a general offensive all along the line. The Saxons and Prussians both were immediately thrown into confusion, and were forced steadily backward upon divergent lines of retreat. Grosetti drove the Saxons out of Conantre and Corray and got

into touch with the left of Eydoux's advance; one regiment of his division went forward that night in pursuit of the Saxons and at dawn the next day occupied Fere Champenoise, which the Saxons had evacuated in the night.

### Germans in Retreat

ON the left flank, Humbert's Moroccans renewed their attack on Mondement with reckless daring. After many desperate assaults had been repelled, Col. Letoguoi ran three guns close up to the wall of the fortress, breached it and stormed the gap thus made. The Prussians were driven out, after both combatants had suffered heavy losses.

D'Esperey's Corps, which he had loaned to Foch, meantime had advanced across the Petit Morin as far as Fromentieres and was pressing toward Baye on the end from St. Prix northward to Epernay.

The Prussians, fearing their direct line of retreat would be cut, hastily fell back by way of the narrow metaled roads across the St. Gond marshes. Everywhere the Prussians and the Saxons were in retreat. Gen. Foch had won a great victory—how great he did not realize till the morrow.

General Foch that night ordered the resumption of the offensive before daylight on September 10, D'Esperey's Tenth Corps was to attack north of the marshes of St. Gond, in the direction of Bergeres-lez-Vertus, against the enemy's northern line of retreat. General Dubois, with his Ninth Corps, was to advance between the east end of the marshes and the Fere Champenoise-Vitry railway. General Grosetti's 42d Division was to advance through Fere Champenoise. General Eydoux's Eleventh Corps was to push through Envy toward Lenhares. General De l'Espece's Cavalry Division was to protect the right of the advance and keep in touch by patrols with the left of the Third Army, which was moving on Vitry-le-Francois.

The Saxons, though beaten, were far from demoralized. A large part of von Hausen's army was imprisoned in a deep salient pointing south, with Foch's army on one side and Langle de Carey's army on the other, threatening it with envelopment. But under cover of darkness the remnant of this Saxon army

was safely withdrawn. The Prussians, too, made good their retreat, and both armies finally reached the new line on the Aisne.

This brilliant victory of Gen. Foch compelled the retreat of all the German forces in France to the new line on the Aisne. The Battle of the Marne had been won by an army outnumbered three to one, and which had been all but enveloped a few hours before. As a result of this victory, Foch was proclaimed "the master strategist of Europe."

### Flight of the Huns to the Aisne

THE armies of Gen. von Hausen and the Duke of Wurttemberg had been pounding hard against Gen. Langle de Carey. After the victory at the St. Gond marshes, Foch came to the rescue of Gen. de Carey. General Hausen's Saxons were driven in wild disorder across the Marne and that unfortunate commander subsequently was retired in disgrace.

Everywhere the Huns were in retreat. By masterly generalship, von Kluck escaped from the double pressure of Gen. D'Esperey's French army and Gen. French's British army, bringing his forces practically intact

to the new position on the line of the Aisne River.

### Crown Prince Close to Victory at Troyon

THE sole dubious success achieved by German arms during the entire campaign of the Marne was that of the army nominally commanded by the Crown Prince Frederick William of Prussia. This army, 350,000 strong, had attacked fort Troyon, defended by Gen. Sarrail with a garrison of 80,000 men.

The heavy German siege guns had reduced the fort to a heap of ruins, and Gen. Sarrail's slim forces were in extremis when the general German retreat from the Marne compelled the Crown Prince to relinquish his offensive and turn tail. Had Troyon fallen, the way to Verdun would have been opened and the whole course of the war might have been changed. Foch's decisive victory therefore saved France and Europe.

### 300,000 Slain or Wounded

No official report on the losses of both armies in the Battle of the Marne has ever been published. Unofficial estimation places the number of the slain and wounded at 300,000, the losses of the two combatant forces being about equal.

WESTERN THEATER, SEPT. 10-15

## German Armies Retreat to the Aisne River and Burrow In

Allies Thwart German Plan to Extend Their Line Across France to the Sea

SECTION 9—1914

#### Allied Forces, 1,500,000

Gen. Joffre, Commander-in-Chief

#### French Army Commanders:

Gen. Foch  
Gen. Castelnau  
Gen. D'Esperey  
Gen. Sarrail  
Gen. Langle de Carey  
Gen. Dubail  
Gen. Maud'huy  
Gen. D'Amade  
Gen. D'Urbal

#### British Corps Commanders

Gen. Sir John French, Commander-in-Chief  
Gen. Sir Douglas Haig  
Gen. Sir Smith-Dorrien  
Gen. Pulteney  
Gen. Allenby (cavalry)

#### German Forces, 2,000,000

Gen. Falkenhayn, Chief-of-Staff  
Gen. von Kluck  
Gen. von Buelow  
Gen. von Heeringen  
Gen. von Einem  
Gen. von Strantz  
Prince Rupprecht of Bavaria  
Duke of Wurttemberg  
Crown Prince of Prussia  
Gen. von Zwehl

**R**ETREATING from the Marne, the whipped Huns had fallen back on a strongly fortified line just north of the Aisne and Suippe rivers, with their right wing resting on the Oise at Compeigne and

their left on the Meuse near Verdun, presenting a front of 120 miles.

They occupied the crest of the Craonne Plateau, which rises sharply to an average height of 400 feet, some two miles back from



the Aisne, and extending east from Compeigne, a distance of thirty miles. With characteristic foresight, the German engineers had constructed an elaborate system of trenches along the crest of this plateau during their pursuit of the Allies to the Marne.

At intervals along the plateau front were placed the heavy howitzers and cannons intended to be used in the siege of Paris and which now commanded all the river crossings. In addition to this formidable natural fortress, the Germans had constructed a labyrinth of trenches in the Aisne quarries near Soissons, which had come under German control some five years before.

There were miles of galleries and subterranean passages running through the quarries, enabling the Germans to conduct their operations with secrecy and safety.

On September 12, 1914, the day the retreating German armies made their escape across the Aisne, von Kluck's army held the western end of the line, with his right resting on Compeigne. Opposing him were the armies of Gen. Manoury, Gen. French, and Gen. D'Esperey. East of von Kluck's position and to the north of Rheims, were the German armies of von Buelow and von Hausen, facing Gen. Foch.

Farther east, in northern Champagne, the Duke of Wurttemberg's army confronted the forces of Langle de Carey. Above Verdun, the Crown Prince of Prussia was pressed by Gen. Sarraill. Linked with Sarraill by the forts of the Meuse, the army of Gen. de Castelnau was fronting the army of Crown Prince Rupprecht of Bavaria. Beyond them, in the Vosges, the armies of Gen. Dubail and Gen. Heeringen were opposed.

#### **Turning German Flank at Compeigne**

To prevent the extension of the German line westward from Verdun to the sea, Gen. Manoury's left wing had been advanced north of Compeigne, thus flanking von Kluck. At the same time a general frontal attack was begun along the whole line from Compeigne to Verdun, a distance of 120 miles. This attack was ushered in by an artillery duel of great intensity in which the heavier German guns proved their superiority.

From the commanding heights of the plateau, von Kluck's howitzers swept all the

river crossings with a hurricane of shells. It seemed as though a sparrow could not survive the ordeal of fire, yet the dauntless Allies faced that roaring inferno without fear, and laid their pontoons and rafts preparatory to crossing the Aisne River.

With an intrepidity beyond all praise, the French poilus, under Manoury and D'Esperey, and the British Tommies, under Sir John French, succeeded in crossing in a dozen places between Compeigne and Soissons, and attacking vigorously up to the very edges of the plateau. Indeed, the French Zouaves advanced up the deep cleft of Morsaim, through St. Christophe, and seized the villages of Autrechtes and Nouvron on the continuing spurs.

Before daylight of September 14, Manoury's advance had reached far up the slopes within sight of the German trenches, but further it could not go.

#### **The Battle for Chemin-des-Dames**

AT daybreak, on the 14th, a British corps, under Sir Douglas Haig, who subsequently became commander-in-chief of all the British armies, stormed a section of the heights between Chavonne and Moulins, hoping to gain the Chemin-des-Dames ("Ladies' Road"), commanding the southern plateau from Soissons to Berry-an-Bac. Though they failed to reach their objective, owing to the fury of the German fire, they did secure an intrenched position on the plateau itself, within sight of the enemy's trenches, capturing 600 prisoners, 12 field guns and many machine guns.

#### **Soissons Reduced to Ruins**

THE Germans, in a series of violent counter-attacks on the 15th, drove the French out of their posts on the crests of the spurs, recaptured Autrechtes, and expelled the French from the Morsaim ravine and the spur of Nouvron. Before sunrise the next day the French had fallen back to the bank of the Aisne. The Huns followed up this success by shelling Soissons, and did not desist until the town was reduced to ruins.

Reinforcements were rushed to Gen. Manoury and he in turn counter-attacked on the 17th, driving the Germans back from the edge of the plateau to their main position

behind Nampcel, clearing them out of the quarries of Autrechies, where their batteries had caused such deadly havoc, and winning back all the evacuated ground.

### Germans Shell Rheims

FURTHER to the east, D'Esperey's French Army was assaulting in vain the German positions on the Craonne Plateau, while Foch's small army had fallen back from the Suippe River to a point outside Rheims, under pressure of von Buelow's and von Hausen's combined attack. In pursuit of Foch, the two German armies won the heights of Briamont, only five miles from Rheims, and the hill of Nogent l'Abbesse on the east.

From these hills, on September 10, the Germans began a ruthless ten days' bombardment of Rheims. This bombardment, while serving no military ends, resulted in the partial destruction of the incomparable Rheims Cathedral and the ruin of a great part of the historic city.

All Christendom was shocked by the needless bombardment of Rheims, and indignation grew when it was learned that the pagan Huns had made a special target of the Cathedral, the most beautiful edifice in Europe, as though they intended destroying all Christian evidences before restoring their sacrificial altars to Odin and Thor.

The bombardment of Rheims, which began on September 10, reached the climax of its intensity on the 18th, when the town was set on fire in many places; blocks of buildings were completely demolished and many inhabitants killed.

### The Race for the Sea

It was now apparent that any further frontal assaults on the German line must prove futile. The Germans not only occupied an impregnable position, but in numbers and in gun-power they held the advantage.

So elated were the Germans at their success in holding the Allies at the Aisne, that they were emboldened to renew their original plan of extending their line westward to the sea.

General Joffre, divining this intention, had taken steps to forestall it. While Manoury's

army was pushing northward about Compeigne on von Kluck's right flank, Gen. Joffre had ordered the armies of Generals Castelnau and Maud'huy to transfer from the Eastern frontier and assist in his flanking movement.

Moving with great secrecy, the army of Gen. Castelnau, on September 20, came into position on the left of Gen. Manoury, thus extending the Allied line northward from Compeigne to Peronne. Ten days later, Gen. Maud'huy's new army had arrived and the Allied line was extended still farther north to Lens and Arras, within sight of the Belgian frontier. By this time the German right flank, instead of extending westward, had been bent back sharply from its apex at Compeigne in the shape of a gigantic L.

If it could be pressed back a trifle more, the Allies would be in possession of the Oise railway, the main line of German communications, compelling a general retirement across the French frontier. Or, if the French flanking movement could be carried farther north, the Allies would be enabled to relieve the Belgian garrison at Antwerp, then in great peril. On the other hand, should Antwerp be surrendered before the Allies had completed their flanking movement, nothing could prevent the German besieging army from advancing through Belgium to the capture of the channel ports.

To be the first to reach the Belgian sea-coast was now the aim of the rival armies. Their struggle to attain the objective is known in history as "The Race to the Sea." Even as Gen. Joffre had used two new armies in lengthening his line northward and turning the German flank, so the Germans had transferred two armies to the bent wing of their line—von Buelow's Prussian Guards taking their position just north of von Kluck, while the Duke of Wurttemberg's Bavarians held the extreme right of the line. These two armies represented the flower of the German troops, as their generals were the most distinguished among the German commanders.

### British Army Transferred to Flanders

THE British army, then in position south of the Aisne and far from its base, was trans-



ferred to the north of the line in Flanders, where it could establish a new base, save Lille from hostile occupation, assist in the relief of Antwerp, and finally defend the channel ports.

Another new French army, under Gen. D'Urbal, was also hastened north to support the left of the line. The operations of the Allies, north of Noyon, were now intrusted to the supreme command of Gen. Ferdinand

Foch, whose brilliant generalship had marked him as the greatest strategist the war had produced. Under his direction the Allies won the race to the sea, but the narrative of the bloody engagements that ensued in Flanders, is reserved for another chapter dealing with the Battle of Ypres, on Page 102. During the Race to the Sea the Allied and German losses were each 25,000.

WESTERN THEATER, AUG. 31—SEPT. 6

## 200,000 Germans Fall in the Terrible Battle of Nancy

100,000 French Defeat 350,000 Germans at the Grand Couronne

SECTION 10—1914

French Forces, 100,000  
Gen. de Castelnau

German Forces, 350,000  
Kaiser Wilhelm, in person  
Crown Prince Rupprecht  
Duke of Wurttemberg  
Gen. Heeringen

ON the same day von Kluck swerved his German army to the east of Paris (August 31), preparatory to striking the Allies' line on the Marne, a tremendous battle was begun on the Lorraine border at Nancy, 150 miles away. The German high command had massed at this point 350,000 picked troops, expecting to break through the Gap of Mirecourt into France and take the Allies in the rear while von Kluck and von Buelow were attacking them in front.

The combined German armies were commanded by Crown Prince Rupprecht of Bavaria, the Duke of Wurttemberg, and Gen. Heeringen, the victor of Morhange. Opposed to them was a French army of only 100,000, commanded by Gen. de Castelnau. The German artillery outranged the French guns. With heavy siege guns, brought from Metz, it was intended to blow Nancy and the Grand Couronne into oblivion and conquer France at a single blow.

The Kaiser himself came from Metz to view the battle, arrayed as an Asiatic conqueror, and confident of victory. But instead of a victory he witnessed the disgraceful defeat of his choicest troops by a foe whom they outnumbered nearly four to one.

In a certain sense, the Battle of Nancy may be regarded as the prelude to the Battle

of the Marne. Indeed, Castelnau's victory at Nancy made possible the triumph of Joffre and Foch at the Marne. Had the Germans broken through the Gap of Mirecourt, all France would have been at their mercy.

The battle was fought along a front of 25 miles, the dominant feature of which was a long wooded range of hills, called the Grand Couronne. To control this height, the Germans needed but to capture its extreme points—the hill of St. Genevieve to the north and the plateau of Amance to the south.

St. Genevieve commanded the right bank of the Moselle, which runs almost due north from Nancy to Metz, while the Amance plateau commanded the direct road from Salzburg to Nancy, through the forest of Champenoux. Through these valleys the German barbarians, for ages past, have ever sought to penetrate into the smiling plains of France.

With the hill of St. Genevieve, 1200 feet in height, as their objective, the Germans advanced in two columns along either bank of the Moselle River, and after occupying the neighboring villages and forests, bombarded the village of St. Genevieve with their heavy siege guns. Every habitation was blown into fragments. A single French battalion defended this hill against the repeated attacks

in mass formation of German infantry. When the Germans retired, defeated, the slopes of the Grand Couronne were heaped with their slain.

At the other extremity of the Grand Couronne, the plateau of Amance, the Germans wasted 40,000 high explosive shells in a vain effort to expel the French defenders. The whole plateau was riddled until it resembled "a gigantic Bruyere cheese." Yet so well concealed and protected were the French gunners that only 20 of them were killed. On the other hand, the French 75's rained down their torrents of melinite on the masses of Germans in the plains below, taking a heavy toll of death.

The battle was extended to other areas of the sector. Many villages were destroyed and great loss of life resulted.

The Germans launched their general attack on the Grand Couronne, September 6, in masses of 50,000 soldiers at a time, with bands playing and flags flying. But they never reached the top of the hill. Time after

time that day the huge mass formation advanced up the hillside, only to melt away under the fire of the French 75-centimeter guns, or to be charged with the bayonets of the "Ironsides" of France, who by their valor on that bloody day made possible the Allied victory in the Battle of the Marne.

Five days more the slaughter of Germans continued, and then the Kaiser slunk back to Metz, with the full knowledge that France and Britain were not to be overcome. For he had meanwhile heard of von Kluck's retreat at the Marne and knew that his Prussian hordes were doomed to ultimate defeat. The slaughter of Huns in this second Battle of Nancy was beyond belief—at least 200,000 Germans fell—and the disaster to German arms was effected by a mere handful of men, the remnants of that brave French army which had been defeated at Morhange only a few weeks before.

This triumph at Nancy was, in fact, a phase of the decisive Battle of the Marne, which is described on Page 65.

WESTERN THEATER, SEPT. 20—OCT. 3

## Crown Prince Launches His First Terrific Attack on Verdun

Fort Troyon Reduced to Ashes. 500,000 Huns Repulsed by 160,000 French

SECTION 11—1914

French Forces, 160,000

Gen. Sarrail  
Gen. Dubail

German Forces, 500,000

Crown Prince of Prussia  
Gen. von Strautz

**W**HILE the "Race to the Sea" was progressing further west, Verdun on the Eastern frontier of France was the scene of terrific battles. It will be recalled that, during the Battle of the Marne, and on the very eve of the German retreat, the Crown Prince of Prussia had reduced Fort Troyon and almost taken Verdun. During the general German retreat his army had fallen back to the pass of Grand Pre. This withdrawal enabled Gen. Sarrail to clear the town of 7000 German civilians and fortify every height within a radius of 20 miles of Verdun.

Coupling up with the army of the Crown Prince, in the Woevre district, was a new German army, commanded by Gen. von Strautz. Together, they numbered 350,000

first line troops, with several corps held in reserve, an effective force of perhaps 500,000 rifles. To meet the onslaughts of this great army, Gen. Sarrail could count on only four army corps—160,000 men.

Returning to the assault on Fort Troyon, on September 20, the combined armies of the Crown Prince and von Strautz reduced the fort to a dust heap, but the garrison nevertheless held out until relieved by Generals Sarrail and Dubail. All advances of the German infantry were repulsed by the French gunners on the nearby fortified heights.

Hoping to take Verdun by an attack in rear through the little town of St. Mihiel, the Germans advanced in full force on September 23, occupied the Hatton-Chatte spur,



silenced the small fort of Paroches, destroyed the Roman Camp, and seized the bridgehead of St. Mihiel on the west bank of the Meuse. They had hoped to push due west to Revigny and complete the envelopment of Sarrail's Army, but the dauntless French would not let them pass. A French cavalry detachment drove them back, compelling them to entrench on the edge of the river.

A last desperate effort to pierce the French center was made on October 3. With the odds three to one in his favor, and with superior artillery, the Crown Prince attempted a turning movement through the woods of the Argonne against St. Menehold, but the

French fell savagely upon his army and drove the Prussians back north of Varennes, capturing that town and gaining the road across the Argonne, which brought them in touch with Langle de Carey's army.

By this great victory, the French straightened their line, which now ran from Verdun due west to Souain and then along the Roman road to Rheims.

The Germans, however, held the salient at St. Mihiel and continued to hold it until Gen. Pershing's Yankee Boys "ironed it out," in September, 1918. A stalemate now set in on the eastern end of the battle line, while the great battles in Flanders were being fought.

WESTERN THEATER, AUG. 9—SEPT. 28

## Russia Grapples with Germany and Austria on 1000-Mile Front

Russian Army Betrayed and Destroyed in the Terrible Battle of Tannenberg.

Germans Soon Afterward Crushinglly Defeated in the Battle of Augustowa.

SECTION 12—1914

### Russian Forces, 500,000

Grand Duke Nicholas, Generalissimo  
Army of the Niemen, Gen. Samsonoff  
Army of the Narew, Gen. Rennenkampf  
Cavalry Corps, Gen. Basil Gurko

### German Forces, 500,000

Gen. von Hindenberg, Commander  
Gen. von Francois  
Gen. von Morgen  
Gen. von der Goltz

LET us now scan the flaming arena of war in the East, where Russia has been grappling single-handed with her most puissant foes, Prussia and Austria, along a battle line 1000 miles in extent, reaching from the Baltic Sea southward to the farthest passes of the Carpathians.

When the war-clouds broke over Europe in July, civil discontent was rife in Russia, and anxious observers believed that the country was on the verge of another internal upheaval. There were many strikes in progress in Petrograd and in other Russian cities when the hour of conflict came and the masses of the people were stirred with a vast unrest.

These surface symptoms were disregarded by the Russian social leaders, as they poured out of the cities for the holidays, all unmindful of the gathering war-clouds. They did not, however, go unnoticed in Berlin. There it was believed the war already determined upon would find Russia rent asunder by civil strife.

The Germans, nevertheless, had failed to understand the psychology of the Russian people, just as they had failed to interpret the moods of other nations around them.

When the fateful day arrived, the strikes at Petrograd vanished in a night, and the once-hated Cossacks, who had been brought into the city to preserve order in the Nevsky Prospekt, found themselves acclaimed by the people.

From the farthest confines of the empire, day by day, came interminable trainloads of men eager to give their lives for the Czar. Immense crowds knelt in front of the Winter Palace, chanting the majestic and solemn strains of the Russian National Anthem.

The war had brought a solidarity to the Russian nation such as it never had known before. For the first time in a century, a Czar of Russia looked out upon a nation one and indivisible, upon a people burning with zeal to take up the burden of a war which appealed more strongly to them than any campaign in which Russia had ever engaged.



### Prohibition of Liquor Traffic

ONE of the first fruits of the moral awakening which Russia experienced in those epochal days was the entire prohibition of the liquor traffic. The Czar's imperative ukase, prohibiting the manufacture or sale of vodka, was accepted by nearly 200,000,000 people without a murmur and was regarded as a symbol of the transformation which the country had undergone. The loss in revenue sustained by the Empire by reason of the ban on vodka amounted to \$400,000,000 a year, but all agreed that it was worth the price because of the increased efficiency it produced.

At first the Czar's decree only applied during mobilization, but it was extended for the duration of the war. The result was magical. From the Baltic to the Pacific, not a public house was open, and the order was rigidly enforced to the letter. Prohibition was accepted patiently and without complaint by the entire population. Rioting and dissipation were things of the past, both at the battle front and in the capital. Such was the grave and earnest mood in which Russia braced herself for her tremendous task.

### Russia's Military Establishment in 1914

IN the decade following the war with Japan, the Russian military establishment had been reorganized along modern scientific lines under the direction of Grand Duke Nicholas, the commander-in-chief of all the armies. A great general staff was organized on the German model. Numerous schools for the training of officers were opened, including an aviation school at Sebastopol. High-born incompetents were removed from important commands and their places taken by able professional soldiers like Russky, Alexeieff, and Brusiloff. The artillery arm was improved and enlarged; the infantry soldier was thoroughly trained in marksmanship and skirmish combat; the antiquated Cossack cavalry tactics were modified.

The Russian regular army, in 1914, comprised approximately 1,000,000 men, supported by a trained reserve arranged in yearly classes of 400,000 each, with a total personnel numbering 4,000,000. To supplement the regulars and reserves there could

be drawn great levies, to the number of 20,000,000 perhaps, from a population of 185,000,000.

In two important particulars, however, the army was still deficient—the services of supply and transport. The government arsenals and factories—controlled as they were by grafters and traitors—lamentably failed to produce the quantities of arms and munitions found necessary in carrying on a protracted war with a first-class power.

The army was particularly short of big gun ammunition. All the perplexities and obscurities of the early months of the Russian campaign turned upon the difficulty of converting mobilized men into efficient combatants, clothed in uniforms, furnished with rifles and munitions and ready to fight.

The lack of material and not the fighting qualities of her troops, was the chief explanation of such reverses as Russia occasionally encountered in the earlier stages of the campaign. A shortage of the means of waging war lay at the back of all her movements, and the knowledge gnawed at the hearts of her commanders.

### Russian Traitors Seated with the Mighty

THESE deficiencies were laid at the doors of traitors within the gates; some occupying the seats of the mighty, close to the throne; others in the Ministry of War; some in the Duma; still some others in high financial and commercial spheres.

These traitors were all-powerful; they could name the generals of the army; could control the ammunition and food supplies; could intercept the secret codes used by the Russian army chiefs. Some of them, though of German birth, were put in command of Russian armies. Through their machinations, Russia had been left naked to her enemies along a great extent of her frontier.

The Polish salient, whose apex pointed westward to within 180 miles of Berlin, had been stripped bare of its fortresses, the old fortified triangle of Warsaw, Novogeorgievsk, and Zegrje having been dismantled after the Russo-Japan war and no substitute defences having been provided.

In July, after Prussia and Austria had secretly decided upon war, the Russian Min-



istry of War ordered the transfer of all the Russian troops guarding the frontiers in the Odessa, Kiev, Petrograd, and Kozan districts to the summer training camps hundreds of miles inland. Those frontiers, therefore, were left unguarded at a critical time when common military prudence would have dictated the retention of the frontier troops.

It is not surprising that the Minister of War, Sukhomlinoff, two of the German-Russian generals, and other culprits were subsequently court-martialed on suspicion of treason.

They had also prevented the development of an inadequate transportation system in Russia. Though Gen. Kuropatkin, 15 years before, had pointed out the necessity for improvements in military communications, no action was taken until 1913, when the army reorganization bill went into effect. This scheme provided for an excellent system of strategic railroads along the German and Austrian borders, but at the outbreak of the war there had been completed only five lines leading to the west and four to the southwest frontier.

Offsetting these the Germans had seventeen and the Austrians eight strategic lines of railroad. More than any other cause, it was the lack of adequate transportation facilities that spelled the doom of the Russian army.

### First Mobilization of Troops

RUSSIA'S eyes were first opened to the inevitability of war on June 24, when Austria began to move eight army corps toward the Serbian frontier. Orders were at once issued to the Russian troops scattered in the far interior of Siberia to return to their winter quarters and undergo "preparatory mobilization" at midnight of July 29. Austria counter-moved by mobilizing all her armies.

Russia thereupon ordered the general mobilization of her armies at midnight of July 30. Germany at once declared war against Russia, but prior to her declaration of war she had mobilized her entire first-line army and all her fleet.

Germany, having twelve railroads for every one possessed by Russia, and with much shorter distances to cover, was able to com-

plete her mobilization in less time. Many of the Russian troops had to be transported from the Volga, 1000 miles inland. Despite these handicaps, however, the Russians were able to place 1,200,000 soldiers in line by August 9.

Austria meantime had concentrated 1,250,000 troops north of the Carpathians, under command of Archduke Ferdinand, and the Germans had 250,000 troops in East Prussia, soon to be reinforced by four army corps and commanded by Gen. Paul von Hindenberg.

The supreme command of the Russian armies was vested in Grand Duke Nicholas, uncle of the Czar, but the War Ministry retained the right to name other generals in the army and to control the supplies of ammunition. We shall see how this arrangement led to Russian disaster in the field, due to treachery of the basest description.

### Longest Battle Line in History

A BRIEF survey of the 1000-mile battle line, the longest in recorded history, may assist the reader in visualizing the campaigns that are to be described. The northern part of the line separates Baltic Russia from East Prussia.

On the Russian side, the armies fought amidst innumerable marshes and lagoons, pierced by six great rivers which had to be crossed and recrossed as the tide of battle ebbed or flowed. Through the mire of this region the heaviest guns could not be moved, neither could trenches be connected because of the water seepage.

The fighting in this area was confined principally to infantry engagements in the open. From Riga, the chief city of Baltic Russia, southward to the fortress of Rovno, there ran a continuous line of railroad, which it was vitally necessary the Russians should hold.

On the Prussian side, a short distance across the frontier, lay the vast stretch of morass and swamp land known as the Mazurian Lake region, 60 miles long and practically impassable. Behind this natural barrier lay the German armies, with the guns of the fortified city of Königsberg and of the German fleet in the offing as additional protection. To reach the German stronghold,



the Russians had to skirt the Mazurian lakes on their northern and southern sides.

In the central part of the battle line, where the wedge-shaped Polish salient projected 250 miles into Germany, lay the weakest link in the Russian chain, since it was open to simultaneous attacks from the north by Prussia and from the south by Austria. It would be impolitic for the Russian forces to guard the frontier of this salient, stripped as it was of its fortresses, for they might be crushed between the German and Austrian pincers.

The capital, Warsaw, which is situated in the heart of the salient, was therefore left open to invasion on three sides. In order to protect Warsaw, the Russians had built a chain of forts along the line of the Vistula River, extending from Ivangorod, on the south, to Kovno, in the far north, the principal fortresses being located at Ostrolenka, Ossowiec, and Augustowa.

Though strong at the northern end, the line of forts was vulnerable at the southern end, and might be turned by a flank attack out of Galicia at a point east of Ivangorod and Warsaw. This, in fact, is what the Austrians repeatedly attempted to do.

Russia's chief line of resistance at the center of the battle line was rather the wilderness of swamps and bogs lying east of the Polish salient and known variously as the Pripet or Pinsk marshes. These interminable marshes, covering 30,000 square miles of territory, are absolutely impassable except for a few quaking roads, and a single line of railway connecting Kiev and Brest-Litovsk.

The southern section of the 1000-mile battle line was bounded by the great Carpathian range of mountains, separating Russia from Austria, Poland, Galicia, and Bukownia. These mountains, whose peaks reach a height of 8000 feet, form a continuous barrier 800 miles long and nearly 250 miles wide.

There are ten principal passes over the Carpathians, some leading into Galicia, others into the plains of Hungary. It was over these passes that the Huns of an earlier day poured when they sought the overthrow of the Roman empire. Here were fought some of the most terrific battles of the World War.

### Strategic Plans of Opposing Armies

THE Russian strategy had for its final objective the capture of Berlin, lying 180 miles due west of the frontier of Russian Poland. The shortest and easiest route to the German capital lay through the provinces of Posen and East Prussia, whose inhabitants, being largely Poles, and therefore kin to the Russians, would not be likely to offer any serious resistance.

Before advancing westward toward Berlin, it was necessary that the flank of the Russian army of invasion should be protected against attacks by the Germans out of East Prussia on the north and by the Austrians out of Galicia on the south.

Even in the improbable event that the Russian army, on its march toward Berlin, were not attacked in the flank by the Germans and the Austrians, the frontiers of Russia nevertheless would be left open to invasion by the enemy. Hence, common prudence whispered that the Russians must first conquer East Prussia and Galicia before proceeding to the conquest of Germany.

It was accordingly decided to mobilize all the Russian forces on the line of the fortresses east of Warsaw, and from this base send forth groups of armies, for the simultaneous invasion of East Prussia and Galicia.

Austria, being the first to mobilize her army of 1,250,000, and greatly excelling in heavy artillery, decided to strike the Russians a blow in western Poland before they could completely mobilize their forces. By so doing, she hoped to cripple the Russians at the start, and prevent their invasion of Galicia. This strategy, as we shall see, was upset by Russia's speedy mobilization.

Germany's strategic plan concealed a two-fold purpose. While the Austrians were cutting the Warsaw salient from the south, the Germans would attempt to cut the salient from the northwest, before the Russian mobilization had been effected.

If, however, the Russians should invade East Prussia before this movement could be well inaugurated, the Germans would lure the Czar's forces on to destruction in a trap already set for them in the treacherous morasses of the vast Mazurian lake region.



## Two Russian Armies Invade East Prussia

### Russian Northwest Forces, 450,000

Gen. Gilinsky, Commander-in-Chief  
 First Army—Gen. Rennenkampf, Commander  
   Gen. Pflug  
   Gen. Ratkevitch  
   Gen. Niloff  
   Gen. Meeshtchenko  
   Gen. Gurko (Cavalry)  
 Second Army—Gen. Samsonoff, Commander  
   Gen. Postovski  
   Gen. Martson

CONTRARY to all expectations, the Russian armies were the first to strike an effective blow. Their mobilization was a miracle of celerity, enabling them, early in August, to take the initiative. Accordingly, while the Russian armies of the south were preparing to invade Galicia as a means of defending their left flank against Austrian assault, the armies of the north were advancing from two directions toward the East Prussian frontiers to protect their right flank.

The first Russian army of 200,000 men was commanded by Gen. Rennenkampf, a German-born officer, who had distinguished himself in everything save morality during an army service of 40 years.

The second Prussian army, numbering 250,000 men, was commanded by Gen. Samsonoff, a brilliant, if rash, tactician. The supreme control of these northwestern armies was vested in Gen. Gilinsky, a figure-head selected for a purpose by Gen. Sukhomlinoff, the Russian Minister of War, who was subsequently court-martialed on suspicion of treason.

The chief objective of the Russian armies was the fortified city of Königsberg, on the Baltic coast, then garrisoned by 100,000 men, under command of Gen. von Francois, a Germanized Huguenot. Königsberg was otherwise defended by 1200 heavy guns, a girdle of 15 forts, and the guns of the German fleet that lay off shore.

Between the Russian frontier and Königsberg there spread a vast extent of lake and swamp land, some 90 miles in length and 60 in depth, known as the Mazurian lake region. Only a few lines of railroad traverse the edges of this forbidden region, whose quaking interior is as mysterious and impenetrable as Thibet.

### German Forces, 500,000

Gen. von Hindenberg, Commander-in-Chief  
 Gen. von Francois  
 Gen. von Morgen  
 Gen. von der Goltz  
 Gen. von Scholtz  
 Gen. von Muehlmann

The two Russian commanders were ordered to advance to the frontiers, organize their lines in the rear, and then boldly advance into East Prussia, encircling the Mazurian lakes. Rennenkampf's army was to push westward from Kovno on the Niemen River, and then skirt the Mazurian lakes on the north, while Samsonoff's army pushed northward out of Poland, skirting the lakes on the southern end.

### Russian Armies Invade East Prussia

GENERAL Samsonoff, upon arriving at the Polish-Prussian frontier, halted his advance in order to organize his lines in the rear as directed. General Rennenkampf, on the contrary, chose to disobey his express orders. His cavalry advance reached the frontier on August 3, but instead of waiting to organize his line in the rear, Rennenkampf decided to take the offensive, without notifying Samsonoff of his independent action.

A cavalry division, commanded by Gen. Gurko, after a clash with the German outposts at Libau, crossed the frontier at Lyck, on August 5, driving the Prussians' advance patrols back 15 miles and cutting the railroad that skirts the Mazurian lakes.

As they fell back before the Russian invaders, the Germans set fire to all their villages and farmsteads, and destroyed all roads in the path of advance.

Once across the border, Gen. Rennenkampf moved northwest, intending to follow the main line of railway connecting Petrograd and Berlin.

### Battle of Gumbinnen

A GERMAN army, 150,000 strong, under Gen. von Francois, meanwhile had moved out from Königsberg to block the advance of

Rennenkampf's forces. The two armies met at Stallupohnen, on August 17, and after a brief engagement the Germans were driven back on a 35-mile battle line, having Gumbinnen as its center. Here the first real battle on the Eastern front was fought, lasting four days, August 20-24. It was a desperate, hand-to-hand struggle, in which the Russians used their bayonets and hand grenades so effectively that the Germans were defeated with heavy losses, withdrawing in haste to Insterberg. Three days later, the Germans were ousted from this position, falling back toward Königsberg.

All the region east of the Memel River was now in possession of Rennenkampf, including the cities of Tilsit, Labiau, Tapiau, Gerdauen, Korschen, Rastenburg, Angerburg, and Goldap. The control of six important railroads centering in Königsberg also fell to Rennenkampf.

Instead of following up his victory and destroying the Germans, as was then easily possible, Rennenkampf chose to halt at Insterberg, thereby bringing disaster to Samsonoff's army.

### Samsonoff's Victories at Frankenau and Soldau

GENERAL Samsonoff's army of the Narew, from its base on the Polish frontier near Mława, had moved northward into East Prussia on a wide front, intending to round the southern edges of the Mazurian lakes and effect a junction with Rennenkampf's army west of the lakes in preparation for a combined assault on Königsberg.

After crossing the border, Samsonoff advanced with great rapidity, his main attack being borne by two central army corps, whose flanks were protected by covering corps, marching slightly in the rear. In quick succession, the Russian frontal corps captured the important cities of Soldau, Neidenburg, Ortelsburg, and Passenheim, driving the German forces before them like sheep, and advancing on Allenstein.

Several German reserve divisions had meanwhile been sent from Königsberg to assist in the defense of Allenstein. They hurriedly constructed a defensive position at Frankenau, a few miles to the east, and there awaited the Russian onslaught.

In a two days' battle, Samsonoff's central corps defeated the Germans, who retreated from Frankenau in great disorder, some toward Königsberg, others toward the southwest and abandoning all their guns and carriages.

All but one of the railroads out of Königsberg were now held by Samsonoff's two central corps. Apparently the German forces were doomed. The right wing of Samsonoff's army at Allenstein was only 45 miles removed from the right wing of Rennenkampf's victorious army at Insterberg.

Samsonoff had been informed some days before of Rennenkampf's victory in the north, and as he, too, had driven a German army before him, no doubt entered his mind of a sweeping Russian victory.

Even though the Germans should receive strong reinforcements and attack him with superior numbers, Samsonoff would have no misgivings, being well assured that Rennenkampf, only two days' march removed from him, would rush to his assistance with his army of 200,000. Never was a general more basely deceived than Samsonoff.

### Hindenberg Takes Charge

APPALLED at the disaster which threatened their armies in East Prussia, the German General Staff hurriedly detached four corps from the French front and transported them by rail to East Prussia. They intrusted the supreme command of the new army to Gen. Paul Hindenberg, a retired corps commander, 67 years of age, who had made a profound study of the Mazurian lake region and knew every passable road, every fordable stream, in that interminable stretch of bogs, swamps, marshes, and lakes.

Hindenberg arrived at Marienburg on August 23 and began to collect the scattered German units. With an army of 500,000 at his command, and the advantage afforded by his perfect knowledge of the Mazurian death-trap, he could confidently plan the destruction of the Russian forces. His strategy was simplicity itself. The two Russian armies were divided. He would drive a wedge between them, seize all the possible avenues of escape by rail or road, and by superior force drive



first one and then the other army into the treacherous Mazurian swamps, there to perish miserably.

By August 26, Hindenberg's army, well concealed, was in position on a line from Allenstein to Soldau. His artillery was so placed as to bear upon every causeway along which the Russians could thread their way through the maze of ponds and bogs.

### Russian Treachery Aids the Germans

IN addition to the swamps he knew so well, Hindenberg had powerful allies high up in the Russian court and camp, many of whom were of German blood. Chief among these was the Czarina, wife of the Czar, a German by birth and by preference. Associated with her were powerful officials in the Ministry of War, and in the army. They were in a position to betray Russia by revealing to the German General Staff information concerning projected movements of the Russian armies which would enable the Germans to forestall the efforts of the loyal Russian generals. They were able, moreover, to withhold military supplies, especially ammunition, from the armies in the field.

Though they had permitted Grand Duke Nicholas to assume the ostensible command of the Russian forces, the real authority was vested, not in him, but in Sukhomlinoff, Minister of War, who could choose the generals and control the army supplies, who knew all the secret codes and all the orders that were issued, and who could so arrange the army movements that they might not co-ordinate.

Germany had so little to fear from Russia in East Prussia that at the outset of hostilities she had scarcely 250,000 troops stationed there. For was not Sukhomlinoff the Russian Minister of War? And was not one of the Russian armies of invasion commanded by Gen. Rennenkampf, a German by birth, whose brother was the German governor of Thorne, whose uncle held high place in the German court, and who himself was a favorite of the German-born Czarina?

After his failure to support Gen. Samsonoff, in the battle shortly to be reviewed, Rennenkampf was regarded as a traitor, and as a traitor he was put to death during the Russian revolution in 1917.

### Samsonoff Falls Into Hindenberg's Trap

SAMSONOFF, after his victory at Allenstein, was puzzled at the failure of Rennenkampf to effect a contact with his forces. He knew that Rennenkampf was at Insterberg, only 45 miles away, and that the wings of the two armies could be brought together in a two days' march. Believing that there was no German force on his front capable of resistance, he rashly decided to abandon his safe position at Allenstein and push forward through the treacherous Mazurian lake region, seize the crossings of the Vistula River, and capture the fortress of Graudenz.

In thus plunging into the Mazurian labyrinth, Samsonoff all unwittingly was walking into Hindenberg's trap. To an invading army, the morasses of the vast Mazurian lake region present insuperable obstacles.

Instead of military roads and wide plains for the deployment of troops, the only footing which the region afforded for troops was along the narrow isthmuses which separate the countless ponds and swamps, or in the defiles between the rolling hills. Some of the ponds have sandy bottoms and are easily fordable; others are clay wells which would engulf an army which attempted to cross them. Similarly, many of the marshes are firm enough for the passage of men, while others are treacherous bogs.

Any invading army, crossing this labyrinth, would of necessity divide into a number of columns, all widely separated and unable to co-ordinate their movements. The lines of communication behind the advancing armies would be few and difficult, and the opportunity for a successful retreat in case a superior foe was encountered, would be comparatively slight. Now Samsonoff had no expert knowledge of this lake region, while to Hindenberg it was an open book.

### The Great Battle of Tannenberg

AS late as August 26, Gen. Samsonoff was unaware that a superior German force threatened his line. On that day, his army was disposed along the western edge of the Mazurian lakes on a 35-mile front, extending north and south. His two advance corps occupied Allenstein at the north, another corps held the center of the line at Hohen-



stein, while the two cover corps were stationed at Soldau in the south.

Hindenberg's army lay well concealed a few miles to the west, covering this Russian line. Having prepared a trap for the Russians, Hindenberg was ready to lead them into it. With his vastly superior forces, he expected to gain an easy victory over the Russians. In broad outline, his plan was to roll back the flanks of Samsonoff's army at Allenstein and Soldau, and then, by striking hard at the Russian center, near Hohenstein, force the entire Russian army into the Mazurian swamps, where he should destroy it at his pleasure.

In developing this strategy, Hindenberg seems to have wholly disregarded the existence of Rennenkampf's Russian army, only a few miles to the north. Perhaps he knew Rennenkampf to be a traitor who would in no case come to Samsonoff's assistance if attacked.

At all events, when ready to launch his surprise attack on Samsonoff's army, Hindenberg planned as if he knew that no danger menaced him from Rennenkampf's direction. He had withdrawn all the German forces, excepting two divisions of cavalry, from in front of Rennenkampf's line, leaving only 10,000 Germans behind to hold in check a Russian army of 200,000. Sublime German confidence in Russo-German treachery!

### **Russian Army Flanked**

HINDENBERG began his double flanking movement on August 26, when he turned Samsonoff's left flank at Soldau, bending it back as far as Neidenberg on the very edge of the Mazurian swamps and seizing at the same time the sole remaining railroad by which the Russians might have effected their retreat into Poland.

Simultaneously, the Germans attacked the Russian center at Hohenstein, but here they met with such stout resistance that they were compelled to fall back to a prepared position. Had it not been for their superior artillery the German line no doubt would have been broken.

While the Russian center and flank were thus engaged, Hindenberg was achieving his "masterstroke" on the Russian right flank.

General Samsonoff, only a few hours before, had led his two advance corps out of Allenstein on his rash expedition to Graudenz.

The two corps, broken up into widely separated columns, were threading their devious way along the narrow isthmuses that skirt the Mazurian lakes and swamps. They were in complete ignorance of the attacks then in progress on their center and left flank.

All unwittingly, they were walking straightway into Hindenberg's trap. That astute general, who knew every inch of the Mazurian lake region, intended to flank the moving Russian columns in a novel way. Using 10,000 requisitioned motor vehicles, he rapidly transported two army corps through the gap between Rennenkampf's idle army at Insterberg and the bending right wing of Samsonoff's army, getting in the rear of the Russians.

While 100,000 Germans were thus touring in motor trucks across his entire front, to take Samsonoff in the rear, Gen. Rennenkampf, with 250,000 troops at his disposal, never stirred to the assistance of his doomed compatriots, though his army might easily have crushed Hindenberg's flanking movement and averted a terrible disaster to Russian arms.

### **Russians Sink in Mazurian Swamps**

THE inevitable happened. With both the Russian flanks enveloped, Hindenberg's reserves pounded the Russian center at Hohenstein and very soon Samsonoff's entire army was thrown into hopeless confusion. By virtue of his uncanny knowledge of that dismal swamp region, Hindenberg then mercilessly pushed the Russians deeper and deeper into the treacherous morasses.

Whole regiments of Russians were seen to disappear suddenly in the morasses; others, as they slowly sank, were blown to atoms by the huge German guns carefully positioned on the solid ground, which Hindenberg had chosen.

Fifty thousand Russians who had surrendered to the Germans were driven back at the point of the bayonet into the muck of the swampland, imploring mercy from the heartless Huns, who shelled them even as they sank.



Out of 250,000 brave Russians who had entered Hindenberg's trap, only 60,000 managed to escape, by the Ortelsburg road eastward. The two frontal corps were captured intact.

General Samsonoff, while seeking to escape through the forests with members of his staff, was suddenly stricken with heart trouble. Unable to move a limb, prostrate and utterly helpless, he was deserted by his staff in the dark woods. Days afterward his corpse was found with a bullet wound in the head, but whether he died of suicide or was murdered by Russian traitors has never been revealed.

### **Rennenkampf Basely Deserts His Army**

RENNENKAMPF'S army, after the Samsonoff catastrophe, was reinforced by a full corps. With this army of 250,000, Rennenkampf pretended to plan a further advance into East Prussia in the direction of Königsberg, yet a few days later he permitted a small German cavalry unit, with a single battery of guns, to break through his front, shell Gumbinnen, cut his line of communication and create a panic among the Russian transports stationed there.

The next morning Rennenkampf gave orders for an organized retreat of the whole army toward the Russian frontier. But without waiting to conduct the retreat, this traitor and coward deserted his army and escaped by motor to the Russian front.

General Gurko, the Russian cavalry leader, with great moderation, pictures the disgraceful episode: "Gen. Rennenkampf evidently was himself so shaken by the successive reports received that he had lost all self-control, and leaving his staff he departed by motor car for the Russian frontier. He eventually reached Kovno, abandoning all

power over his forces and leaving them to get through the hazards of the retreat, fighting on their own account."

Twice Rennenkampf had betrayed his country and the army which so loyally had obeyed his orders. Before dismissing him from these pages, we may anticipate by revealing that in the following November, when the German armies were again in retreat, on another front, Rennenkampf again betrayed Russia by permitting two surrounded German corps to escape from the net which Grand Duke Nicholas had drawn about them. Until then, he had escaped punishment for his treachery by reason of the Czarina's powerful aid. For that supreme act of treachery, or incapacity, Rennenkampf was deposed from his command. Ostracized, he slunk into obscurity and so continued until he met his deserved fate in 1917.

### **Russian Army Successfully Retreats**

AFTER Rennenkampf's desertion of his army, von Hindenberg pushed rapidly northward with his superior forces, hoping to cut off the retreat of the Russians, but the loyal Russian generals in charge of the retreat were not to be caught napping. They succeeded, though not without heavy losses, in withdrawing across the frontier. A Siberian army corps which had been pushed out from Grodno to protect the retreat was overwhelmed at Lyck, losing 20,000 prisoners.

Once across the northern and southern borders, the shattered Russian armies were rapidly reorganized—the First army with its base on the Niemen, the Second army on the Narew and the new 10th army along the Augustowa Canal. This line was strengthened by the proximity of a fort and further reinforced by a series of defensive works.

## **German Defeat in Battle of Augustowa**

Russian Army, 250,000  
Gen. Russky

German Army, 400,000  
Gen. von Schubert  
Gen. von Morgen  
Gen. von Hindenberg

HINDEBERG continued his pursuit of Rennenkampf's army across the frontier into Russia. September 15, he occupied Suwalki, 20 miles beyond the Russian frontier. A week later, his army reached the west bank

of the Niemen, the Russians being then entrenched on the opposite bank.

On September 25, the Germans laid two pontoon bridges across the Niemen, but these were quickly blown to pieces. Hindenberg

shelled the Russian position all the next day, but could not silence the Russian guns. On the 27th, he built two more pontoon bridges, and these, too, were blown to bits.

Thwarted at last, Hindenberg was forced to beat a retreat on September 28. The Russians now became the pursuers and as the Germans groped their way through the marshy region west of the Niemen and later through the forest of Augustowa, they

were mercilessly raked with shell fire, but finally the main German army reached a point of safety across the German frontier. The Germans lost 60,000 men in this battle of Augustowa.

Hindenberg thereupon transferred his command to General von Schubert and hastened south to direct the movements of the Austrian armies, as narrated on Page 225.

EASTERN THEATER. AUG. 10—SEPT. 3

## Russians Drive Austrians Out of Galicia, Across Carpathians

Fortress of Lemberg is Captured by Russians with 100,000 Prisoners  
Large German Army Comes to the Rescue and Austrians Are Saved From Annihilation

SECTION 13—1914

### Russian Forces, 1,500,000

Grand Duke Nicholas, Generalissimo  
Gen. Yanushkevitch, Chief-of-Staff  
First Army Group  
Gen. Ivanoff  
Gen. Everts  
Gen. Plehve  
Second Army Group  
Gen. Russky  
Third Army Group  
Gen. Brusiloff  
Gen. Dmitrieff

### Austro-Hungarian Forces, 1,200,000

Archduke Frederick, Generalissimo  
Gen. Hoetzendorf, Chief-of-Staff  
First Army Group  
Gen. Dankl  
Second Army Group  
Gen. Auffenberg  
Third Army Group  
Archduke Joseph  
German Army, 500,000  
Gen. von Hindenberg, Commander-in-Chief

**W**HILE Russia with her right arm was holding Germany at bay on the East Prussian front, with her left arm she was smiting Austria hip and thigh in Galicia and in Poland. Austria was in fact brought quickly to her knees, gasping for breath, and, but for the timely assistance of Germany, she must then have succumbed.

As early as July 24, a week at least before any declaration of war was uttered, Austria had begun the secret mobilization of her armies, expecting to gain an unfair advantage in the war, which both she and Germany were determined to provoke.

By the method of conscription she had hoped to raise an army of 2,000,000 soldiers, before the Russian forces could be mustered.

This plan, however, had been frustrated in part by the widespread rebellion of the Austrian Slavs, a subject people comprising one-half the entire population of the Empire, and whose sympathies were wholly with their Russian brethren. Slavic outbreaks took place in Dalmatia, Bosnia, Croatia, and other provinces of the Empire, while in Herzego-

vina several government officials were assassinated.

In repressing this rebellion, Austria adopted stern measures of reprisal. Slavic societies were dissolved, hostile newspapers suppressed, Slav leaders imprisoned, and all men up to fifty years of age drafted for the war.

As the mobilization proceeded, the Slav regiments were kept separate from the Teutonic units, to prevent any possible contamination of the Huns, yet in despite of these precautionary measures, the Slavs continued to mutiny.

The rebellion spread into Poland and Bohemia, endangering the entire mobilization, but finally, on August 6, Austria had succeeded in mobilizing three large armies comprising 1,200,000 unwilling troops. These forces were directed by the supreme commander, Archduke Frederick.

Russia, in the meantime, had been successful beyond all expectations in her first mobilization. Instead of requiring six weeks, as had been predicted, to complete her first



mobilization, Russia in ten days had succeeded in concentrating 450,000 trained troops on the Baltic frontier, while 800,000 other troops were assembled on the strategic line between Ivangorod and Brest-Litovsk. A fortnight later, Russia had drawn 1,700,000 first line troops into the area of battle and in addition 2,400,000 reservists were rallying to the Czar's standards. We have traced already the movements of Russia's Baltic armies throughout the disastrous campaign in East Prussia; now we shall portray the triumphant march of the three main Russian armies through Austrian Galicia.

### Strategic Plans Compared

THE Austrians, whose first mobilization had been completed in advance of that of the Russians, were the earliest to put their armies in motion. They had concentrated in eastern Galicia, just south of the Russian Poland salient, three groups of Austrian armies under the command respectively of Gen. Dankl, Gen. Auffenberg, and Archduke Joseph.

These generals, having foreseen the inevitability of a Russian invasion of Galicia, thought to forestall it by carrying the war into the enemy's country, before ponderous Russia could get her armies underway.

The Austrian strategic plans embraced three concurrent movements. One army group, in command of Gen. Dankl, was to cross the Polish frontier and advance on Warsaw by way of Lublin, with the purpose of keeping the Russians so busily engaged in defending the Polish capital, that they would find it impossible to attempt the invasion of Galicia.

A second Austrian army, under command of Archduke Joseph, was to guard Dankl's left flank and at the same time occupy that part of Poland lying west of the Vistula.

A third Austrian army group, under Gen. Auffenberg, with its base resting on Lemberg, was assigned to protect Dankl's right flank, and at the same time extend eastward across the entire northern frontier of Galicia. We shall here anticipate the march of events, by revealing that the far abler Russian strategists had divined the purpose of the Austrian generals, from the beginning

of the offensive, and adopted measures to circumvent them.

There were three Russian army groups assembled at this time on the strategic line east of Warsaw, under the command respectively of Gen. Ivanoff, Gen. Russky, and Gen. Brusiloff.

To Ivanoff's group was intrusted the defense of the Polish salient, and particularly the wide gap near Lublin through which Dankl's Austrian army hoped to penetrate on its march to Warsaw.

Only an inconsiderable body of Russian troops had been posted on the Polish frontier, since it did not comport with the Russian strategic plans to offer immediate battle to Dankl.

Instead, it was Ivanoff's purpose to fall back from the border, drawing Dankl as far as possible from his base, and out of touch with Auffenberg's army on the right. At the proper time, a Russian wedge would be driven in between Dankl and Auffenberg's armies, their flanks rolled back and both Austrian armies destroyed.

In this double flanking movement, the Russian army groups, commanded by Russky and Brusiloff, were to co-operate. Brusiloff was to cross the Galician border southeast of Lemberg and turn Auffenberg's right flank. Russky at the same time was to cross the Galician frontier, northeast of Lemberg, and break through the Austrian line at the point where the wings of Dankl's and Auffenberg's armies joined, roll Auffenberg's left flank on Lemberg, and then, with his main army force Dankl's right wing back into the morasses of Poland. All these strategic movements were successfully carried out. Let us now study them in detail.

### Dankl Falls Into the Russian Trap

GENERAL Dankl's Austrian armies had crossed the Polish frontier on August 10, deploying on the right bank of the middle Vistula. Pursuant to their instructions, the Russian border troops fell back. Advancing unmolested, the Austrians occupied Kielce and other nearby towns. The Russians continued to retreat northward before the Austrian hordes. All unaware that he was being led like a lamb to the slaughter, Dankl was



permitted to win an easy victory at Krasnik on August 26. From Krasnik, the Austrians pressed forward to within ten miles of the Lublin gap. Here their advance was definitely stopped by Ivanoff's main armies, commanded by Generals Ewerts and Plehve, and spread out on a front of 40 miles. Having drawn Dankl into their trap, the Russian generals proceeded to close it. The honor of springing the trap fell to Gen. Russky.

Russky's Russian army, on September 17, crossed the Galician border, on a 40-mile front, between Brody and Sokal, to the northeast of Lemberg. Striking hard at the Austrian line, he broke through at the point of junction of Dankl's and Auffenberg's armies. Then, with his left and center, he rolled back Auffenberg's flank toward Lemberg, while with his right he turned Dankl's flank, forcing the latter to flee westward and take refuge in the swamps near Bilgarej and Tarnograd. Thus, in the twinkling of an eye, both the Austrian armies had been completely isolated and could be dealt with separately.

Meanwhile, Gen. Brusiloff's Russian army group had crossed the Galician border to the southeast of Lemberg and attacked Auffenberg's right flank. A three days' battle ensued at Tarnopol, ending in its capture by the Russians on the 27th. Retreating southward and fighting stubbornly, the Austrians entrenched at Brezezany. Russky took this city by direct assault, the Austrians retreating in good order.

The two Russian armies by this time had established connections, and were stretched out on a battle line some 200 miles long, in the form of an arc, extending from west of the Vistula to the Gnila Lipa River.

Auffenberg, reinforced by the greater part of Archduke Joseph's reserve army, fell back to a strong and carefully prepared trench position, before Lemberg on a 70-mile front, extending from Busk in the north to Halicz in the south. Here was fought one of the most sanguinary battles of the war.

General Brusiloff's Russian army, after forcing the cross of the Zlota Lipa on August 26, made a wide detour, as far south as the Dniester, flanking Auffenberg and furiously assaulting his right wing, near Halicz, on

August 30. The Austrian line was pierced on the following day, the entire right wing giving way.

In their retreat, the Austrians attempted to make a stand at Botszonne, but the Russian guns blew the town into fragments. The Austrian retreat on the right became a rout. Guns, transport and all impedimenta were abandoned in the wild flight. Many thousand Austrians were killed and more were captured.

Meanwhile, Russky's army had been closing in on Auffenberg's left wing. For days violent fighting had occurred. Every inch of ground was contested. There were many desperate bayonet charges, and much man-to-man fighting. Positions were taken and retaken many times. The whole terrain was literally plowed up with shell fire. The losses on both sides were enormous. Finally, on September 1, the Austrian line was breached and gradually began to give way.

#### Lemberg Captured with 120,000 Prisoners

LEMBERG itself was stormed at 2.30 on the morning of September 1. The Austrians had attempted to re-form their line, but were thrown into confusion by repeated artillery and cavalry attacks. Both their flanks had wilted, their center was being pounded hard, and the Russians had begun an encircling movement, intending to surround and capture the army entire.

It was necessary at once to evacuate Lemberg if the remnants of the army were to be saved. As the final retreat of Auffenberg's main forces began, he threw out a rear guard screen of Slav and Hungarian troops to hold the Russians in check.

The Russians countered by pouring a terrific artillery fire over the heads of the advancing Slavs and upon the retreating Austrian army. Under this rain of projectiles, the Austrian ranks broke in wild disorder. Abandoning guns, ammunition, and stores, Auffenberg's army retired precipitately.

Lemberg being left undefended, the Russians entered the city on September 3, being hailed as deliverers by the 200,000 Slav inhabitants. With the capture of the fortress, 120,000 prisoners, 200 cannon, and enormous stores of war material fell into the hands of



the Russians. This great victory, coinciding as it did with Samsonoff's defeat at Tannenberg, filled the Russians with elation.

### **Dankl Retreats to the San River**

WHILE Auffenberg's army was being destroyed before Lemberg, Dankl's Austrian army also was facing a critical situation in the swampy country about Bilgarej and Tarnograd, where it had been isolated. In his desperation, Dankl attempted to break through the Russian wall between Lublin and Kholm. The Tenth Corps led the assault against Ivanoff's Russian line, but they could not break through. The Russians, by massing their chief strength against Dankl's left wing, and threatening his development, compelled the retirement of his entire army.

Attacked on his entire front and right flank from Tomaszon to Tarnograd, Dankl hastily retreated toward the San River, near its junction with the Vistula. Two heavy rear guards, to north and east, were left to hold back the oncoming Russians, while the main body and the baggage were crossing the river on September 12.

But even so strong a defensive position as the swampy valley of the San could not withstand the impetuous advance of the Russians. Wading the river in water up to their necks, the Russians fairly leaped upon the shoulders of the retreating Austrians, taking 30,000 prisoners. Meantime the Russian artillery was shelling the bridges which the main body of the Austrians were crossing in solid masses.

Besides the thousands killed by shell fire, hundreds of Austrians were forced into the water and drowned. With the remnant of his army Dankl managed to escape to a position of safety on the line of the Wistoka River, which he reached on September 23.

### **Battle of Rawa-Ruska**

AFTER the defeat of Auffenberg's army before Lemberg, the survivors had retreated and formed a junction with a newly formed Fourth Austrian army. The united forces occupied a well fortified line, 60 miles long, based on Grodek in the south and Rawa-Ruska in the north, and with excellent railroad facilities in their rear.

The Russians attacked the Austrians at Grodek on September 8, taking many prisoners and doubling the entire line back on itself at a sharp angle at Rawa-Ruska. Here a terrific eight-day battle was fought, with 300,000 men engaged on a six-mile front. The Russians concentrated their attack on the very apex of the Austrian angle, atop the bluffs at the edge of a ten-acre field.

Eight successive assaults were repulsed by the Austrians. Some positions, before being finally evacuated, were taken and surrendered several times. The armies, each in turn, would retreat a short distance, re-form and renew the offensive.

At one point the Austrian position was so deluged with shrapnel that the ground was covered by dead, but the Austrians held on tenaciously. Day by day they gradually yielded ground, until at length they made their last stand on the crest of the ridge defending Rawa-Ruska.

Here the Russians brought into play their huge howitzers, crumbling up the Austrian defences. Then they stormed the hill, expelling the Austrians at the point of the bayonet. By nightfall, the Austrian center was broken and the Russians were dropping shells into the outskirts of Rawa-Ruska. The town was hastily abandoned by the Austrians, who retreated toward the San River, some 70 miles west of Lemberg.

### **Austria Loses 250,000 Killed, 100,000 Prisoners**

THE Austrians were by this time scattered in flight. Since the Galician campaign opened they had lost 250,000 in casualties, besides 120,000 prisoners. Two of their armies had been partially destroyed. They had resigned most of Galicia, including the great oil wells of Lemberg; had surrendered half their Galician armies and vast quantities of war supplies.

The Russians, in quick succession, had occupied nearly all the important cities and fortresses—Lemberg, Brody, Busk, Tarnopol, Brzenany. The remnants of Dankl's army had been driven to the line of the Wisloka. The Cossack cavalry forces were approaching all the Carpathian passes which lead into Hungary. Przemyśl and Joroslav alone held out.



### The Capture of Jaroslav

THE remnants of the three Austrian armies, after their several retreats from Lemberg, Rawa-Ruska, and Halicz, escaped to a prepared position of great strength on the western bank of the San River. There they were joined by three German corps.

The new battle area, extending 32 miles east and 16 miles north, was enclosed by the double turn of the San and its confluent, the Vislok. The corner points of the rectangle were protected on the north by the fortresses of Rozozoff and Dynow, on the south by the fortresses of Przemysl and Jaroslav. A light railway, built solely for strategic purposes, ran parallel with the left bank of the San almost to its confluence with the Vistula.

The Austrians had spent enormous sums to make this position impregnable. Moreover, as they crossed the San, they destroyed most of the bridges behind them. But the Russians, in swift pursuit, were not to be balked of their prey. By a brilliant stroke, they seized the bridge at Krzeszov, a few miles west of Tarnograd.

The Russians, on September 20, began the bombardment of Jaroslav. After three days of incessant shell fire, the powerful fortress was evacuated, the city itself being then in flames. With the surrender of Jaroslav, the Austrians were forced to abandon the line of the San River and the railroad from Cracow to Przemysl.

There remained for the Russians to capture first Przemysl and then Cracow on the German frontier. Once Przemysl had fallen, the Russian flank would be protected by the Carpathians, and the way to Berlin would be reopened.

### The Investiture of Przemysl Begins

PRZEMYSL, a powerful fortress, defended by a garrison army of 100,000, under command of Gen. Kusmanek, was surrounded by the Russians on September 20. The bombardment opened without delay, the Austrian guns answering shot for shot.

Due to the treachery or incapacity of the Russian War Ministry, the shells for the huge Russian howitzers were not forthcoming, and the smaller field guns were ineffective in reducing the fortress. Nevertheless,

a vigorous bombardment was kept up until October 2, when the Russians demanded the surrender of the city. General Kusmanek refused to discuss surrender until all powers of resistance had been exhausted.

Lacking heavy siege guns to enforce this demand, the Russians repeatedly and recklessly stormed the fort. The corpse-strewn ground soon revealed how costly the efforts had been.

Finally, a Russian brigade approached the walls of the fort undetected and stormed the walls. The garrison retired to the casemates, from which they opened fire with machine guns. Undismayed, the Russians stormed the casemate and a hand-to-hand battle ensued, with bayonets, gun butts and hand grenades.

With the arrival of Austrian reinforcements, the Russian division withdrew. The Russians then settled down to a routine investment of Przemysl, awaiting the arrival of their siege guns.

### The Advance on Cracow Begins

WHILE one part of the Russian forces was investing Przemysl, another was advancing westward toward the German frontier, driving the disorganized hordes of Austrians and Huns before them.

Two principal objects the Russians kept in view. One of these was the capture of Cracow, near the western extremity of Galicia, possession of which would open the way either for an advance on Berlin through Silesia or an advance on Vienna through the Moravian Gate. The other was to secure the passes of the Carpathians, which would give access to Hungary. A successful conquest of Hungary bore with it the assurance of an early peace with Austro-Hungary.

On November 11, the Russians converged on Cracow from two directions. One column of Russian troops, operating out of Jaroslav, occupied Miechow and Dynow. A Russian force further south seized Lisko. But on the following day the Russians sustained a defeat near Czernowitz, capital of the Austrian province of Bukowina.

An Austrian army, reinforced by German divisions, crossing the Pruth River, suddenly attacked the Russian right wing, inflicting



heavy losses. On the same day another body of Russian forces in the Stryj valley was surprised by Austrian cavalry and put to rout.

In central Galicia the Russian advance was successful. The Austrians in that section were for the most part driven west of the Dunajec River, along the front from Tarnow to the Vistula.

As the Russian advance toward Cracow proceeded, the Austrian resistance stiffened. On November 20, the Russians on the north had reached the outer line of Cracow's defences. Meanwhile, the Russian cavalry were pushing forward into the passes of the Carpathians.

Alarmed at the encroachments of the Russians, Germany rushed an army to the assistance of the Austrians. By December 6, the safety of Cracow was insured by the arrival of several German corps. The trees surrounding Cracow were cut down to afford space for the artillery and various new lines of fortifications and wire entanglements were arranged.

South of Cracow the Austro-German forces attempted to turn the Russian right wing, after destroying the bridge over the Dunajec and occupying the heights on the left bank of the river. The dauntless Russians, however, in the face of sustained artillery fire, crossed the Dunajec through icy water up to their necks and by vigorous assault captured the heights. On the following day the Austro-Germans made a stand on a fifty-mile front extending from Wieliczka south to the Dunajec. They were defeated with heavy losses, losing many prisoners and guns.

In West Galicia events during the next few days favored the combined armies of Austria-Germany. The south wing of the Russian army was defeated at Limanovo and compelled to retreat. At the same time a third incursion of the German forces into Galicia was arrested by Gen. Dmitrieff's army on the very border of the province, although they had crossed the Carpathians on a wide front between Wieliczka and the headwater of the San River.

During the same week, the garrison at Przemyśl, which was threatened with starvation, attempted to lift the siege by making a

series of *sórties*, but each time were driven back with heavy losses.

### German Army Repulses the Russians

GERMANY had been steadily pouring her troops into Galicia, through the Dukla Pass, and now had an army of 500,000 trained soldiers assisting the Austrians. In addition, Hindenberg had launched his great offensive toward Warsaw, elsewhere described. The Russian raiding forces which had crossed the passes into Hungary were now compelled to withdraw.

With the arrival of the Germans, the Russian offensive against Cracow was checked, Gen. Ivanoff's Army was forced back 70 miles north of Cracow, compelling in turn the retirement of Dmitrieff's forces from the Dunajec to the Biala River.

Still farther eastward, the army of Gen. Brusiloff was holding its own against the Austrian army under Gen. Ermolli. Early in December Ermolli tried to put a wedge between the armies of Brusiloff and Dmitrieff, but he was defeated with the loss of 30,000 prisoners.

Meanwhile Hindenberg, in the Polish triangle, had forced back the central Russian armies. In Galicia, the combined Austro-German forces had closed the Silesian Gate into Germany, and saved Cracow from capture.

### New Russian Offensive in the Carpathians

ON Christmas day, 1914, the Russian General Staff launched a new offensive, this time among the mountain spurs of the Carpathians. Though outnumbered and outgunned by the Austro-German forces, the Russians advanced confidently on the Dukla Pass, the historic road into Hungary from the east. Two Russian infantry regiments, under a murderous fire, waded waist deep in the icy water of the Jasiolka River, charged the Austrian line, and took many prisoners.

South of the Vistula, the Russians swept the Biecz front of all the Austrian forces, taking 15,000 prisoners. The upper reaches of the Vistula were similarly cleared. In western Galicia, the Russians drove the enemy before them like sheep.

The year 1914 closed on the Galician front, with the Russian troops everywhere successful, and aiming at the six passes over the Carpathians.

### Russian Minister of War a Proved Traitor

As a result of disclosures made during these opening campaigns, Gen. Sukhomlinoff, the Russian Minister of War, was tried for treason in September, 1914.

It was proved at his trial that, for German gold, he had connived at sending Russian troops to their death in Galicia without necessary military supplies. It was also proved that he had received German money as a reward for holding up at Archangel large stores of ammunition which had been sent to the army by Russia's allies. The loss of

this ammunition cost tens of thousands of Russian lives.

In spite of his colossal crimes, this arch-traitor was merely sentenced to life imprisonment, though scores of loyal soldiers were being put to death daily for slight infractions of the military code.

### St. Petersburg's Name Changed to Petrograd

ABOUT this time, Czar Nicholas, by Imperial Decree, ordained that the name of the capital city, St. Petersburg, which smacked of the German, should be changed to Petrograd, a wholly Slavic word. If at the same time he had banished the vicious German court clique from Petrograd, he might have saved his Empire.

EASTERN THEATER, SEPT. 26—DEC. 31

## Germans Sustain Two Colossal Defeats in Russian Poland

Russians Repel Hindenberg's Two Invasions While Fighting Austrians in Galicia

Treachery of a Russian General Saves German Army from Annihilation

SECTION 14—1914

#### Russian Forces, 2,000,000

Grand Duke Nicholas, Generalissimo  
Gen. Russky  
Gen. Brusiloff  
Gen. Dmitrieff  
Gen. Plehve  
Gen. Ewerts  
Gen. Rennenkampf  
Gen. Schiedeman (Warsaw Garrison)  
Artillery manned by Japanese gunners  
Gen. Gurko (Cavalry)

#### German-Austrian Forces, 2,500,000

Field Marshal von Hindenberg  
Gen. von Ludendorf, Chief-of-Staff  
Gen. Mackensen  
Gen. von Morgen  
Gen. von Linsingen  
Gen. von Below  
Archduke Eugene  
Archduke Joseph  
Gen. Schubert  
Gen. Dankl  
Gen. Kusmanek  
Gen. Boehm-Ermolli

**T**HE year 1914 closed on the Eastern front with two colossal defeats of the combined German and Austrian armies, under the supreme command of Field Marshal von Hindenberg, by Russian forces of lesser strength, commanded by Grand Duke Nicholas. For two months or more, nearly 5,000,000 men were engaged in mutual slaughter on a battle line extending from the Baltic Sea to the Carpathians.

The Germans, arrogant and boastful, had expected an early victory. Instead, they barely escaped annihilation. Were it not for the treachery of a Russian general of German birth—the same Rennenkampf who had betrayed Gen. Samsonoff at Tannenberg and afterward abandoned his retreating troops—

the principal German army must surely have been captured entire. These defeats at the hands of the despised Slavs proved as galling to Teutonic pride as their more spectacular failure in the Battle of the Marne.

In September, when the Russians were overrunning all Galicia, after dispersing the Austrian armies and advancing almost to the walls of Cracow, Germany took fright. If Cracow should fall, not only would the road to Berlin be open to an invading army, but the collapse of the Austrian armies might result in Austria suing for a separate peace.

Moreover, the Russians, in occupying Galicia, had seized the great petroleum wells near Lemberg, the sole remaining source of Germany's supply of oil. If she hoped to



win the war, Germany must regain those oil wells. Still another motive which actuated Germany in planning the invasion of Poland, was the necessity of winning a decisive victory before the year closed in order to impress the Turks, whose alliance was greatly desired, but who were still holding aloof.

The general military conditions favored a vigorous German offensive in the eastern theater of war. On the Western front, where the recent German assaults on Ypres had failed, a stalemate was seen to be inevitable. The campaign on that front was settling down to trench warfare, enabling Germany to transfer many army corps eastward to assist Austria in her distress and possibly overwhelm Russia.

### Hindenberg Given Supreme Command

GENERAL Paul von Hindenberg, who in August had annihilated one Russian army at Tannenberg, only to meet with humiliating defeat at Augustowa three weeks later, was detached from the Baltic front and given supreme command of all the German and Austrian forces in the eastern theater of war. His chief of staff was Gen. von Ludendorf, the ablest of German strategists.

With half a million fresh troops at his disposal, to reinforce 2,000,000 German and Austrian soldiers already in the field, Hindenberg was ready in early October to begin his offensive. Knowing that the Russian center had been greatly weakened by the simultaneous advance of Russian armies into East Prussia on the north and Galicia in the south, and that Warsaw was defended by a very slim garrison, he resolved upon a double invasion of Russian Poland, with Warsaw as the chief objective.

One group of German armies was ordered to cut the Polish salient from the northwest, while an Austrian group of armies was invading Poland from the southwest. These armies, after forming a junction, were then to advance to the capture of Warsaw. Their combined strength, Hindenberg believed, was sufficient to overwhelm any force which the Russians might assemble. Once in possession of Warsaw, Hindenberg would control the Russian military base, and from that

position in the spring he could proceed to the further conquest of Russia.

### Germans Cross the Carpathians

BEFORE launching his direct drive on Warsaw, Hindenberg had despatched 500,000 German troops across the Dukla Pass of the Carpathians into Galicia, to save the shattered Austrian armies from total destruction and defend Cracow, the capitol of Poland, from threatened assault.

Uniting with the scattered units of the Austrian army, the Germans counter-attacked the Russians, holding them in check 70 miles from Cracow, and compelling the evacuation of Jaroslav and the raising of the siege of Przemyśl.

### German Army Crushed at Kovno

WITH his right flank thus protected by the Carpathians, Hindenberg took steps to secure his left flank before marching on Warsaw. Knowing that Gen. Russky's Russian army was disposed along the Niemen River in a position equally favorable for a flanking movement around the German left, or for a quick advance to the relief of Warsaw, Gen. Hindenberg ordered his Baltic army to advance to the Niemen and drive a wedge between Russky's army and Warsaw.

General Schubert was assigned the task of turning Gen. Russky's flank. Instead of accomplishing his purpose, Schubert's group of armies was crushingly defeated at Kovno, Grodno, and Ossowiec. The German army, outflanked at both ends, was pushed back in confusion across the frontier, with a loss of 50,000 men and many guns.

The disaster on the Niemen was aggravated by Schubert's message to Hindenberg, describing his defeat as a "strategic retreat," instead of a panic rout.

### The Invasion of Poland

DECEIVED by this false assurance, Hindenberg confidently began his invasion of Russian Poland. The Teutonic armies advanced on Warsaw in four columns—one along the Thorn-Warsaw Railroad, a second along the Kalisc-Warsaw line, a third along the Breslin-Radom-Ivangorod Railroad, and a fourth from Cracow in the same direction.

As the German steam roller advanced, the force of Russians within the Polish triangle retreated slowly toward their base on the Vistula. The Germans in turn occupied Lodz, Radom, and all the other important cities and towns in the triangle, meanwhile repairing the railroad bridges destroyed by the retreating Russians.

By October 5, the German columns in the north had advanced almost to the gates of Ivangorod, while the Austrians further south had reached the Vistula between the Galician border and Ivangorod.

Torrential rains were now falling, converting the roads into quagmires. Horses sank up to their flanks and wagons up to their axles in the deep mud. In this emergency, great stretches of forest were cut down and felled trunks used to make corduroy roads. In the soggy places, artillery causeways were built, but these were soon blown to pieces by the Russian shells.

### Warsaw In Danger

As the Germans drew closer to Warsaw and the thunder of their cannon could be heard, panic seized the inhabitants. Of its million citizens all who could flee the capital did so. Warsaw's main defenses consisted of twenty detached forts, whose batteries were manned by Japanese gunners, and a garrison of 120,000 Siberian troops under the command of Gen. Schiedeman.

On October 13, when the Germans had occupied the towns of Blondie and Prusskow, some ten miles from Warsaw, the garrison marched forth to give battle to the invaders. Though outnumbered two to one, the Russians, in a two days' battle, compelled the Germans to retreat. Reinforced, the Germans regained possession of the lost territory on the 16th.

Meanwhile, squadrons of German airplanes were bombing Warsaw incessantly, day and night, killing and wounding hundreds of innocent non-combatants. The buildings shook with the detonation of the heavy guns. All foreigners had by this time left the city, but the peasants from the villages round about streamed into the city in vast numbers. On the 17th the Germans were within seven miles of Warsaw; they had even crossed the

Vistula some miles south of Warsaw on pontoons. All that stayed their advance was a slim remnant of a division of Siberian troops, whose artillery had been silenced and who had been cut almost to pieces. They were virtually in retreat, offering scarcely any resistance. From the Rodno road, the shattered remnants of other regiments were already streaming back into Warsaw. It seemed as if the city must capitulate to the foe.

Just when despair was seizing the inhabitants, the Germans ceased their attack and the word spread from lip to lip that Russian reinforcements were arriving. An hour later, the advance host of a Russian army, which had marched 150 miles from Galicia, through the mud and rain, to the relief of Warsaw, hove in sight. They were followed by corps on corps of infantry, cavalry, and artillery.

### The Germans Retreat 150 Miles

WITHOUT delay the Russian gunners opened fire on the German front, while the Russian cavalry began to roll up both the German flanks. October 21 saw the Germans in full retreat from Warsaw. Two days later they were in rapid flight as far as Lowics.

On the 28th the Russians reoccupied Radom and Lodz, vigorously pressing the pursuit on a wide front. As they retreated, the German armies split in two columns, one fleeing westward north of the Pilitza River, the other due south, with an interval of 40 miles between them.

By November 10, the Russians had not only forced the Russians out of Poland, but some of their detachments had penetrated 20 miles into Prussian territory. Hindenberg's army finally found protection on a line based on Thorn, Posen, and Breslau, 150 miles from Warsaw.

### Poland Devastated by the Germans

DURING this retreat through Poland, Hindenberg showed himself a true Vandal by destroying everything in his path—railways, bridges, telegraphs, roads, villages. He found Poland blooming like a rose; he left it as desolate as a desert. No such destruction had visited any other section of Europe,



unless Belgium be excepted. More than 200 cities and 9000 villages were destroyed, and 7,000,000 people were reduced to the point of starvation.

### **Austrian Disaster in Galicia**

THE collapse of Hindenberg's first offensive also spelled disaster to the Austrian army in Galicia, commanded by Gen. Dankl. Defeated in the Battle of Kosiencia, the Austrians were driven pell mell back to Radom. The entire right wing of Dankl's army was finally surrounded at Kielce, October 28, 12,000 prisoners being taken in a walled graveyard.

Meanwhile, Gen. Dmitrieff, the idol of Bulgaria, in command of a Russian army, had borne down upon the Austrians in Galicia and shut up two of their crack divisions within the walls of Przemyśl. All other Austrian armies in Galicia that were able to escape had made their way in confusion to the border.

### **Hindenberg's Second Drive for Warsaw**

HINDENBERG'S army, though driven back 150 miles across the German border, was still intact and undismayed by defeat. In mid-November, when Turkey's entrance into the war as an ally of Germany was assured, Hindenberg decided to hazard another invasion of Poland.

The military situation seemed to justify this decision. Russia's main armies were deeply engaged with the Austrians in Galicia; her new levies were turning southward to repel the advancing Turks in Trans-Caucasia; Warsaw was indifferently defended by 200,000 troops, and exposed to attack from three directions. Now was the time to strike a blow at Warsaw and compel the withdrawal of Russian troops from Galicia, where they were once again menacing Cracow and the historic gate to Berlin and Vienna.

Carefully reorganizing his forces, and reinforcing them with picked Prussian troops, Hindenberg called to his aid two generals of distinction who had been kept in the background hitherto. General von Mackensen was summoned from Danzig, to which place he had been exiled for too frank criticism of the Crown Prince, and assigned to the com-

mand of the northern army, guarding the eastern approaches to Thorn. General von Morgen was placed in command of the southern army operating from Halicz. Hindenberg himself directed a third reserve army operating in the center.

### **Russians Again Betrayed in Battle of Lodz**

FROM his base on the Thorn River, Mackensen on November 12 crossed the Polish frontier with an army some 800,000 strong, supported by much artillery. Before this superior force, Gen. Russky's Russian army withdrew, intending to fall back on the strong defenses behind the Bzura River, half way to Warsaw.

In their retreat, the Russians skirted the city of Lowicz, moving southward to Strykow and thence on to Lodz, which is protected on its west side by a great belt of nearly impassable marshes. In close pursuit, Mackensen's right wing quickly seized the western crossings of the marshes; his extreme left moved toward Plock, while his center advanced against Piontek, where a heavy causeway had been engineered for heavy transport through the marshes.

Two German corps, 100,000 strong, in a furious assault on November 18, captured the causeway. After crossing over, they split the Russian line and rolled up both flanks. One Russian wing was isolated around Lodz, the other on a line running east of Brezin to the Vistula.

The Germans, strongly reinforced, at once began the envelopment of the Russian army at Lodz, attacking in overwhelming force and with great vigor on the front, flank, and rear.

The Russians, though resisting gallantly, were on the verge of surrender when reinforcements arrived from Warsaw and Galicia.

Then was witnessed a military maneuver absolutely unique in warfare. While Mackensen was striving to envelop Russky's forces, Grand Duke Nicholas was endeavoring to envelop the enveloping army.

General Ewerts with one column of Russian troops struck hard at Mackensen's left flank, while Gen. Rennenkampf was closing in on the right flank.

When the Germans saw the great Russian army closing in on them, they fought frantically to cut their way out of the deep salient. Fighting at close quarters, man to man, quarter was neither asked nor given. Day after day the terrible conflict raged round about Lodz; closer and closer the Russian circle was drawn; the losses on both sides were appalling. At the height of the battle, fearing capture, one of the Kaiser's sons escaped from the trap in an airplane.

The German army, however, was allowed to escape because of treachery in the Russian high command. General Rennenkampf, the German commander of one of the Russian armies—the same traitor who had betrayed Samsonoff at Tannenberg and afterward deserted his army on its retreat—deliberately disobeyed his orders to close in on the Germans.

The situation was as follows: Two entire German corps, 100,000 men, had been caught in a pocket whose mouth was almost closed. It was Rennenkampf's task to close that pocket. Through a "tactical error," as he claimed, Rennenkampf permitted the German corps to escape capture. A third time he had proved a traitor to his adopted country. For this supreme act of treachery Rennenkampf was courtmartialed and retired in disgrace.

### Russians Evacuate Lodz

FROM Flanders and France, Hindenberg quickly transferred several corps and much heavy artillery to reinforce Mackensen, enabling the latter to renew his offensive on the Bzura front. So sure was Hindenberg of victory that he promised Warsaw as a Christmas gift to the Kaiser. Day by day, for a fortnight, Mackensen pounded the Russian line, with a reckless expenditure of men, losing 11,000 in a single day.

The German left wing, meanwhile, had pushed forward beyond Lodz. The position being no longer tenable, the Russians evacuated the city in the night. On the morrow the German guns for fifteen hours shelled empty trenches which the Russians had abandoned on the preceding day. Without opposition the Germans entered Lodz on December 6.

The whole Russian line was withdrawn eastward in good order, occupying a strongly defended position in front of Warsaw, on the line of the Bzura and Rawka rivers. Here the Germans' advance was definitely checked. Hindenberg's second invasion of Poland had failed.

### German Victory at Kodno

WHILE Mackensen's main army was advancing on Lodz, Gen. Morgen's German army on his left had scored a notable victory. Moving out from their base at Halicz, the Prussians, on November 14, encountered the right wing of the Russian Baltic army, on a line extending from Wloclawek, 30 miles south of Kodno.

The Russians, with a strength of only three corps, held their ground until crushed under the weight of numbers. After losing 20,000 prisoners and 70 guns, besides thousands in killed and wounded, the Russian right wing fell back to the Bzura River. For this victory, Gen. von Mackensen was raised to the rank of an Under Field Marshall.

### The Fighting in East Prussia

WHILE engaged in the drives for Warsaw, the Germans had restricted themselves largely to defensive measures in East Prussia. But in concert with Morgen's November attack on the Russian right wing in Poland, Gen. von Below was directed to advance out of East Prussia, cross the Russian border, and cut the main railway line between Petrograd and Warsaw.

Below pushed forward to the Russian frontier, but was driven back with heavy losses to a secure position behind the Mazurian lakes.

Subsequently, in December, von Below's army was summoned to the assistance of Mackensen's army at Prasmycz, and barely escaped envelopment. Again he retired behind the Mazurian lakes, there to remain during the winter, which had now set in.

### Collapse of Russian Drive on Cracow

IN order to protect Warsaw, during Hindenberg's invasion, the Russians had been compelled to withdraw a large part of their forces from Galicia. The Austrians, with the aid of powerful German reinforcements, were consequently enabled to lift the siege



of Cracow, reoccupy Jaroslav and recover the greater part of western Galicia. The Russians, however, still held Lemberg and were investing Przemyśl. Their raids across the Carpathians had temporarily ceased, to be resumed in the early spring. Due to Hindenberg's drive on Warsaw, the Austrians had been given a new lease of life.

### Enormous Losses on Both Sides

FOR five months not fewer than 5,000,000 men had been engaged on the Russian front,

along the Baltic, in Poland, and in Galicia. The combined losses of both armies have never been officially published.

The Germans allege that the Russians lost 743,000 in killed, 421,500 in totally disabled, and 310,000 prisoners. The Russians claim to have taken 360,000 German and Austrian prisoners, and they set the German losses in killed and wounded at a figure at least equal to their own.

WESTERN THEATER, OCT. 13 — NOV. 13

## Ypres, the Bloodiest of All the Battles Fought in Flanders

1,500,000 Germans Held Back by 500,000 British, French and Belgians

Many Germans Drowned When Dikes of the Yser were Cut and the Country Flooded

SECTION 15 — 1914

### Allied Armies, 500,000

Gen. Foch, Commander-in-Chief

#### British Forces—

Gen. Sir John French  
Gen. Smith-Dorrien  
Gen. Sir Douglas Haig  
Gen. Pulteney  
Gen. Rawlinson  
Rear Admiral Hood (navy)

#### French Forces—

Gen. Maud'huy  
Gen. Grosetti  
Admiral Ronarch (Marines)  
Gen. de Mitry

#### Belgian Forces—

Gen. Meyser  
King Albert

### German Armies, 1,500,000

Crown Prince of Bavaria  
Duke of Wurttemberg  
Gen. von Buelow  
Gen. von Beseler

**A**FTER the fall of Antwerp, on October 9, the Germans had pushed forward and occupied the Belgian coast line from the frontier of Holland as far west as Ostend. They now laid covetuous eyes upon the channel ports of Calais, Dunkirk, and Boulogne.

With Ostend and Zeebrugge already in their possession, they were enabled to establish new submarine bases, from which to attack the Allied shipping. If Calais, Dunkirk, and Boulogne also could be seized, it would be easily possible to bombard the English coast towns with German long range guns.

The Allied battle line at this time was continuous from the Swiss border northward to Lille, or within 40 miles of the North Sea. The Germans hoped to penetrate this 40-mile

gap and seize all the seaports. To accomplish this strategy, they brought to the area of battle in Flanders a colossal force, estimated as high as 1,500,000 men.

To oppose this monstrous horde, the Allies could muster less than 500,000 men. Yet this comparatively puny force was able to hold in check the whole strength of Germany. The battles in Flanders which ensued were among the bloodiest known in history.

### The Line of Battle in Flanders

THE British army, during the "Race for the Sea," had been transferred from the Aisne front to the left flank of the battle line in Flanders. With the fall of Antwerp, the duty devolved on the British to cover the retreat of the Belgian army. This task was brilliantly executed by Gen. Sir Henry Raw-

linson, in command of two divisions of British cavalry and two divisions of French infantry.

By October 20, the Allied line in Belgium was intact from the North Sea to Albert, a distance of 100 miles. The extreme left wing, from Nieuport on the coast to Bixschoote, was held by Belgian and French mixed troops, under command of Gen. Mitry, supported by the batteries of an English and French fleet. A British corps, under Gen. Sir Douglas Haig, held the line from Bixschoote to Messines. General Pulteney's British corps carried the line from Messines to Laventie, and Gen. Smith-Dorrien extended the line to Vermelles.

The remainder of the front, between Vermelles and Albert, was occupied by French troops under command of Gen. Maud'huy. On the German side, the line from the North Sea to Laventie was held by the army groups commanded by the Duke of Wurttemberg, and Gen. von Beseler. Prince Rupprecht's army group opposed Smith-Dorrien between Laventie and Vermelles, while Gen. von Buelow's army group occupied the remainder of the line as far as Albert.

Against the thirty army corps, or 1,500,000 men, comprising the German forces in Flanders, the Allies could muster scarcely twelve corps. Of these Gen. Maud'huy had three French corps, or 120,000 men; the British, four corps, or 160,000 men; and the Belgians, one corps, or 40,000 men. In addition there were two corps of French Territorial troops and two corps of French regulars, with some cavalry.

All told, there were fewer than half a million Allied troops facing three times their number of Germans. In artillery support, the Germans had a superiority of ten to one, excepting where, in rare instances, the British and French fleets could employ their naval guns from the offing against the German coast defences. General Ferdinand Foch was in supreme command of the Allied forces north of Noyon, while Kaiser Wilhelm in person directed the operation of the German armies.

The Germans had blundered most amazingly after the capture of Antwerp. Though outnumbering the Allies in this area of battle

in a ratio of three to one, they nevertheless had failed to cut off the Belgian army's retreat to the Yser River, and had permitted the Allies to occupy Ypres, Roulers, and Furness.

They had lost their chance to seize the undefended port of Calais, and instead were penned in at Ostend in the north of Belgium. Meanwhile, the British had driven the Huns across the Lys River and were masters of its left bank. Aided by the British and French, the remnant of the Belgian army had retreated to Nieuport, where the Yser River enters the sea. Here the shattered army of King Albert had been reinforced by French and British marines, some at Nieuport, others at Ypres, still some others behind the Yser River and the canal that joins it to the Lys.

In this cramped area, amidst a maze of canals and dykes, for more than a month, were fought some of the bloodiest battles known to history, participated in by the most diverse mixture of races, religions, colors, and nationalities ever assembled in combat.

### The Battle of the Yser Opens

THE battles in Flanders may be viewed in three principal phases: First, the engagements along the 12-mile front of the Yser Canal, between Nieuport and Dixmude, in which the Belgians, French marines, French Territorials, African riflemen, and British fleet sustained the German attack; second, the Battle of Ypres, in which the British had the larger share; third, the German assaults on La Basses and Arras, in which the French and British united to repel the German onslaught.

Resolved at all costs to break through the Allied line to Calais, the armies of the Duke of Wurttemberg, 750,000 strong, on October 18, made many violent thrusts at various points along the 12-mile front between Nieuport and Dixmude.

The town of Nieuport on the River Yser, a mile from the sea, was defended by a force of 50,000 Belgians. The two villages of Lombartzyde and Westende, at the mouth of the river, were also occupied by the Belgians and some French Territorials.



On the seaward flank, one mile off the coast, three British monitors, with a draft of less than five feet, and mounting huge howitzers, were prepared to co-operate with the Belgians. A French naval division, under Admiral Ronarch, also brought their guns to bear on the German right. Advancing along the seacoast from Ostend, the right wing of Wurttemberg's army fell upon the villages of Lombartzyde and Westende, which they captured after a spirited resistance.

No sooner were the Germans in possession than the British monitors steamed up to within a half mile of the shore and deluged the village with shells from their howitzers and three-pounders. The German submarines from Ostend sought in vain to reach these British monitors, being unable to follow them into the shoal water. Torpedoes were fired at the British vessels, but they all passed harmlessly beneath their hulls, having been set for much greater depth than the monitors' draught. The German big guns also failed to reach the British vessels, while the British naval guns were able to sweep the country for six miles inland, taking a heavy toll of death.

Three Belgian batteries also opened fire on Lombartzyde and Westende, and the Germans were glad to abandon these towns when the houses began toppling down upon their heads. Prevented from approaching Nieuport by the main road down the coast, the Germans withdrew, leaving thousands of their dead behind in the village streets.

### The Fighting at Dixmude

NEAR Dixmude, on October 16, some two miles east of the Yser Canal, a force of 5000 Belgians, under Gen. Meyser, and 6000 French marines, under Admiral Ronarch, were savagely attacked by 100,000 Bavarians, commanded by the Duke of Wurttemberg.

Incredible though it may appear, that little handful of Belgians and French actually held the huge Bavarian army in check for several days, inflicting heavy losses on the foe. On October 19, the German high command ordered the Bavarians to cross the Yser "at any cost of men." In overwhelming masses the Bavarians advanced toward Dix-

mude, taking several villages at a high price in human life. On the 21st, they crossed the Yser Canal near Schoorebakhe, but were soon beaten back.

A furious bombardment of Dixmude by heavy howitzers was then begun, followed by eight separate assaults against the town. At nightfall 5000 Germans succeeded in crossing the Yser, but few of them were permitted to remain there. A German cavalry brigade, numbering 2000 horses, was driven back at the bayonet's point into the Yser River, while a German infantry brigade that had wormed its way into Dixmude was practically exterminated. Dixmude became a German cemetery.

Again the Germans penetrated into Dixmude. Bayonet fighting ensued from house to house and up and down the streets. In the end, the German battalion was either slain or captured.

Above Dixmude, near St. George's Chapelle, where the Germans had crossed the Yser, a strenuous struggle occurred. The Germans, after occupying Stuyvekenskerke, were expelled by the Belgians in a furious bayonet charge. Returning to the fray, the Germans concentrated their mitrailleuses on the canal bank close by, cutting the Belgian defensive force to pieces. Once again the Germans closed in on the village, but now they were confronted by the French, who drove them back across the Yser.

### Flooded Meadows Cause German Disaster

By October 25, the German advance had crossed the Yser at various points. Behind them were nearly a million and a half men. Only the most heroic measures could save Belgium from complete capture. In this crisis, Gen. Foch decided to inundate the whole region between Nieuport and Dixmude.

The meadows and fields of this district at high tide were below the sea level. By a system of sluices at the mouth of the Yser, near Nieuport, the waters of the canal and the numberless dykes and ditches which drain into it are ordinarily discharged into the sea. At high tide the sluices are closed and the land water held back until the sea again fills.

The Belgians dammed the lower reaches of this canal and the waters rapidly overflowed the brim, filling the meadows. The Germans soon were floundering in water knee deep, while their heavy guns were anchored in mud. To spread the inundation, the Belgians fired shells into the dyke walls, releasing a vast volume of water that covered the district occupied by the Germans.

### The Battle of Ramscapelle

THE Germans, though trapped, did not yet abandon their efforts. Their one chance of escape lay in capturing Nieuport and obtaining control of the sluices. By means of table tops, boards, planks, and other devices, the Bavarians crossed the flood and gained a foothold on the railway line, afterward occupying Ramscapelle. The Belgians at once made more breaches in the dams and opened the sluices still wider, until the seething waves rose to the level of the raised railroad tracks.

Then the Belgians and French hurled themselves on the Bavarians at Ramscapelle. For a time the Bavarians held their ground, but presently demoralization seized them and after the streets of the town had been littered with their dead, they broke and turned tail, fleeing toward the lake in their rear. The French "75's" then were brought up, and a hail of shell fell on the Bavarians as they floundered through the waist-high waters. Machine guns also came into play, raking the line of retreat. Soon the lake, between the Ramscapelle and the Yser Canal,

was dotted with the bodies of drowned Bavarians. The survivors were barely able to reach a haven of safety over the bridges at St. Georges, Schoorbakhe, and Tervaele.

The Battle of the Yser was at an end. Belgian and French valor had triumphed over Prussian numbers and ruthlessness. The Yser River, after this battle, ran red with blood. Canals in places were bridged with dead bodies. Germans had been drowned by thousands in the entrenchments when the flood came rushing in. On the edge of the flooded area, the Belgians and French infantry raked the doomed Germans with a pitiless fire of bullets, while the shells from the Allied fleet and land batteries broke incessantly over the waters.

Western Belgium was now as a vast charnel house filled with unburied corpses. The wounded thronged every available building, or lay by the thousands in the open without succor or shelter, facing death from exhaustion. Villages, towns, and hamlets had been reduced to ashheaps. Not only were all the roads torn up by shells, but the cemeteries were forced to give up their dead, bones dug up by shells being flung along the surface of the soil.

All the larger towns—Nieuport, Bruges, Dixmude, Ramscapelle, and Peroyse—were practically destroyed. In Nieuport, not one house remained undamaged, while the Cathedral and the Hotel de Ville were ruined beyond repair. The Germans in this battle lost nearly 300,000 men.

## The Battle of Ypres

British Forces, 150,000

Gen. Sir John French

German Forces, 400,000

Duke of Wurttemberg

THWARTED at Nieuport and Dixmude by the disaster which followed the inundation of the Yser, the Germans next attempted to force the British front near Ypres, a town on the banks of the Yperlee, 12 miles to the south. Here they were beyond range of the guns of the Allied fleet, which had wrought such destruction in their ranks at Nieuport.

On this front of 30 miles, Gen. Sir John French had scarcely 150,000 Britishers to sustain the attack, while the German forces, commanded by the Duke of Wurttemberg,

numbered 400,000. General Foch had promised, however, to send reinforcements to the British as soon as possible.

On the night of October 26—a night of inky darkness and torrential rain—the Germans in mass formation attacked the British front east and west of Ypres, but were beaten back so effectively and with such terrible losses that they needed three days in which to recuperate.

The Kaiser in person then came to Menin to direct the next assault, which was launched



on October 29 against the salient of the Gheluvelt crossroads near Kruseik. A reserve army corps, 50,000 men, was sent forward in mass to crush the line held at this point by 8000 exhausted Britishers. The heroic defence of Kruseik by the Britishers forms one of the brightest chapters in the annals of warfare, but in the end numbers prevailed and the British fell back to the slopes of the Gheluvelt ridge, where they checked the further advance of the Germans.

Bringing their heavy artillery into play, at dawn of the following day, the Germans directed their intensest fire against the ridge of Zandvoorde. Here the British trenches were obliterated and many of the brave Britishers were buried alive under mountains of debris. Yet the survivors managed somehow to preserve their line, retiring at dusk to Klein Zillebeke, a mile to the north.

The crisis of the battle came on October 31. Advancing along the Menin-Ypres road at daybreak, the Germans assaulted the village of Gheluvelt with great violence. The famous British Coldstream Guards, who sustained the brunt of the attack, were practically annihilated, while the British First Division was beaten back to the woods between Veldhoek and Hooge. The Royal Fusiliers, defending their trenches to the last gasp, were cut off and destroyed. Out of a thousand fusiliers only seventy survived.

The heroism of the British was beyond praise. Dismounted British cavalry again and again charged the Bavarians with their bayonets, hurling them back precipitately upon their reserves. In a desperate counter-attack, the British recaptured Gheluvelt. When evening fell, Ypres was still in their possession. But the Germans had seized the commanding hills of Messines and Hollebeke, which afforded them ideal gun positions for the bombardment of Ypres. On the same night fresh German troops relieved those who had fought during the day, flinging themselves repeatedly against the thin but dauntless British line. So attenuated was that line that it was necessary to press into trench service, in order to fill the many gaps, all the cooks, servants, orderlies, and cyclists attached to the British army.

Though shattered, bleeding, and wasted away, the British line somehow held until the arrival next day of the 16th French army, and with it Gen. Grosetti's 42d Division—Foch's battering ram at Fere Champenoise—to set up a new barrier against the Huns. With the arrival of this formidable fighting force the tide of battle turned and the road to Calais was closed forever against the German hordes.

### The Destruction of Ypres

ENCOMPASSED on three sides by the enemy, Ypres itself was marked for destruction. From the Messines and Hollebeke hills, the great German howitzers and field guns for ten days shelled the doomed city. The inhabitants, including many refugees from the countryside, at first took refuge in cellars, but the shells crashed through the houses, bursting in basements and bringing down upon their luckless heads endless cataracts of brick, masonry, and other debris. Day and night, without ceasing, the bombardment continued.

To add to the terrors of the inhabitants, fire broke out in the poorer quarters of the city, and spread unchecked, consuming hundreds of dwellings that had been spared by the shells. Left homeless, the populace fled in terror from the doomed city. On the 9th of November a general conflagration set in, completing the ruin of Ypres.

Though the city was now wholly deserted, the German batteries nevertheless continued to pour their heaviest shells into the town until Ypres was reduced to a mass of incandescent wreckage.

A last supreme effort was made by the Germans, on November 11, to break through the Ypres salient. This culminating stroke was to be delivered by the Prussian Guards, under the immediate eye of the Emperor. Advancing in mass formation along the Menin road in the direction of Gheluvelt, the Germans captured the first line British trenches and were still advancing when the British infantry halted them by an enfilading fire so deadly in its effect that a third of the Guards dropped on the field. Though urged on by their officers, the Guards reeled back to their trenches, defeated and utterly cowed.

In the Battle of Ypres, the British lost 40,000 men and the Germans 70,000 men.

### **Last Thrust at La Bassee, Armentieres, Arras**

FAILING to penetrate the Allied line between Ypres and the sea, the Germans made their final thrusts further south in the sector between Ypres and Arras. A picked force of 40,000 men had been assembled for this last effort to seize the channel ports. Supporting them was sufficient artillery, apparently, to blow all Europe into oblivion. Nevertheless, the Germans failed to pass.

Just north of the Lys River, at Armentieres, there was a gap in the Allied line thinly defended by French and British cavalry. For three days, beginning with October 27, the Germans had tried to force their way through without success, but at length they succeeded in pushing the Allied line back to St. Eloi, with heavy casualties on both sides.

Reinforcements were hurried to the scene, and on October 31, amidst a blizzard of hail, when Gheluvelt had fallen and the British line was all but yielding, orders for an immediate advance were given. The Britishers sprang at their foes and whipped them to a standstill, turning a near victory into a defeat.

At Armentieres, on November 5, the Germans brought into play a new and terrible type of mortar which threw projectiles weighing half a ton or more. At dawn, they raked the Allied line with high angle fire, the giant shells falling plump into the British trenches. An enormous mass of infantry was then hurled against the Allied line in mass formation.

They presented a perfect target for the British riflemen, who raked their ranks with a storm of shrapnel and bullets, taking a frightful toll of death. The German lines wavered and then broke. Instantly the Britishers sprang over their parapets and charged the retreating foe with fixed bayonets. One stubborn line of Germans, covering the retreat, turned and faced the Britishers. A desperate hand-to-hand struggle took place, but the Germans were finally driven back to their own position.

An artillery duel on the most gigantic scale took place amidst the orchards and copses of La Bassee, where the Germans perished by thousands in a hopeless attempt to break through the French lines. The battle was unlike any ever fought before. Nowhere was a gun or a gunner exposed, all being concealed by wily devices. The French infantry, from their place of concealment, refused to be lured forth.

The German infantry, on several occasions, simulated attacking movements, hoping to draw out the French. Approaching the French lines, they fired countless rounds of ammunition at no target in particular. But on the last approach of the Huns, the French uprose from their hiding places and sent a hurricane of shrapnel into the German ranks, decimating and demoralizing them. The artillery fire, though deafening and awe-inspiring, was far from effective.

Though desultory fighting took place in this area up to the close of the year, no decisive engagement was fought. The Germans had failed utterly to achieve their two great ends, first to turn the flank of the Allied line, or, failing that, to pierce the line and break through to the channel ports. They had lost the offensive and must continue the war on lines prescribed by the Allies. The backbone of the German offensive was broken by the Allies at Ypres.

### **500,000 Dead in Flanders**

FLANDERS proved a gruesome graveyard for all the combatants. The Germans left 350,000 dead upon that battle field, while the Allies lost fully 150,000. To the Allied forces the British contributed 50,000, or more than half of their Expeditionary Forces; the French, 75,000; and the Belgians, 25,000.

The whole area of Flanders was a shambles. Rivers and lakes were choked with human bodies. Thousands of corpses lay unburied on hillsides and plains. The whole region was a hideous mass of ruins. Hundreds of towns and thousands of villages were reduced to ashes.



WESTERN THEATER, SEPT. 29—NOV. 6

**Evacuation of Antwerp and Flight of 500,000 Inhabitants**

Entire Belgian Army Endangered by Blunder of Lord Churchill  
 Belgian Government Removes First to Ostend, Then to Havre, France.

SECTION 16—1914

Belgian Army, 120,000  
 Gen. Moranville  
 King Albert  
 Brig. Gen. Paris

German Army, 200,000  
 Gen. von Beseler  
 Field Marshal von der Goltz  
 Gen. von Boehm

**A**FTER the fall of Liege and Namur, the plucky Belgian army had retreated before the German hordes to the strongly fortified city of Antwerp, one of the largest and richest of all the ports in the world, with a population of 350,000. The Belgian court and King Albert's government had also retired within the Antwerp lines. Here the army of 120,000, commanded by Gen. Moranville, awaited the siege that was sure to begin.

On August 23, the day of the battle of Mons, the Belgians learned that a large German force had been withdrawn from Belgium to assist in the attack on Mons. To relieve the pressure on the Allies by compelling the return of these German armies, Gen. Moranville marched a single corps south and drove the Germans out of Malines. In retaliation, the Germans flew a Zeppelin over Antwerp, and several civilians were killed by the explosion of bombs.

Continuing their march, the Belgian army spread out, on a line from Termonde to Aerschot, capturing Alost, laying siege to Cortenburg, and threatening the German communications. Fearing von Kluck's flank might be attacked, the German high command hastily recalled the army of von Boehm from Mons and the army of Gen. Beseler, which had been held in reserve at Lille.

The new German army, now numbering 200,000, went in pursuit of the Belgian corps, numbering 50,000, which had meanwhile taken Aerschot and Louvain. A four days' battle was fought, September 13-17, on the line of the Malines-Louvain railroad, resulting in the retirement of the Belgians to Antwerp. The Belgian army, however, had attained its object; which was to compel the recall of the German reinforcements, and the consequent relief of the pressure on the

British and French armies at Mons and Charleroi.

**Antwerp Forts Are Reduced**

THE siege of Antwerp began September 28, when the huge German howitzers opened fire on the forts south of the River Nethe. The German guns had an effective range of seven and one-half miles, while the utmost range of the Belgian howitzers was only six miles. The Antwerp forts, therefore, were doomed from the beginning. Two of the forts were quickly silenced. On the third day of the siege, the Germans shelled the main waterworks of Antwerp. The dyke gave way and the water flooded the infantry trenches which had been dug between the forts, submerging the field guns and depriving the city of all its water supply except that drawn from artesian wells. Meanwhile, the Belgian army was being forced back across the Nethe River as each outlying fort collapsed.

The doom of the city was sealed on Friday, October 3, when the Belgian government prepared to transfer to Ostend. The evacuation of the civilians already was in progress, when a detachment of 6000 British marines arrived, in command of Brig. Gen. Paris, and accompanied by Winston Churchill, First Lord of the British Admiralty, who requested that the Belgian army postpone its evacuation till further reinforcements arrived. Against his better judgment, King Albert agreed. When first he had appealed for British aid, some days before, King Albert had expected that an army of 50,000 would be sent to the succour of Belgium, and no doubt the British would have been glad to have sent that number could they have done so.

Lord Churchill could only spare 6000 men in Antwerp's grave crisis, and this number,

of course, could render no effective aid. He has been criticized by English historians for having urged King Albert to delay the evacuation of Antwerp until the entire Belgian army was in immediate danger of capture.

For this blunder, Churchill was relieved from office and given a colonel's commission in the British army. The evacuation of the Belgian army was so long delayed that only two-thirds of the forces were able to escape toward Ostend and Ghent. Full 30,000 Belgian and British soldiers were driven into Holland, where they were interned for the remainder of the war.

### 500,000 People Flee From Antwerp

As the German besiegers closed in on Antwerp, the inhabitants of numerous adjacent towns fled for refuge into the city, until 500,000 civilians were centered there. On the 7th of October, Antwerp was in a state of panic, as the roar of the German howitzers drew nearer.

Fearing the fate visited upon the people of Louvain and Aerschot, the Antwerpians prepared for evacuation. Then ensued one of the wildest scenes in modern history—a

whole population of 500,000 in panic flight. Before nightfall 250,000 had escaped from the doomed city, some by water, others by land.

The harbor was alive with crafts of all descriptions, submerged to the water line with the weight of their human freight. Many thousands escaped to Ghent; some 200,000 exiles on foot managed to reach Bergen in Holland, without food and penniless. Infants were prematurely born on the way and many elderly persons died by the wayside from exposure. The good people of Holland shared their food and shelter with these refugees.

Meanwhile, the military authorities in Antwerp had set fire to the petroleum tanks on the left bank of the Scheldt, and the dense black columns of smoke covered the doomed city like a pall, while masses of seething flames illuminated the foreground.

Conflagrations had broken out in several parts of the city, and the incessant roar of guns, meteoric showers of fiery projectiles, and bursting of shells completed the frightful impression of a stupendous outbreak of baneful, unearthly forces.

WESTERN THEATER, AUG. 8—SEPT. 20

## The Revolting Atrocities in Belgium Horrify Humanity

Thousands Are Tortured, Massacred, Violated, Burned Alive, Crucified

SECTION 17—1914

THE heart of humanity was inexpressibly shocked by the revelation of the frightful atrocities committed by the German Vandals during their invasion of Belgium and northern France. Even now, when those horrific scenes are fading in the distance, the mind recoils at recollection of the dastardly deeds that have heaped ignominy on the name of Germany forever. It was as though devils, not humans, were seeking to carry out the destructive will of a thousand Satans.

Infuriated by the heroic resistance set up by the Belgians, the barbarous Huns massacred whole villages of innocent people, sparing neither age nor sex. Hundreds of non-combatants were driven into burning buildings, at the point of bayonets and burned alive.

Thousands of young women, including many nuns, were fiendishly violated. Countless mothers and girls were herded into trains and rushed into Germany to meet a fate worse than death.

Children were crucified or pinned by bayonets against the walls of their homes. Babies were shot as they reclined on their mothers' breasts. Families without number were exterminated. Beautiful cities, filled with priceless art treasures, were deliberately destroyed. Twenty-five thousand ruined villages and towns mark the trail of the Prussian-Vandal.

### The Triangle of Terror

KAISER WILLIAM had broken his plighted word, by authorizing the invasion of Belgium on "strategical grounds," and had shaken for



all time the faith of civilized nations in treaties and international agreements.

Violence and cunning were exalted in the German war book, as the ideal method of conducting a German war, and all means were classed as permissible if the object of the war could be attained. Cruelty and ruthlessness were encouraged, as tending to shorten warlike operations, and make them more effective. Pity and sympathy with human pain, were feelings unworthy of German warriors; all such sentiments must be discouraged on strategical grounds.

The vast masses of troops which the Germans could use for their turning movement against France amply sufficed to overcome the small, ill-equipped Belgian army, and huge mobile howitzers could raze the forts to the ground, but these measures might take too long. The pace must be accelerated at all costs; the path of the armies must be rolled flat, no matter if the great pitiless rollers crushed the bodies of a whole free people into the soil, leaving a trail of innocent blood to dye the great flat roads in their wake.

The German armies destined for the Belgian turning movement crossed the Belgian frontier between Malmedy and Aix-la-Chapelle. Near Liege the great tramping columns of troops divided, some to advance along the valley of the Meuse and cross higher up the river, some to move by Louvain and Brussels.

The city of Malines lies to the northward of this route and close to the outer forts of Antwerp, behind which the bulk of the Belgian Field Army retired after offering a gallant resistance.

The triangle based on the towns of Malines, Charleroi, and Liege, became a Triangle of Terror, in which the policy of cruel and inhuman torture, of a defenceless civilian population, was deliberately adopted by the Kaiser on "strategical grounds."

The German soldiers, on August 19, gave themselves up to debauchery in the streets of Liege. Trained incendiaries set fire to houses, and the occupants were either burned, or shot while trying to escape. The Liege fire brigade were prevented from extinguishing the flames, and their carts used to transfer to the Town Hall the heaps of civilian dead

that cumbered the streets. Women and girls were permitted to leave the burning houses, but men were either shot or burned alive.

The atrocities perpetrated in Belgium during the passage of the German armies were deliberately prescribed, in order to take the heart out of the Belgian army, and lessen the prospects of resistance which would delay the German movements at a critical time.

The still worse atrocities which occurred, after the great army had swept forward, were deliberately prescribed to secure the safety of the German lines of communication, which were vital to the maintenance of the forces in the front line.

The depositions of eye witnesses reek with descriptions of cruelty, which the mind of man can hardly conceive as having occurred in Europe since the days of Attila or of Genghis Khan.

One Belgian soldier, returning to his home near Malines, found the dead bodies of his father, mother, brother, and sister, each with both feet cut off just below the ankle and both hands severed just above the wrist. Corpses of bayoneted women, girls, and children, all horribly mutilated, bestrewed the countryside.

### Butchery in the Liege District

THE more fiendish atrocities committed in the Liege district may be thus summarized: Four men tied together, tortured with bayonets and with lighted cigarets in ears and nostrils, then murdered. Boy murdered by cutting his throat and cutting out his tongue. Women bayoneted. Baby girl dragged from her mother's arms, dashed to the ground, and murdered. Boy of twelve, hand cut off for clinging to parents, who were being pushed into a burning building to be burned alive. Girl of ten, ears cut off. Two men buried alive. Two little children bayoneted, lying murdered at the feet of a woman tied naked to a tree, murdered and mutilated. \*Violation of girls twelve years of age. Small baby's head cut off. Child of five years ripped open, after parents were slain. Whole villages burned. Hundreds of civilians shot in masses.

The trail of the Beast through the Meuse and Sambre valleys, in the Charleroi district,



was marked by unbelievable atrocities, a partial summary of which is as follows: 'Town of Seilles burned, inhabitants massacred. Defenceless man in Huy tortured and killed slowly by hanging. Farmer's family burned alive at Marhovelette. Peasants hacked to pieces with swords at Bournine. Namur set on fire and inhabitants killed when escaping from burning houses.

Hospital set on fire deliberately. Cripple of thirty-six and a paralyzed old man of eighty shot in cold blood. Boys of fifteen, twelve, and eight years murdered. Girl of seven bayoneted in the neck and killed. Civilian hostages, including priests, roped in and used as a screen for German troops from enemy's fire.

Nuns and young girls herded on to a bridge at Montigny and used as a screen against the enemy's fire. Women burned alive at Bouffoulx.

Inhabitants of Charleroi deliberately suffocated with burning straw in cellars where they had taken refuge. Indiscriminate murders of inhabitants throughout the district.

### **The Terror In Aerschot**

BURGOMASTER of Aerschot and 150 civilians shot in cold blood. Women shot and bayoneted at Aerschot. Woman and baby killed at Rodenburg. Three months' old baby strangled in mother's arms. Boy of seven bayoneted. Boy of eight beheaded. Priest murdered and legs cut off.

Girl of eleven crucified to a door. Houses at Aerschot burned, women and children shot while escaping from them. Woman hanged to a tree and bayoneted.

### **Atrocities During the German Retreat**

DURING the German retreat in August these atrocities were authentically reported: Boy burned to death. Old woman murdered. Young girl bayoneted. Young woman's legs cut off. Boy of ten hanged by the neck. Boy of sixteen bayoneted. Peasant woman's eyes gouged out. Public violation of women. Feet of six children severed. Child of ten months pierced through with a lance. Child of five years hanged to a tree.

Old women clubbed to death with butts of rifles. Men of seventy strangled. Hands of four children cut off. Men burned alive. Old

man decapitated. Hands and feet of a boy of four cut off. Heads and hands of a woman and her three children cut off. Thirty wounded prisoners bayoneted. Child of seven and woman of forty decapitated. Whole family murdered for trying to defend a girl from being ravished.

### **Louvain Wantonly Destroyed**

THE barbarous Huns began those acts of vandalism, which have made their name execrated throughout the world, shortly after the fall of Namur. Entering the beautiful university city of Louvain, August 26, they at once disarmed the Civic Guards and confiscated the arms. Then, under orders of Major von Manteufel, they began the systematic destruction of the city.

Incendiary bombs and paraffin-soaked rags were thrown in through numberless windows of dwelling houses. Soon the city was a roaring furnace. The famous University, with its priceless library was destroyed; the Halles, notable for their arches, were reduced to ruins, and hundreds of houses were burned to the ground; only the walls of St. Peter's remained intact.

Defenceless priests and laymen, women and children were herded together, bound, beaten, stoned, spat upon, and driven long distances into the interior.

Hundreds of "hostages" were taken by train, densely packed in horse trucks deep with dung, into Germany, and upon their arrival jeered at by Germans. Many of these hostages became insane. Patients were turned out of hospitals and the buildings burned. Priests were selected for the most brutal treatment. One little girl of six was slowly cut to pieces in the presence of her father and mother.

### **Malines Three Times Bombarded**

THE wanton destruction of Malines (or Mechlin) was another crime for which no palliation can be offered. King Albert's army, darting out of Antwerp on the 23d of August, had retaken Malines, but was compelled to vacate the city four days later.

In a fit of pure pique, the Germans bombarded Malines, August 27, directing their fire at the Cathedral of St. Rombaut, and partially wrecking it. On September 2, they



resumed the bombardment, again damaging the facade of the Cathedral, the populace fleeing in wild panic from the city.

Three weeks later, on September 26, when the inhabitants were returning to Malines, the town for the third time was bombarded and a fire started which raged furiously for several days. Thus this beautiful city was put to the torch without the excuse of military necessity to justify the barbarous crime.

### **Termonde Shares the Same Fate**

THE historic town of Termonde was occupied by the Germans early in September, and shared the fate of Louvain and Malines. An enormous fine had been levied upon the inhabitants, and on the pretext that this fine was withheld, the Vandal-Prussians deliberately destroyed the beautiful city with all its priceless treasures.

Inflammable oil was sprayed upon houses from hose carts and the city soon was in roaring flames. The destruction of Termonde was absolute, the city being literally leveled to the ground.

The superb Cathedral of Notre Dame, with its paintings by Vandyck and Reubens, and the historic Town Hall, were totally destroyed. Thousands of families were rendered homeless, fleeing penniless and starving through Belgium into France.

### **Hundreds of Towns Blotted Out**

MORE than 2500 villages and towns were laid waste by the vindictive Vandals, whose uppermost thought was to strike terror into the hearts of the inhabitants. Dinant and Tamines soon shared the fate of Louvain, Malines, and Termonde.

### **Looting and Pillage**

WHILE these towns were being put to the torch or shattered by shells, the Germans looted many wealthy Belgian homes of all their valuables. Louvain was stripped bare of everything worth the taking. Beautiful works of art were ripped from their frames and shipped to Germany. Household furniture was wantonly destroyed.

Nothing was left intact which might profit the inhabitants in event of their return.

Only the complete extinction of the homes of Belgians would satisfy the merciless Vandals.

### **Wholesale Massacres of Belgians and Alsatians**

THE pages of remotest history may be scanned in vain for a record of such unparalleled atrocities as were visited upon the defenceless victims of Belgium and Alsace, by the Vandal conquerors. Like beasts of the jungle, the German barbarians glutted themselves in human blood. Aged people, mothers with babes at their breasts, innocent children were bayoneted, shot, or burned to death.

Untold thousands of girls were torn from their homes, herded in trains, and sent into Germany, to suffer a fate worse than death. Belgian women and girls were used as a screen to protect the firing lines of the German armies. And later, when food supplies intended for the starving people began to arrive, they were seized by the Germans and appropriated to their own use.

### **The Investigating Commission**

THE Bryce Commission, charged by the British government with the duty of investigating the whole subject of Hun atrocities in Belgium and northern France, cited revolting atrocities that shocked the entire civilized world.

The evidence is conclusive that there were organized massacres of the civil population in many parts of Belgium and Alsace. Innocent men and women among the civilians were murdered in large numbers; women were violated; children even put to torture.

The massacres, looting, incendiarism, and isolated murders were ordered and countenanced by the officers of the German army. The rules and usages of war were frequently broken, in the murder of wounded prisoners, and in the frequent abuse of the Red Cross and the white flag.

### **664 Civilians Shot at Dinant**

AT Dinant alone, 664 civilians were herded in a square near the convent and shot; sixty other corpses were recovered from a hole in the brewery yard, and forty-eight bodies of women and children were found in a garden.

At Louvain, while the Huns were setting fire to the city, bands of soldiers would break into the houses and set fire to them, shooting the inhabitants who tried to leave their dwellings. Many persons who took refuge in their cellars were burned to death.

### Children Wantonly Killed

At Aerschot, the fifteen-year-old son of the burgomaster was put to death in revenge for the shooting of a German soldier. In Hofstade, the dead body of a boy five years old was found with his hands nearly severed. The corpses of a woman and a boy were seen at the blacksmith's. They had been killed with the bayonet.

Two children, aged three and four years, were wantonly killed in the village of Weerde, as they stood in the roadway prattling with their mother. At Boortmeerbeek, a German soldier was seen to fire three times at a little girl five years old. Having failed to shoot her he subsequently bayoneted her. At Halcht, the bodies of ten civilians were seen lying in a row by a brewery well.

At Dinant, sixty women and children were confined in the cellar of a convent from Sunday morning till the following Friday without food or water except for a carrot thrown to each prisoner on Wednesday.

A great crowd of women, children, and men from Aerschot were marched to Louvain and suddenly exposed to fire from machine guns and rifles. Numbers were killed.

### Hundreds of Belgians Burned Alive

HUNDREDS of Belgians were driven within their fired dwellings and burned alive. Many others, who had taken refuge in the cellars of their homes, shared a similar fate.

At Triaucourt, the Huns gave themselves up to the worst excesses. Here many women and girls were violated; the village was burned, and a systematic massacre of the inhabitants begun. Among these victims were two grandmothers, each above eighty years of age, who were shot while trying to escape. While the carnage reigned, the fire rapidly spread and 35 houses were destroyed. An old man of seventy and a child of two months perished in the flames.

### A Carnival of Murder

ALL through Belgium and northern France, in hundreds of towns and villages, there was a carnival of murder, a Saturnalia of crime, rivaling the worst excesses of the barbarous armies that followed in the train of Attila, Alaric, Genghis Khan, and Tamerlane.

These crimes were committed, not by a race confessedly barbarous, but by a people who esteemed themselves the most cultured race on earth, yet who in reality were more base than the lowest race of barbarians that the world had hitherto known.

On the 22d of August, 1914, the Germans occupied Tamines in Belgium. After burning 242 houses, the Hun soldiers drove 374 of the inhabitants to the bank of the river and massacred them by machine-gun fire, some of the wounded being finished off by bayonet thrusts.

### Killed While At Prayer

FROM the private diaries taken from the bodies of dead German soldiers, corroboration is had of some of the atrocities perpetrated in Belgium.

The diary of Eitel Anders reads: "In Vendre, all the inhabitants without exception were brought out and shot. This shooting was heartbreaking, as they all knelt down and prayed. It is real sport, yet it was terrible to watch. At Haecht, I saw the dead body of a young girl nailed by her hands to the outside door of a cottage. She was about fourteen or sixteen years old."

The notebook of Private Max Thomas reads: "Our soldiers are so excited, we are like wild beasts. Today, destroyed eight houses with their inmates. Bayoneted two men with their wives and a girl of eighteen. The little one almost unnerved me, so innocent was her expression.

"During the retreat from Malines, eight German soldiers met a child of three years. One of the soldiers skewered her on his bayonet and carried the corpse away amidst the plaudits of his comrades."

### Innocent to Suffer with the Guilty

THE infamous Gen. von Lieber, on August 27, gave out this proclamation: "The town



of Waevre will be set on fire and destroyed without distinction of persons. The innocent will suffer with the guilty." True to his promise, the town was destroyed and all its inhabitants were massacred.

In a village in Lorraine, the Germans had set up their machine guns in a church belfry, and to insure their own safety they imprisoned 275 French women and children in the church, warning the French soldiers that if they fired upon the machine-gun rest, they would kill their own kith and kin. One dark night, after the women had suffered tortures for several days, they sent out a little boy with a message to the French soldiers, imploring them to fire upon the belfry, since they would prefer death to a continuance of the horrors to which they had been subjected. The belfry was demolished and the bombardment resulted in the death of twenty women and children.

The savage Huns, upon their arrival in the town of Gerbeviller, Lorraine, hung a boy by the neck to the limb of a pear tree.

After sacking the village of Hastiere-par-dela, on August 23, the Germans killed and wounded a large number of inhabitants, including the parish priest and the schoolmaster, upon condemnation of a court martial conducted by drunken officers.

At sunrise, eighteen men, including the priests, were summarily shot upon the allegation that a girl of fifteen had fired on one of the German officers.

At Gerbeviller, the Bavarian troops rushed into the houses with savage yells, pillaging and destroying, and killing men, women, and children.

At Senlis, where the Germans were opposed by African troops, they revenged themselves upon the townspeople, killing many of the inhabitants, including the mayor, and destroying 105 houses.

#### Male Inhabitants Consigned to the Flames

THE diary of an officer of the 178th Regiment, Twelfth Saxon Army Corps, relates the destruction of the beautiful village of Gue D'Hossus in Belgium. "Apparently a cyclist fell from his machine, and in the fall his gun went off itself. Straightway there was firing in his direction. The male inhabitants were simply consigned to the flames."

The diary of a soldier of the same regiment tells of the murder of 43 civilians in a town north of Dinant.

Reservist Schlauter of the 4th Regiment of field artillery writes that 300 inhabitants of a town in Belgium were shot.

On August 26 Major Gen. Stenger, commander of the 58th Brigade, issued an order that all prisoners be put to death, the wounded as well as the armed. "No enemy shall be left alive behind us."

#### 5,000 Belgians Murdered

It is conservatively estimated that 5,000 Belgian men, women, and children, all non-combatants, were put to death in a most fiendish brutal manner by the Huns.

ASIATIC THEATER, AUG. 23—NOV.

## Japan Declares War Against Germany in the Far East

Germany Loses Her Stronghold of Tsing-tau and Her Islands in the South Pacific

SECTION 18—1914

Japanese Army, 22,980

Lieut. Gen. Kamio

Maj. Gen. Horiuchi

Gen. Yamada

Gen. Johogi

Vice-Admiral Kamimura

English Force, 1369

Col. N. W. Barnardisten

German Garrison, 5,000 Marines

Admiral Meyer-Waldeck

**A**NOTHER nemesis confronted Germany in the Far East, on August 15, 1914, when Japan delivered an ultimatum to Emperor William, demanding the

evacuation of the fortified city of Tsing-tau, on the tip end of the Shantung peninsula in China, which Germany had taken from China in 1898 on a "lease" of 99 years.

Japan also demanded the withdrawal of all German warships from Asiatic waters and the restoration to China before September 15, 1914, of the province of Kiau-chau, on the Shantung Peninsula, which Germany had acquired by "concession" in 1897.

### Causes of the War

JAPAN had acted in this matter upon request of Great Britain, with which nation she had signed a treaty of alliance, on August 12, 1905, having for its object the maintenance of peace in Eastern Asia and India, the preservation of the independence and integrity of the Chinese Empire, and the defence of their special interests in the Far East.

But the principal motive which influenced Japan was the desire to retaliate upon Germany for having outraged her sovereignty after the close of the China-Japanese War. Japan, during that war, had captured Port Arthur, but Germany compelled her to relinquish this prize of war to Russia, and then seized the province of Kiau-chau as her share of the spoils.

There followed a scramble among the European nations to seize desirable sections of China. England took possession of Weihau-wei, France acquired control of Kwan-chow Bay, Germany held Tsing-tau, and Russia regained Port Arthur, while Japan was left out in the cold. These acts of spoilation led up to the Boxer rebellion in China, in 1910, when several missionaries and other Europeans were put to death. It was then that Germany confirmed her seizure of Kiau-chau by compelling China to grant her a "lease" of the province for 99 years.

Japan, therefore, was elated when England, on August 4, 1914, proposed the German fortress city of Tsing-tau be seized and all German warships expelled from Asiatic waters. But first Japan stipulated that she should be allowed to hold Tsing-tau if she succeeded in expelling the Germans. To this proposal England, and subsequently France, consented by secret treaty.

### Japan Declares War

A TIME-LIMIT of nine days had been fixed by Japan for Germany's acceptance of her ultimatum, but Germany scornfully ignored

the mandate. Accordingly, on the day appointed, August 23, 1914, Japan formally declared war against Germany.

There were many Germans living in Japan, but none of these were molested, all being permitted to pursue their regular vocations. In Germany, however, a different policy was adopted. Every Japanese subject in Germany was arrested and all the funds deposited by the Japanese Government in the Deutsche Bank of Berlin were seized. The German Ambassador remained at the Japanese capitol until August 30.

### Bombardment of Tsing-tau Forts

ON August 25, 1914, the day before the formal Declaration of War, a squadron of twelve Japanese battleships, with a fleet of transports carrying 22,980 soldiers and 142 heavy siege guns, headed for Tsing-tau. The fleet was in command of Vice-Admiral Hiko-nojo Kamimura, while the land forces were commanded by Lieut. Gen. Mitsoumi Kamio, Maj. Gen. B. Horiuchi and Maj. Gen. Hanzo Yamanashi.

Tsing-tau and its environs formed a large entrenched camp protected by 23 forts of concrete and steel, garrisoned by 5000 German marines. The first line of defence, on the seaside, consisted of five forts connected by trenches and protected by barbed wire entanglements.

The second principal defences were the heights known as Mt. Moltke, Mt. Bismarck, and Mt. Iltis, commanding the plain. The outer line of defence, eight miles long, was along the Litsum River to the sea, at a distance of some ten miles from the city.

The harbor mouth had been sewn with mines, and the shores for twenty miles were guarded by batteries. In the harbor was an Austrian warship, the Kaiserin Elizabeth, and four gunboats. Three airplanes assisted in the defence. The command of the German forces was vested in the Governor-General of Kiau-chau, Admiral Meyer-Waldeck.

Proposals were under way to remove the Austrian warship to a place of safety, but at the last moment Austria elected to assist Germany against Japan, so it was necessary for Japan to declare war against Austria.

The plan of the land attack called for a landing at the northern base of the peninsula,



from which the troops were to advance inland, cutting the railroad and extending their line across the base of the narrow tongue of land. After cutting off the city from the north, the force was to move toward the forts and commence the siege.

The bombardment of the Tsing-tau forts opened on August 26, 1914. On the following day the Japanese marines seized several small islands in Kiau-chau Bay, sweeping the harbor of mines. At the same time a squadron of Japanese airplanes dropped bombs upon the wireless station, the electric power station, the railway terminal, and the boats in the harbor.

One hundred Japanese women divers had previously volunteered to release the mines from their moorings, but their offer was declined, as the Japanese law prohibits the employment of women in warlike operations.

#### Chinese Protest as Japanese Land Troops

ON September 2, 10,000 Japanese troops were landed at Lungchow, thereby isolating the fortress from the mainland. The Chinese Government at once protested against this invasion of Chinese soil. To this objection the Japanese replied that military necessity justified the act, but that no permanent occupancy was intended. The advance was halted for a fortnight by heavy rains. Then, on September 12, the railway station at Kiau-chau was occupied.

Six days later the Japanese seized the railway which penetrates the peninsula, and again China protested. This time Japan insisted that the seizure was justifiable, since the railroad was owned by Germany.

The river now being in flood, land operations were still further delayed. Meanwhile, the Japanese airmen had not been idle. Bombs were dropped daily upon the city and the boats in the harbor, causing much damage. Circulars, calling upon the defenders to surrender, were also scattered over the town.

#### First Naval Losses

MEANWHILE, the battleship *Kaiserin Elizabeth* had been riddled and sunk by Japanese shell fire; the Japanese cruiser *Takachiho* had been sunk by a torpedo; a German mer-

chant ship in the harbor had been destroyed by aerial bombs; two Japanese destroyers had been lost in a typhoon, and havoc generally had been caused among the Japanese fleet.

#### The Siege Begins

AN English force of 1369 men, under Lieut. Col. N. W. Barnardisten, commander of the British army in North China, landed on the peninsula September 23 and joined the Japanese. Three days later, the floods having subsided, the Japanese resumed their advance, pushing the Germans forward for two days to within five miles of the fortress, at a loss of fifteen killed and wounded. At the same time two British warships arrived in the harbor and the fleet began a general bombardment.

On September 30, the Japanese drove the Germans within their fortifications, completely surrounding Tsing-tau, and digging zigzag trenches up to the very face of the German defences, with utter disregard of the storm of shells that fell about them. The German gunners, during eight days, fired 10,000 shells from the forts on the hills without causing any loss of life among the Japanese.

The actual siege was begun on October 15, but notice having been given, many women and children were permitted to leave the besieged city and pass through the Japanese lines to the rear.

The city of Tsing-tau was not in serious straits. There was food on hand sufficient to feed the populace for three months, but the supply of running water ceased by October 20. When it became evident that the end was drawing near, Admiral Meyer-Waldeck commanded that the warships in the harbor be blown up and the munitions in the forts destroyed.

#### The Final Bombardment and Surrender

HAVING by this time found the exact range, the Japanese and English gunners began their final bombardment on October 31, 1914, with 142 guns, sending a deluge of shells into the German defences.

Under cover of this terrific fire, the Allied troops drove their saps and zigzag trenches up to the very slopes of the fort, prepared

to take the place by storm. For seven days the bombardment continued, the warships uniting with the land batteries. The German defenders replied bravely.

The electric light station having been destroyed, the city was in darkness for several nights. The non-combatants during the bombardment had taken refuge in their cellars, where they cared for the wounded.

### Tsing-tau Surrenders

ON the night of November 6, several companies of infantry and engineers, led by Gen. Yoshimi Yamada, charged across the open ground, seizing the middle fort in the first line of defences. Before dawn, the next day, a grand assault was made, which gave the Japanese and British possession of all but the last line of defences, at a cost of 450 men. An hour later, when 20,000 Japanese were preparing for the final charge, flags of surrender were flown from all the German forts.

The formal capitulation of Tsing-tau came at 7.50 p. m., November 7, 1914, the Germans surrendering unconditionally. Three days later, Governor Meyer-Waldeck formally transferred possession to Gen. Kamio and Germany had lost her last stronghold in Asia.

The Allied forces entered the city on November 16, taking 4043 prisoners, including

the governor-general and 201 German officers, together with 100 machine guns, 2500 rifles, 30 field guns, and some ammunition.

The Japanese losses in the campaign were 236 killed and 1282 wounded; the British, 12 killed and 63 wounded; the Germans, 1000 killed or wounded by the explosion of German land mines.

### German Pacific Islands Siezed

GERMANY not only lost her Asiatic colony of Kiau-chau, but her group of island possessions in the Pacific. These included German New Guinea, the Bismarck Archipelago, the Caroline, Pelem Marrana, Solomon and Marshall Islands, and a portion of the Samoan group.

### How Japan's Navy Assisted

JAPAN rendered valuable aid to the Allies during the War. Her battleships patrolled the Pacific and Indian Oceans, and the China Sea. Three groups of German raiders were driven from the Pacific; marines were landed at Singapore to quell riots; a Japanese destroyer squadron was sent to the assistance of the Allies in the Mediterranean, and more important still, Japan supplied Russia with enormous quantities of guns, ammunitions, military stores, and Red Cross supplies.

..... EASTERN THEATER. SEPT. 8—DEC. 15 .....

## Serbia Triumphs Over Austria, Annihilating an Invading Army

Following This Victory, a Quarter of Serbia's Population Die of Typhus

..... SECTION 19 — 1914 .....

Serbian Army, 200,000  
Field Marshal Putnick

Austrian Army, 300,000  
Archduke Frederick

**A**FTER clipping the wings of the Austrian eagle at Jadar in August, and compelling its flight across the frontier, the Serbians in September took the offensive by joining the Montenegrins in an attack upon Serajevo, the Bosnian capital, then in Austrian possession.

The Serbo-Montenegrin armies on September 8th, attempted the crossing of the Drina River, but were beaten back on the following day by a powerful Austrian army, which succeeded in gaining a foothold on the Serbian side.

A week later the Serbians struck at the Austrian center, compelling its retirement across the river, but the right flank of the Austrian army maintained its position, giving it the control of a bridgehead and the road from Liubovia to Valjeva. In this engagement the Austrians sustained heavy losses.

Burning for an opportunity to retrieve their two defeats, the Austrians, in October, took advantage of Hindenberg's drive in Russian Poland to withdraw an army of 150,000 seasoned troops from Galicia and launch a new campaign in Serbia.



The Austrians particularly aimed at seizing the Morava-Vardar Road with a view to establishing communications with Turkey. Their plan of campaign was to advance through Valjevo to the western Morava valley and thence down this valley to Nish, the temporary capital of Serbia.

South of Valjevo, there is a continuous line of ridges extending to the Save River at Obrenovats. It was on this series of ridges that the Serbians decided to take their defensive positions.

The Austrians, in this third invasion, entered Serbia from two directions. One Austrian column crossed the Drina River on the west, the other column crossing the Danube on the northeast. Without opposition, these columns gradually converged toward the ridges on which the Serbians had taken their position.

Meanwhile, daily for weeks, the capital city, Belgrade, had been bombarded, and it at last fell in December, after an heroic resistance. Town after town had surrendered to the Austrian invaders and it looked as if the fate of Serbia was sealed.

#### **Austrians Meet with Disaster**

ON December 1, the Austrians assaulted the Maljin and Rudnik Ridges, on which the Serbian army was posted. In two days they had gained positions on the lower hills and the western ridge of Rudnik. Another week must surely have witnessed the capture of the Serbian armies, but on December 3, word reached the Austrians that, in far off Galicia, the Russians had once more scaled the Carpathians and swarmed out upon the Hungarian plains.

Fearful for the safety of their own land, the Austrians attempted to disengage them-

selves from the battle with the Serbians and return into Galicia. Three Austrian corps were hastily withdrawn from the battlefront.

Now was Serbia's opportunity to strike a deadly blow at the enemy. Sweeping down from the ridges, the Serbians engaged the retreating Austrians in fierce hand-to-hand struggle. In less than two weeks the great Austrian army was all but annihilated. The right wing, caught in the hills, was totally destroyed. The remnant of the left and center escaped northward through Shabatz and Belgrade, and crossed into Austria.

Of all the Austrian forces, only a third survived to cross the Danube. On December 15, the Serbians retook Belgrade. Serbia was free once more!

#### **Serbia Swept by Epidemic of Typhus**

So badly whipped were the Austrians that for nearly a year they durst not venture again into Serbia. But another and more dreadful enemy now appeared. An epidemic of spotted typhus, which had broken out among the troops at Valjevo, began to spread throughout the whole country. Exhausted by years of warfare in the Balkan conflicts, the Serbian soldiers easily fell victims to this scourge and perished by thousands. The villages and towns were ravaged by the pestilence, people by hundreds dropping dead in the streets, and entire families being wiped out.

The Allied nations, in response to Serbia's appeal, sent their best doctors and nurses to combat the plague. Hospitals were erected and everything that science could suggest was forth-coming, but it was not until April, 1915, that the last traces of the epidemic were stamped out. By that time, a quarter of the population had perished.

AFRICAN THEATER, AUG. 7—DEC. 20

## Germany Loses Her Vast Empire in Africa to the British

Conquest of the Four African Colonies Begun—Boer Rebellion Suppressed

SECTION 20—1914

### Allied Forces, 50,000

#### Loyal Boer Leaders—

Gen. Louis Botha  
Gen. J. C. Smuts  
Gen. Lukin  
Col. Brits  
Major Bouwer

#### British Leaders—

Maj. Gen. Stewart  
Brig. Gen. Cunliffe  
Capt. F. C. Bryant  
Lieut. Col. MacLear  
Col. Grant

#### French Leaders—

Brig. Gen. Dobell

#### Belgian Troops—

Gen. Tambeur

### German—Boer—Native Forces, 20,000

Gen. Christian Beyers, Orange Free State  
Gen. de Wet, Transvaal  
Gen. Wable  
Major von Doering  
Col. S. G. Maritz  
Col. Kemp  
Col. Francke  
Col. Muller

THE war was carried into Africa at the very outset of hostilities in Europe; it continued there three years, and in the end Germany was dispossessed of a colonial empire four times the size of her European possessions.

Germany controlled four huge colonies in Africa: Togoland, about the size of Ireland, with a native population of 1,000,000; the Kameruns, greater in area than the German Fatherland, with a population of 2,500,000 blacks and 2000 whites; German Southwest Africa, comprising 320,000 square miles, and with a native population of 300,000; and German East Africa, twice the size of old Germany, and with a population of 8,000,000 blacks.

### Boers Rebel in Union of South Africa

WITHIN a week after Germany had flung down the gauntlet to Europe, mutterings of discontent against British rule were heard among a certain class of Boers in the Union of South Africa, particularly in the western Transvaal. Ostensibly the disaffected Boers were influenced by their ambition to found an Afrikaner Republic; in reality, they were dupes of Germany, who had heard the "call of the blood" and the ring of German gold.

These conspirators really plotted the downfall of the British Empire. If Africa and

Egypt could be won from Great Britain, control of the Mediterranean, the Suez Canal, and the trade routes to India might pass to Germany. These were the tremendous prizes at stake in the Boer uprising.

### Boer Parliament Is Loyal

THE leaders of the Boer revolt were Gen. Christian Beyers, Gen. de Wet, Col. S. G. Maritz, and Gen. Hertzog. All four had served with distinction in the Boer War of 1898, and there still rankled in their hearts a hatred of Great Britain.

Though still a commander of Union militia, Col. Maritz had entered into a secret pact with the German Governor of Southwest Africa, in which the independence of the Union as a Republic was guaranteed, but Walfisch Bay and other parts of the Union had been ceded to Germany, and providing that the Germans should defer their invasion of the Union, until asked to do so.

The great majority of the Boer burghers, however, refused to join with the rebels. Their spokesmen were Gen. Louis Botha and Gen. Smuts, both eminent leaders in the last Boer War, but now reconciled to British rule.

On August 15, 1914, a convention of 800 burghers was held at Treurfontein and resolutions were passed expressing confidence in the British Government. A month later, Gen.



Christian Beyers, commandant general of the Union forces, who had been secretly organizing the rebellion, resigned his command. He had previously won over to the rebel cause Gen. Delarey, a leader of the Boer forces in the Transvaal.

Delarey soon after was killed by a police patrol near Johannesburg, before the rebellion was well under way. Meantime, a thousand armed Boers in the Transvaal had definitely united with the rebellion.

In this crisis, Gen. Louis Botha appealed to the loyalty of the Boers, calling for volunteers to aid in suppressing the rebellion and promising to lead the Union forces in person. The Boers flocked by thousands to his standard.

When the Boer Parliament met on September 8, Gen. Botha, the premier, moved a resolution assuring Great Britain of its loyal support. Gen. Hertzog, the minority leader in the Parliament, and a pro-German, sought to amend this by moving a declaration that an attack upon German Southwest Africa was against the interests of the Union of South Africa. Hertzog's amendment was rejected by a vote of 104 to 12.

### The "Prophet" of Lichtenberg Stirs Rebellion

EMISSARIES of Germany spread themselves through the Transvaal, inciting the Boers to rebellion. Among these was a fanatic by the name of Van Rensburg, better known as the "Prophet of Lichtenberg."

Ever since the Boer War, in 1898, when a few of his many predictions were said to have been verified, the "prophet" had been held in high esteem. He now solemnly declared that the events predicted in the Apocalypse, or Book of Revelations, were soon to be fulfilled. Germany, he averred, had been divinely ordained to subjugate and purify the sinful world. To resist this divine ordinance was to invite the righteous anger of Almighty God.

Rensburg, in one of his pretended "visions," saw standing forth as divinely ap-

pointed leaders who should restore the Boer Republic, the traitors Delarey, Beyers, and de Wet.

### The Massacre of Sandfontein

LIEUT. COL. Maritz, meanwhile, had secretly accepted a commission as a general in the German service. His first overt act was to plot the massacre of a small force of British and Boers who were assembled at Sandfontein, near the Transvaal border.

While these British-Boer troops were advancing toward a water-hole, on September 26, 1914, Col. Maritz and his rebel band ambushed them in a circular basin. Concealed batteries deluged the loyal troops with high explosive shells. The trapped Boers fought heroically till their ammunition gave out, after which they were slain or captured.

Maritz followed up this act of treachery by arresting all the loyal Boers and banishing them across the border into German territory. Ordered by Gen. Smuts, the Boer Minister of War, to report at headquarters and resign his command, Maritz, on October 8, sent back a defiant reply.

### Defeat of Gen. Maritz at Keimos

PROCLAIMING martial law throughout the Union of South Africa, Gen. Louis Botha dispatched a force of loyal Boers, under command of Gen. Brits, in pursuit of Maritz. The rebels were overtaken and routed at Ratedraai on October 15.

A week later, with a force of 1000 rebels and 70 German gunners, Maritz attacked the port of Keimos, which was defended by a garrison of 150 loyalists.

Defeated in his purpose by the arrival of reinforcements of loyal troops, Maritz soon found himself hard pressed and even offered to surrender if granted a free pardon. This being denied him, the battle was resumed and the rebels were defeated.

With the remnant of his band Maritz, wounded, fled across the German border. Two days later his followers met defeat at Kakamas and the rebellion in the Union of South Africa was at an end.

## Togoland the First to Surrender

Anglo-French Forces, 1000  
Capt. F. C. Bryant

German-Negro Force, 460  
Major von Doering

THE first to fall of the four German colonies in Africa was Togoland. On August 4, 1914, the day Great Britain declared war against Germany, the British acting governor of Nigeria and the French governor of Dahomey planned a concerted campaign by land and sea against Togoland, which is hemmed in on three sides by the territories they governed, with a seacoast easily approached by warships.

On August 7, a British warship appeared off Lome, the capital, and the town surrendered without the firing of a shot. The German garrison, comprising 60 whites and 400 natives, escaped to Atakpame, 100 miles in the interior, uniting there with 3000 native troops.

On the following day a French force crossed the Dahomey frontier, while a British force,

under Capt. F. C. Bryant, crossed the Gold Coast frontier into Togoland.

These Allied forces, after effecting a junction, advanced toward Atakpame where the little German-Negro band had entrenched on the northern side of the Monu River. Crossing the river, on August 25, the Allies drove the Germans from their trenches with a loss of 75 men, and, after seizing the important wireless station at Kamina, occupied Atakpame.

The German commander, Major Doering, then surrendered unconditionally, losing 1000 rifles and 250,000 rounds of ammunition. By arrangement, Togoland was thenceforth governed jointly by France and England, each nation controlling that part of the surrendered colony which was nearest to her African possessions.

## Conquest of the German Kameruns

Anglo-French Forces, 50,000

Maj. Gen. Dobell  
Brig. Gen. Aymerich  
Brig. Gen. Cunliffe  
Lieut. Col. MacLear

German-Native Forces, 6,000  
Unidentified German Officers

THE conquest of the German Kameruns, a vast inland empire with a population of 2000 whites and 3,500,000 blacks, occupied the Allies the greater part of five months. Here the Germans had organized a large force of native levies, mostly Bantus and Sudanese, who were drilled and led by German officers and provided with machine guns.

Excepting in the highlands, the Kameruns is not habitable for whites. Its climate is deadly and it contains vast stretches of desert land visited by sand storms.

Early in August, 1914, the Allies invaded the Kameruns from three directions—two French columns crossing the border from the Congo, while an English force crossed over from Nigeria.

On August 31, 1914, a brigade of Dublin Fusiliers, with some native troops, led by Lieut. Col. MacLear, while attempting to storm the German position at Garna, were

almost annihilated by machine-gun fire, the remnant of the British forces retreating into Nigeria.

A second British expedition, composed largely of native Nigerians, occupied the German station of Nsanakong in August. Here they were surprised by a large German force and defeated with heavy losses. The surviving Nigerians cut their way out with the bayonet and escaped back to Nigeria. About the same time, a third British-Nigerian force occupied and held Archibong. In retaliation, the Germans sent a force across the Nigerian frontier, which seized and occupied the station at Okuri.

### Surrender of Duala, the Capital

NAVAL operations were begun on the west coast in September, when the Germans sowed the channel of the Kamerun estuary with mines and further attempted to obstruct the



waterway to Duala, the capital, by sinking several old steamships in the channel. British gunboats, however, soon cleared the passage and a fleet of British troopships steamed up the estuary on September 26.

Duala was bombarded and its capitulation followed the next day. Bonaberri, across the river from Duala, surrendered a few days later. Meantime, a French squadron had bombarded Ukoka and sunk two German vessels in the bay.

A British naval and military force, sailing up the Wuri River in launches on October 8, attacked the Germans near Jabossi, but were driven back to Duala. On the same day a French brigade attacked a German force at Japons, compelling their retreat to the mountains.

Strongly reinforced, the Allies, on October 14, again attacked Jabossi, silencing the batteries and occupying the city. Meanwhile, a

regiment of Nigerian troops had routed the German-native forces at Susa and in the Lake Chad region.

The main body of the German-native forces was pursued in two columns by Anglo-French troops, commanded by Gen. Dobell and Col. Mayer. The Germans were quickly expelled from Edea on October 26, and from Mujuka a few weeks later. Buea, after a spirited bombardment, was captured and the Germans were driven back to the hills.

Another French expedition, led by Gen. Aymerich, drove the enemy out of the Congo-Ubanghi region, capturing Numen and Nola. By December 20, the entire northern railroad line was in possession of the Allies and the German-native troops everywhere had been driven far into the interior. The Kameruns, though not wholly conquered, were practically in control of the British and French.

## Conquest of German Southwest Africa

### Loyal Boer Forces, 40,000

Gen. Louis Botha  
Gen. Smuts  
Gen. Lukin  
Col. Lemmer  
Col. Brits  
Col. Lichtenberg  
Col. van der Venter  
Col. Grant  
Col. Alberts  
Col. Mentz

### German-Boer Forces, 10,000

Gen. de Wet  
Gen. Hertzog  
Gen. Christian Beyers  
Col. S. G. Maritz  
Col. Kemp  
Col. Peinar  
Col. Muller

AIDED by the "Prophet of Lichtenberg," Generals Beyers and de Wet had raised a rebel Boer force of 10,000 men in the Western Transvaal and the Orange Free State. To offset this disaffection, 40,000 loyal Boers had answered the call of Generals Botha and Smuts. This loyal army went in pursuit of the main rebel army, commanded by Gen. Christian Beyers. At Rustenberg, on October 27, the loyalists drove the rebels before them in headlong flight. Two days later the rebels were scattered in little bands and Gen. Beyers became a fugitive. Some of these scattered commanders were defeated by Col. Alberts at Lichtenberg and again at Zuit Pandrift on November 5.

Col. Kemp, with a part of Gen. Beyers' army and large reinforcements, headed for German Southwest Africa, pursued by Col. Alberts.

Beyers, meanwhile, with the remnant of his army and other rebels recruited on the way, entered the Orange Free State, hoping to get in touch with Gen. de Wet's forces. Close in pursuit, a band of loyalists, led by Col. Lemmer, smashed Beyers' command near the Wet River, taking 400 prisoners.

### De Wet's Defeat and Surrender

GENERAL de Wet had organized a non-descript army of 2000 rebels in the Orange Free State. This once brilliant cavalry leader, now an old man, could not cope with the new conditions of motor transport, nor could he follow the same tactics which had won him such successes in the Boer War sixteen years before. His first action was at Winburg, where he defeated a small loyalist force under Gen. Cronje.

Gen. de Wet met his Waterloo at Marquard on November 12. Hemmed in on all sides by the forces of Gen. Botha, Gen. Lukin, Col. Brandt, and Col. Brits, numbering 6000, he barely hacked his way through the ring, leaving all his stores of food and ammunition, together with 100 motor cars and wagons, and 250 prisoners behind him.

With a Boer detail in pursuit, de Wet fled up the Wet River valley to Boshof, where his rebel band deserted him. He crossed the Vaal River with only 25 of the 2000 rebel followers he had at Marquard. Then, uniting with a small body of fugitives at Schweizer Renek, de Wet headed for German Southwest Africa, expecting to join Maritz and Kemp. On November 25, 1914, while crossing Bochuanaland, de Wet gave battle to Col. Brits and lost half of his small command. On December 1, 1914, at Waterburg, de Wet and his band of 52 rebels surrendered to Col. Jordaan. They were imprisoned at Johannesburg on a charge of high treason.

#### **Gen. Beyers Drowned in Vaal River**

GENERAL Beyers, leading a little band of rebels in the Orange Free State, was trapped on the Transvaal border, December 9, by Capt. Uys, and while endeavoring to escape by swimming across the Vaal River, was shot and drowned.

#### **End of the Rebellion**

GENERAL Botha, early in December, captured 500 rebels in the Orange Free State, and 200 more surrendered to Commandant

Kloppers. General Maritz, Col. Kemp, and the "Prophet of Lichtenberg" won two minor engagements in a surprise attack at Langklip and Onydas, but soon after they were put to flight by the Union forces. Escaping to the German frontier, the rebels made their last stand at Upington, on January 24, 1915, where a force of 1200 under Maritz and Kemp attacked Col. van der Venter, but were easily repulsed. Maritz then fled into German territory. Colonel Kemp and the "Prophet" surrendered on February 3, 1915.

#### **Natives Robbed and Massacred by Germans**

ONE result of the conquest of German Southwest Africa was the disclosure of Germany's inhumane treatment of the natives. The Hereros, Hottentots and Berg-Damaras numbered 130,000 in 1903, but the infamous Gov. von Trotha, pursuing a policy of extermination, had killed all but 37,742 by 1911. Nearly 75 per cent of the natives had been butchered in seven years, and their property confiscated.

In 1890, when Germany annexed the country, the Hereros possessed 150,000 herd of cattle, but in 1905, they had been despoiled of all their possessions. In 1907, the Imperial German Government, by ordinance, prohibited the natives of Southwest Africa from possessing any live stock. This was a sample of Germany's plans for the "regeneration of the human race" by "the divinely appointed rulers of Germany."

## **Conquest of German East Africa**

#### **British-Boer-Belgian Forces**

6,000 Whites, 350,000 Native Carriers

Gen. Smuts  
Gen. Northey  
Gen. van Deventer  
Gen. Edwards

#### **German Forces, 5000 Whites**

Gen. Wable  
Gen. Kraut  
Gen. Lettow-Vorbeck

THE conquest of German East Africa proved to be the most difficult task of all. Not only did the German-native forces outnumber the British in the beginning, but they also held the Uganda railroad, which afforded them a strategical point of attack. The British campaign opened with an attack on the capital of the colony, Dar-es-Salem, which was taken on August 13.

The scene of warfare then shifted to the south, when the Germans attempted unsuccessfully to drive the British from Karonga on Lake Nyassa, and from Abercorn on Lake Tanganyika. Turning their attention to the north, the Germans delivered a total of seven attacks on British positions along the Uganda railroad and in the vicinity of the lakes, with varying success.



In late September, the Germans started a joint naval and military attack upon Mombasa, the capital of British East Africa, the cruiser Koenigsburg bombarding the city, while the land forces assaulted from the rear. The opportune arrival of British warships ended the bombardment and the German land attack was quickly checked.

Six thousand British troops carried the War into the enemy's country in November, attacking the towns of Tanga and Gassin. Tanga capitulated, but Gassin held out till January, 1915. A British garrison of 300, holding Gassin, was later besieged by 3000 Germans, who captured the town after a

stubborn resistance. German East Africa was not conquered until November, 1917.

#### **Samoa and Bismarck Archipelago**

ON August 30, 1914, a squadron of six Allied war vessels, including three British cruisers, two Australian battleships, and a French cruiser, arrived at the German Samoan Islands in the South Pacific, and took possession without opposition, the German residents being transferred to New Zealand.

The German colonies in the Bismarck Archipelago were surprised by the Australians on September 11, and surrendered. The powerful wireless stations in those islands were destroyed.

..... EASTERN THEATER, OCT. — DEC. ....

## **Turkey Enters the German Alliance Just Before the War Opens**

Sultan's Call For a "Holy War" Ignored By 300,000,000 Moslems

Turkish Army Annihilated By the Russian Army of the Caucasus

..... SECTION 21 — 1914 .....

Russian Army of the Caucasus, 150,000  
Gen. Woronoslav, Commander

Turkish Army of the Caucasus, 160,000  
Enver Bey, Commander  
(Assisted by a German Staff)

**B**EFORE the first shot was fired in the World War, Turkey had committed herself irrevocably to the German cause. Turkey had been admitted into a political and military alliance, concluded secretly with Germany, only a few weeks before the murder of the Austrian Crown Prince, and under circumstances somewhat indicative of Prussia's prescience of future events.

Desiring the Kaiser's aid in recovering his lost provinces from Russia, the Sultan in 1912 had proposed an alliance with Germany. For two years the Kaiser equivocated, but in the spring of 1914 he yielded his consent. Scarcely had the treaty been signed when the Austrian Crown Prince, who had been as a thorn in the side of Germany, was assassinated at Sarajevo and the stage set for the greatest catastrophe in the world's history.

With the outbreak of hostilities, the Sultan professed a policy of strict neutrality, while orders issued for the mobilization of the Turkish Army under German direction. The German Military Commission, headed by Gen. Liman von Sanders, took over the duties

of the Turkish General Staff, and the German Admiral Sushon, with a retinue of German naval officers, assumed control of the Turkish Fleet.

The Dardanelles were at once closed to all foreign shipping and the waters of the Channel sown with mines, to prevent the egress of the Russian Fleet from the Black Sea and the ingress of the Allied Fleets through the Bosphorus. Thus the only feasible route by which Russia's surplus grain might reach the Allies, or Allied guns might be sent into Russia was sealed tight. Russia had been practically isolated from her Allies!

England roused the temper of the Turks in the first days of the War by commandeering two Turkish battleships under construction in British yards. In reprisal the Turks stormed the British consulate at Constantinople. Turkey revealed her friendship for Germany when, in August, the German warships Goeben and Breslau, after being chased through the Mediterranean, were admitted through the Dardanelles and transferred to Turkish Sovereignty. Subsequently,

on the persuasion of Germany, the Turkish Government abolished the special privileges, called "capitulations," granted some years before to foreigners living within the Turkish empire.

The Turkish Government, moreover, had championed the cause of Germany against England and her Allies, threatened Greece and Russia, and made overtures to Bulgaria and Rumania, looking to co-operation in a military policy.

The Allied diplomats, too, were seeking the aid of those same nations. Bulgaria was promised Adrianople and Thrace; Greece was tempted with the offer of Smyrna; while Rumania was to receive certain provinces in Austria as the reward for uniting with the Allies.

### Turkey's First Acts of War

MEANWHILE, the secret intrigues of the Turks had culminated in definite acts of war. Not only had Turkey harbored enemy warships, and withdrawn her capitulations to foreigners, but on October 9, Turkish torpedo boats had raided the port of Sebastopol in the Black Sea, sunk several Russian cargo ships laden with grain, shelled two Russian cruisers, and bombarded the town of Sebastopol.

On the 26th a swarm of Bedouins, invading the Sinai Peninsula, had occupied the wells of Magdada, 20 miles beyond the Egyptian frontier. On October 29 the Breslau bombarded the Black Sea port of Theodosia.

Convinced at last of the perfidy of Turkey, the ambassadors of the Allied powers at once asked for their passports. The Turkish Government defended its action by asserting that the Russian ships were the aggressors.

### Sultan's Call for a "Holy War" Unsuccessful

THE Sultan of Turkey, as spiritual ruler of Islam, on November 4, declared war against England and called on the 300,000,000 Moslems throughout the world to unite in a "Holy War" for the extermination of all Christian nations then at war with Germany.

The Mohammedan rulers of India, Egypt, Tripoli, Tunis, Algeria, and Morocco not only ignored the call, but many of the Moslem princes, including the powerful Agar Khan, proffered their personal services and large sums of money to England.

In Egypt there was some show of hatred for England among the Nomads of the desert, but no attempt was made to instigate a general uprising. Arabia, a Turkish province, allied herself with England and France.

Great Britain retaliated by declaring war upon Turkey, November 5, by seizing all Turkish vessels in British ports and annexing the Island of Cyprus.

### The Khedive of Egypt Is Deposed

ABBAS II, the Khedive of Egypt, under the persuasion of Germany, and with the probable hope of freeing Egypt from British sovereignty, had espoused the cause of the Turks and fled to Constantinople.

The British Government thereupon abolished the title of Khedive, deposed Abbas, and raised to the throne an Egyptian prince, Hussain, who assumed the power on December 20 at Cairo. At the same time the British Government promised to restore self rule to the Egyptians at the close of the War.

## Russians Annihilate Turks Near Mt. Ararat

Russian Army, 100,000  
Gen. Woronoslov

Turkish Army, 160,000  
Gen. Liman von Sanders  
Enver Bey  
Iskan Pasha  
Hassan Izzet Pasha

GERMANY first used her cat's-paw, Turkey, in attempting to isolate Russia by the conquest of the Transcaucasian region, near Mt. Ararat, where Noah's Ark landed after the Great Deluge. Here the Turkish and Russian boundaries meet. The frontier, running parallel to the Caucasus range of moun-

tains, is guarded by forts. On the Russian side is the Kars fortress.

Opposing this is the Turkish fortress of Erzerum. The German and Turkish strategists, finding the Russian frontier guarded by an army of scarcely 100,000 men, under Gen. Woronoslov, planned to surround and



destroy this army, seize Tiflis and Kars, and thereby gain control of the rich Caspian oil fields.

In pursuance of this plan a Turkish army of 160,000, under the nominal command of Enver Bey and Hassan Izzet Pasha, but in reality led by Gen. Liman von Sanders and other German officers, was assembled at Erzerum.

In general, the strategy of the Turkish generals was to entice the Russians across the Turkish border and by a wide encircling movement by way of Ardahan, take them in the rear and destroy them. The success of the Turkish plan depended upon holding the Russian force on Turkish soil long enough for the wide flanking movement to be accomplished in that difficult mountain region.

The Russians, sure enough, were lured across the Turkish frontier on November 30. Advancing 30 miles in three columns without much opposition, they took the city of Koprikeyi. There they were held while the Turkish development plan was proceeding.

Half the Turkish army, 80,000 men in all, marching north in a driving blizzard, succeeded in crossing the high mountains that guard the Russian frontier overlooking the city of Sarikamish and the vital railroad to Tiflis. By advancing a few miles further they could cut off the communications of the Russians.

In the meanwhile, a Turkish army of Erzerum had engaged one column of the Russian army at Koprikeyi, driving it back to Khorassan, while another Turkish force stationed at Trebizond, after forced marches in a raging blizzard, had reached Ardahan and threatened the Russian column on its other flank.

General Woronoslov, seeing his danger, rushed his main army back to Sarikamish and struck the Tenth Turkish Corps that threatened the railway, sending it in flight to the mountains. Then, with lightning rapidity, he turned upon the Turkish Ninth Corps, almost annihilating it. General Iskan Pasha surrendered.

The Turkish First Corps was driven out of Ardahan on New Year's day, and on January 17, 1915, the Eleventh Turkish Corps was in full retreat to Trebizond. The Turkish losses in this battle were 50,000.

### **Turks Whipped by Britons in Persia**

MEANWHILE, the Turks were receiving a bad mauling at the hands of the British in Persia. It was part of Germany's plan to get possession of the Persian Gulf, an important gateway to India and the Persian oil fields. The Turks were the agents which Germany used for the purpose. The English forestalled the Turks on November 7, when a British force under Gen. Delamain took the Turkish fort at Falon after a bombardment.

Proceeding north along the Persian Gulf, the British disembarked at Sanijah, where reinforcements under Gen. Sir Arthur Barrett reached them, and thence advancing to Sahil. Here they routed a strong Turkish force, the enemy casualties being 1500 and the British only 38.

On November 22, the British occupied Basra and on December 9 they forced the surrender of the Turkish garrison at Kurna. Here they entrenched, secure in the knowledge that they had established a safe barrier against a Turkish advance into India, and still controlled the immensely valuable oil fields.

ALL OCEANS, OCT. 4—DEC. 8

## **British Navy Sweeps German Commerce from the Seas**

Naval Battles Fought at Heligoland, Falkland Islands and Coronel.

Daring Exploits of German Sea Raiders—English Coast Towns Bombarded

SECTION 22—1914

**E**NGLAND'S Navy, in closing the seas to Germany, and guarding the waterways of the World, made possible the transport to France of the huge armies which fin-

ally throttled the Beast, and saved Civilization. If the German Navy—then second only to England's in power—had been able to control or even sail the seas, the mighty armies

of Great Britain, the United States, Canada, Australia, New Zealand, and Africa, never could have come to the assistance of France, battling practically alone on the Western front against the overwhelming forces of the Huns.

### British Navy Ready for Action

PROVIDENTIALLY it would seem, the British navy was mobilizing for its annual autumn maneuvers off the port of Spithead, in the summer of 1914, when the Archduke of Austria was assassinated, at Sarajevo. Foreseeing the possibility of war, the British Lord of the Admiralty, Winston Churchill, gave secret orders for a general muster of the British navy. Within a week, in early July, a mighty armada of 400 warships had assembled in the North Sea.

The British ships were not arrayed, according to custom, in holiday attire. On the contrary, the fleet was drawn up ready for battle, with decks cleared, guns uncovered, steam up, and magazines replenished.

Nor was the fleet demobilized at the conclusion of the maneuvers on July 29. Like watchdogs, they continued to guard the North Sea, and especially the entrance to the Kiel Canal, which Germany had recently remodeled to admit the passage of her largest dreadnaughts.

They kept the German navy penned up in that canal, or in the adjacent basins of the Baltic-North Seas. And when war was declared, on August 4, 1914, the British Grand Fleet took its station off the northern coast of England ready to pounce upon the German fleet of 350 warships if they showed their prowls at the entrance of the North Sea.

France, with 340 warships, was guarding the Mediterranean Sea, and keeping a watchful eye betimes on the 240 Austrian warships then anchored in the Adriatic. The Russians had 110 warships in the Baltic and 20 more in the Black Sea. Japan's staunch navy was on the alert in the South Pacific.

Outside its home waters Britain had a fleet in the Mediterranean and several squadrons in Eastern waters. In New Zealand, there were four cruisers, and in Australia four cruisers and two submarines; other cruisers and gunboats were stationed at the Cape of

Good Hope, off the west coast of Africa, and along the Atlantic coast. Two new Turkish battleships, building in British shipyards, were commandeered, and two destroyers were purchased from the Chilean government.

Germany, in addition to her home fleet, had eleven warships in other seas, protecting her thousands of merchant vessels.

### German Ships Flee to Neutral Ports

BEFORE the actual declaration of war, the German government, by wireless, had warned the German merchant vessels sailing the seven seas to seek safety in neutral ports. Within a few weeks there were nearly 700 German vessels so interned in all parts of the world. Hundreds of German vessels were captured, however, and before September 1, 1914, German commerce had been swept from the oceans.

### German Mine Layers and Submarines Active

A WEEK before the opening of the war, German mine layers, disguised as fishing boats, had been laying mines in the paths of commerce over a wide area. They were especially active in the North and Baltic Seas.

A fleet of British destroyers was at once despatched to the home waters for mine layers. They sank the *Konigin Luise* on August 6, rescuing 50 of her crew of 130. On the following day the British cruiser *Amphion* struck a mine and sank. Many of her crew, after taking to their boats, were killed by the explosion of her magazine.

On Sunday, August 9, a flotilla of German submarines attacked the cruiser *Birmingham*. Two shots from the British ship struck one of the submarines, and she sank immediately. Early in August, the German cruiser *Augsberg* bombarded the Russian port of Libau in the Baltic Sea, inflicting much damage.

### German Cables Cut

MEANWHILE, on August 5, the British ship *Drake* had cut two German cables off the Azores Islands, leaving the German admiralty without direct communication with the seven warships still roaming the sea.

### Two German Cruisers Escape by Stratagem

ON the day war was declared, two of the fastest German cruisers, the *Goeben* and the



Breslau, began the bombardment of Algerian coast cities along the Mediterranean Sea.

On August 5, being then in imminent danger of capture by an Allied fleet, they escaped by a clever stratagem. At nightfall, the band of the Goeben was placed on a raft and ordered to play German national airs. While the Allies were trying to locate the source of the music, the German cruisers, under cover of the darkness, slipped away to the neutral port of Messina.

The next day, pursued by the Allied fleet, the two ships headed for Constantinople, exchanging shots en route with the cruiser Gloucester. Arriving at Constantinople, the two ships were transferred to the Turkish government.

### Germany's \$10,000,000 Gold Ship Escapes

THE fast German merchant ship, the Kronprinzessin Cecillie, left New York harbor on July 28, 1914, carrying a cargo of \$10,000,000 in gold, and was in mid-ocean when England declared war. English cruisers naturally exerted themselves to capture her, but the Kronprinzessin eluded them.

When within a few hundred miles of the English coast, the German "gold ship" turned about and with darkened interior, made for America, reaching the neutral port of Bar Harbor, Me., on the evening of August 5.

Allied ships, notably the Lusitania and the French liner Lorraine, were able to elude the German cruiser Dresden which was endeavoring to intercept them early in August, 1914.

## Battle of Heligoland Bight

### British Naval Forces

Admiral Sir David Beatty  
Admiral Christian  
Admiral Jellicoe  
Commodore Keyes  
Commodore Tyrwhitt  
Commodore Goodenough

### German Naval Force

Admiral von Ingenohl

THE first great sea fight of the World War was fought on August 28, 1914, off Heligoland Bight, in the North Sea, resulting in a victory for the British.

A large fleet of German light cruisers, destroyers, and submarines was lying under the protection of the batteries on the island of Heligoland. From this naval base, German submarines had been operating against British shipping.

Admiral Jellicoe conceived a plan to entice this German fleet away from the protection of the Heligoland fort, close in upon it from both flanks, and then destroy it in the open sea.

While squadrons of concealed British battleships, cruisers, and destroyers were guarding either side of the Bight, Commodore Keyes, on August 27, moved his flotilla of eight submarines and two destroyers toward Heligoland at midnight.

The next morning three of the British submarines, their hulls showing above water, steamed slowly toward the island fortress, followed by five submersed boats and two destroyers.

A fleet of 21 German destroyers hastened out to give battle, and the visible British boats turned tail. A German airplane, operating above, signaled to the fort and soon a squadron of German light cruisers joined in the pursuit.

The three visible British submarines, acting as decoys, headed for the northwest, pursued by a flotilla of German submarines, destroyers, and torpedo boats, and a fleet of light cruisers. The odds seemed to please the Germans.

But lying in wait for them were Commodore Tyrwhitt's two destroyer flotillas, Commodore Goodenough's light cruiser squadron, Admiral Christian's cruiser squadron, and behind these Admiral Beatty's squadron of battleships with four destroyers.

The first shock of battle was borne by the British cruiser Arethusa, which gallantly engaged two German cruisers, the Ariadne and the Strassburg. Though badly damaged by German shells, the Arethusa held out for half an hour or more until the Fearless had come to her assistance, and then hurled a shell that shattered the forebridge of the Ariadne, kill-

ing the commander. Both the German vessels then drew off to Heligoland. The *Arethusa* was in a bad plight; all but one of her guns were disabled; fire was raging on her main deck, and her water tank was punctured. She was towed away by the *Fearless*.

Meanwhile, the flotillas had been hotly engaged. One German destroyer, the B-187, headed straight for the line of British destroyers, and though riddled with shells, her guns kept up their booming, and her crew their cheering up to the moment she sank. Ten other German destroyers were damaged and the English destroyers also were battered.

For an hour, between 9 and 10, there was a lull in the fight; then the battle was resumed. The *Arethusa* and the *Ariadne*, having been repaired, again appeared in the line.

The German cruisers *Mains*, *Koln*, and *Strassburg* reopened the fight by firing upon some small British boats that were engaged in rescue work. The *Arethusa* and the *Fearless*, with several destroyers, gave battle to the three German cruisers. In short order the *Strassburg* was disabled and limped back to Heligoland.

The British battleship *Lion* now appeared on the scene, and quickly sank the *Mains* with a torpedo. The battleship *Queen Mary* then engaged the *Koln*, which turned tail, but before she could get away a shell from the *Lion* found her vitals, and she sank with her

crew of 370. The *Ariadne*, which had come to the rescue of the *Koln*, was then sent to the bottom.

With three cruisers and one destroyer sunk, one cruiser and seven destroyers badly damaged, 700 sailors drowned and 300 taken prisoners, the Germans acknowledged defeat. The British escaped without the loss of a ship.

### British Cruisers Sunk by Submarines

THE submarine boat was an important ally of Germany from the beginning. On September 3, the British gunboat *Speedy* struck a mine in the North Sea and went down. On September 5, the cruiser *Pathfinder* was sent to the bottom off the east coast of England with great loss of life.

Three English cruisers—the *Cressy*, *Hogue*, and *Aboukir*—while patrolling the coast of Holland, on September 22, were torpedoed and sunk by the German submarine U-9, Capt.-Lieut. Otto Weddigen. The *Aboukir* was struck first, and the *Hogue* and *Cressy* went to her assistance.

While cutters from the *Cressy* were returning with the rescued sailors from the *Aboukir*, the *Hogue* was struck. And while trying to save the crew of the *Hogue*, their own vessel was sent to the bottom. Of the 1459 officers and men comprising the crew of the three vessels, only 779 were saved.

The English retaliated, on September 13, by torpedoing the German cruiser *Hela* near Heligoland.

## Sea Battle of Coronel, Off Coast of Chile

(November 1, 1914)

### British Naval Force, Four Vessels

Admiral Sir Christopher Cradock

WHEN the war broke out, the German Pacific squadron of seven vessels, commanded by Admiral von Spee, was at Kiau-chau, China. Among these vessels were the *Emden* and the *Karlsruhe*, both destined to achieve fame as raiders.

Early in August, 1914, the German squadron left Kiau-chau to prey upon English commerce in the South Pacific. A British squadron of five vessels, commanded by Admiral Sir Christopher Cradock, was detailed to safeguard British shipping in the South Seas. On November 1, 1914, off the coast of Chile,

### German Naval Force, Four Vessels

Admiral von Spee

near Coronel, the German fleet, sighting the British vessels, opened fire with great accuracy at a range of seven miles. The British flagship, *Good Hope*, exploded and sank, carrying Admiral Cradock to his death. The *Monmouth*, set on fire, made for the open sea. The four German ships then bore down upon the *Glasgow*, but she escaped. Early in the engagement the *Otranto*, an armed liner merely, had disappeared.

The fifth ship of Admiral Cradock's squadron, the *Canopus*, had been undergoing repairs at a port further south. She found the



Glasgow the day after the battle and together they proceeded to the Falkland Islands. The German fleet, overtaking the Monmouth on the next day, fired seventy shells into her

when she lay sinking, on fire, and helpless, unable to fire her guns. With Admiral Cradock, 1650 British officers and men perished in this battle.

## **Sea Battle Off the Falkland Islands**

(December 8, 1914)

**British Squadron, 10 Vessels**  
Admiral F. D. Sturdee

ENGLAND took immediate steps to revenge the disaster to Cradock's squadron. Rear Admiral F. D. Sturdee, chief of the naval staff, was put in command of a special squadron of seven cruisers which secretly steamed away to the South Atlantic. His fleet was joined by three more cruisers, including the Glasgow.

Upon arriving at his destination, Admiral Sturdee laid a trap for the Germans by sending a fictitious wireless message to the cruiser Canopus, bidding her proceed to Port Stanley in the Falkland Islands.

As foreseen by Admiral Sturdee, this message was intercepted by the Germans. Admiral von Spee, who was heading for Cape Horn, thought it an easy matter to capture the Canopus at Fort Stanley. He reached the fort December 8 and was astounded to find Admiral Sturdee's entire fleet in waiting for him.

A furious sea-fight occurred, which resulted in the sinking of four of the five ships composing the German squadron. Only the Dresden escaped and she afterward became a raider. Many Germans were rescued from drowning by the Britishers, but the German losses exceeded 1000, while the British losses were trifling. Thus was destroyed the last German squadron upon open seas.

### **English Coast Cities Bombarded**

THE shelling of seaside resorts and defenceless towns on the east coast of England, and the consequent murder of innocent civilians, was one of the pastimes of the Germans in the late fall of 1914. On November 2, eight German cruisers, some of them carrying 11-inch guns, appeared off Yarmouth and bombarded that naval station at a distance of ten miles, but without inflicting much damage.

**German Squadron, Five Vessels**  
Admiral von Spee

On December 16, a German squadron of five vessels emerged from the fog off Hartlepool and West Hartlepool, dropping 1500 shells into and about the two towns. The ancient batteries on shore feebly replied, but their shots could not reach the German ships. The townspeople, many of them awakened from sleep, rushed into the streets. One shell, in bursting, killed three children who were fleeing with their mother. More than thirty innocent people were killed and seventy-five wounded. Among the buildings destroyed were St. Mary's Catholic Church and the Church of St. Hilda. The gas works were also destroyed, and in consequence the town was without lights for many nights.

Proceeding to Scarborough, the Germans began to bombard the town while many people were yet asleep. Thirteen were killed or wounded while attempting to dress. One shell hit St. Martin's church while communion was being served.

Half an hour later two cruisers began the bombardment of Whitby, dropping 200 shells into the town and killing two persons.

### **German Sea Raiders, Emden and Koenigsberg**

SEVERAL German raiders roamed the seas in the early months of the war, taking many prizes before being finally rounded up. Of these, the most resourceful and daring was the third-class cruiser Emden, commanded by Capt. Karl von Muller. By means of supply ships, Capt. von Muller was enabled to raid the southern seas for nearly three months without touching land. After looting the captured merchantmen it was his practice to sink all but one of them. This ship he filled with the prisoner crews and passengers he had captured, sending them to the nearest port. Some of the prize ships he used as colliers, placing in charge his petty officers.

The Emden, quitting Japanese waters when the war opened, steamed into the harbor of Madras, in British India, with the French flag flying and bombarded the town, setting on fire two large oil tanks. Before leaving Bengal Bay, the German raider sank twenty-one steamers, with \$45,000,000 worth of merchandise on board.

### The Emden's Audacious Ruse

THE British government sent a squadron in pursuit of the Emden. Within a short time the British cruiser Yarmouth captured two of the Emden's colliers off the coast of Sumatra. This left Capt. von Muller short of coal. He sought to replenish this supply by an audacious ruse.

Knowing that the Yarmouth had sailed from Penang in his pursuit, he boldly decided to enter that harbor in search of coal.

By means of a false funnel and the ingenious use of canvas, he disguised his ship so as to make it resemble the Yarmouth, and on the evening of October 28, 1914, entered the harbor of Penang.

A Russian cruiser and three French destroyers were then on guard in the harbor. They hailed the Emden by wireless and were assured that the vessel was the Yarmouth returning to harbor.

The Emden actually approached to within 600 yards of the Russian cruiser before the ruse was discovered. Too late the Russian ship opened fire. The Emden riddled the Russian vessel with shell fire and she sank in fifteen minutes.

Quickly leaving the harbor, the Emden sighted an ammunition ship and was preparing to capture her when a French destroyer appeared and gave battle. The Emden sank the destroyer, but at this juncture a cruiser from Penang headed for the Emden and Capt. Muller put off for the Indian Ocean.

Nothing further was heard of the Emden until November 9, when the raider endeavored to cut the British cables and the wireless plant on the Cocos Islands, southwest of Java, hoping to prevent British communication with India, Australia, and South Africa.

A landing party from the Emden did cut what appeared to be the true cables, but instead were false cable-ends set up by the British authorities, who had foreseen the attempted destruction of the cables and forestalled it.

Unfortunately for von Muller, a convoy of troop ships from Australia was passing within 100 miles, accompanied by the cruisers Melbourne and Sidney. Notified by wireless of the Emden's whereabouts, they started in pursuit, reaching the Cocos Islands in three hours.

Knowing that escape was impossible, because of the foul bottom of his vessel, von Muller decided to give battle. At full speed the Emden steamed straight for the Sydney, and even landed one shell on her forebridge, but the Sydney fairly riddled the raider with shell, disabling her.

Capt. von Muller was made prisoner and permitted to keep his sword. With the capture, an hour later, of a German collier, the career of the Emden, greatest of sea raiders, was ended.

### The Cruiser Koenigsberg Trapped

THE Koenigsberg, a third class German cruiser, also enjoyed an evil repute. Her operations were chiefly confined to the east coast of Africa. In August, 1914, she captured two British merchant ships, seizing their stores, and sinking them.

Dashing into the harbor of Zanzibar, on September 20, she so battered the British cruiser Pegasus that it lost all resemblance to a war vessel.

The Koenigsberg then made off to her hiding place some miles up the Rufige River in German East Africa, where she was located on October 30 by the Chatham. To prevent her escape, colliers were sunk at the mouth of the river. Thus, amid the jungles of an African river, the German raider ended her career.

The Karlsruhe, a consort of the Emden, also enjoyed a limited success as a raider before being sunk by an unexplained explosion in December, 1914.



ALL BATTLE FRONTS, NOV. AND DEC.

## Closing Battles of the First Year of War in All Theaters

Germany Holds 600,000 Prisoners — Toll of Death is 1,000,000 Men

SECTION 23 — 1914

**A**FTER the great Allied victory at Ypres, November 17, 1914, the two colossal armies on the Western front settled down to trench warfare for the winter. Germany now held the greater part of Belgium and occupied 8000 square miles of territory in northern France, including vast coal and iron fields, and many of the important industrial centers.

The casualties on all fronts during the first three months of fighting were not less than 1,000,000. England alone had lost a third of her gallant expeditionary force.

Germany had taken 600,000 prisoners. Of these nearly 300,000 were Russians, 250,000 French, and 40,000 English. Hundreds of towns and villages in Flanders and France already had been obliterated by the terrific fire of the German artillery.

Nevertheless, when this first chapter of the great war closed, Germany was the loser. She had utterly failed in her chief purpose to crush the Allies at one stroke.

On the Western front she was held at bay, besieged in the trenches that now extended from the North Sea through Flanders and France to Switzerland.

On the Eastern front she had suffered two crushing defeats at the hands of Russia, while her ally, Austria, had been all but crushed by Russia and sorely humiliated by Serbia. Germany in addition had been dispossessed of her vast African colonies, her South Pacific and Asiatic possessions.

Though still, in man power and especially in munitionment, superior to the Allies, she knew that England was building up a huge army which would inevitably work her destruction.

Her main hopes were centered on achieving some great victory upon which she might found a proposal for a profitable peace, which should leave her in possession of the territories she had conquered.

Unable to enforce a decision in the West, she was preparing to launch a third offensive against Russia, early in January, 1915.

### Wettest Winter in History

THE winter of 1914, on all the fronts, was the wettest in the memory of men. The hospitals generally behind the lines were filled with cases of ague, rheumatism, frost bite, gangrene, and the dread tetanus. The battlefields were soggy, and oftentimes the combatants fought in water waist deep.

The closing engagements of 1914 on the Western front were chiefly "local" battles, having for their object the straightening out of the trench lines.

### The Fight at Armentieres

ON the night of November 23, the Germans hurled shells weighing 200 pounds each into the half mile of Allied trenches at Armentieres, and followed this with an infantry rush. The Huns were swept back by the Gurkhas with their terrible long knives.

From December 9 to December 14, the English fought for possession of the wood at Wytschaete, and were finally successful.

### The Battle of Guianhy

DECEMBER 19, the Indian troops "rushed" the German lines at Festubert and were almost annihilated. The losses were over 1,000. Elated by their success, the Germans on the following night launched an attack along a six mile front around Festubert.

The rush was preceded by an explosion of mines which took a heavy toll from the Indian and English troops. The Germans seized most of the trenches, but at the critical moment reinforcements were sent by Gen. Haig and the Germans were expelled. The English casualties were 4,000.

### Opposing Forces Fraternize on Christmas Day

ON Christmas Day, 1914, the amazing spectacle was witnessed on the Western front of English and German soldiers fraternizing in the trenches, and uniting in the pagan tree worship which their Saxon forefathers had practiced in the dark forests of Germany before their adoption of Christianity. The next day the deadly warfare continued, and so closed the year of 1914 on the Western front.

# MODERN METHODS OF WARFARE

## Introduction of the Most Fiendish Devices Conceivable by Man Criminal Inventions Sway the Enemy of Humanity

**I**N closing the story of 1914 and before proceeding with 1915 and the succeeding years, let us briefly review modern warfare with special reference to the murderous devices introduced by the Germans.

At the opening of hostilities in 1914, it was unbelievable that any civilized nation could be capable of such depravity, such wholesale crime, as was planned and executed by the fanatic and war-crazed classes of Germany.

Nowhere in the annals of time has there been such a perversion of knowledge for criminal purposes. Never has science and invention contributed to such a felonious assault against human life.

One by one murderous devices were hurled against the Allies. As each succeeding horror was introduced, the Allied Nations quickly solved the principles of the deadly contrivances and the engines of destruction were hurled back against the enemy with increased force and deadly results.

### Poison Gasses

The Germans developed a variety of poisonous substances, such as asphyxiating gas, and lachrymal gas, calculated to produce blindness. The third "Triumph" was the deadly mustard gas. Asphyxiating gas was first used by the Germans in the first battle of Ypres—the deadly compound was mixed in huge reservoirs back of the lines, with a pipe system extending toward the British and Canadian forces. When the wind currents were moving in the right direction, the stop cocks were opened about midnight, and the poisonous fumes, hovering close to the ground, swept on their deadly mission.

The terrible mustard gas was carried in gas shells, which exploded with but slight noise, scattering their liquid, death-dealing contents broadcast. The liquids used quickly decomposed as they came in contact with the air, forming a gas which hovered close to the earth with frightful effects. Other heinous devices created by these demons of depravity were flame-projectors, liquid fire, trench knives, and nail-studded clubs. Then came airplane bombs and huge cannon, throwing projectiles far behind the lines, causing great destruction of property and thousands of lives of innocent non-combatants.

The Allies soon overcame the deadly gasses to a large degree, by inventing the gas mask. These were worn, not only by the soldiers on the battle lines, but by artillery horses, pack mules, Liaison dogs and often by civilian inhabitants, including school children, far back of the fighting areas.

Those gas masks contained a chamber filled with charcoal prepared from peach pits and other substances similar in density qualities. Peach pits were gathered by the millions from all belligerent countries. Anti-gas chemicals were mixed with the charcoal. The wearer of the mask breathed entirely through the mouth by means of a rubber mouth-piece the nose being closed by a clamp attached to the mask.

### Allied Genius Mobilized

When America entered the war, the Scientific and Inventive brain of the Nation was mobilized, and

these gifted men co-operated with the genius of the Allied Armies. Not only were the deadly devices of the Germans improved upon, and used against the enemy with terrific effect, but legitimate war devices were invented, which went far in accomplishing final victory.

Among those were the "Tank", a Mobile Armored Artillery, a development of the caterpillar tractor, invented in America and adapted by England. Three types of the Tank were produced—one carrying heavy guns only, another equipped with machine guns, and the third called the "Whiffet", capable of moving 18 miles per hour. The tank tore through barbed wire entanglements, crossed trenches, and laid low trees in its pathway.

In frantic desperation Germany endeavored to produce tanks to meet the Allied monster, but her efforts were futile compared with the Allied output.

Another Allied invention produced by American genius was the depth bomb, which proved the death knell to under-sea craft. A wonderful instrument was the listening device, invented by an American, by which the approach of a submarine could be detected twenty miles away, and the direction from which it was coming.

### Modern Warfare

The development of war equipment and death-dealing devices in modern warfare ushered in tremendous changes in methods and tactics. The mobilization of materials, railroads, mammoth guns, machine guns, food, clothing, airplanes, submarines, and other engines of destruction, was quite as important as the mobilization of man power. During the early part of the war, the Germans won battle after battle because of their system of strategic railroads, previously planned, in anticipation of war and a speedy victory.

Lacking an adequate system of transportation, Russia lost the great battles that doomed her to defeat. Belgium was over-run, and France, being deficient in transportation facilities, to cope with Germany, her soil became the battle-field where the enemy could extend trench systems over great areas of territory.

France, though lacking in strategic railways, evolved an effective substitute, through a system of auto-truck transportation. When von Kluck made his great rush on Paris in 1914, Gallieni dispatched from the city an army in taxicabs, which struck the exposed flank of the enemy and contributed in no small degree to the Allied victory at the first Battle of the Marne.

The truck transportation system from Paris to Verdun, along that famous highway, the "Sacred Road", during those eight months of artillery siege, enabled the French to keep inviolate, the motto of that historic city, "They shall not pass", and they did not pass, though the enemy sacrificed 500,000 men in a vain attempt to reach Paris.

Motor trucks brought American reserves to the front, making possible victory at the second battle of the Marne. Auto transportation enabled the



British to send the Canadians and Australians pell-mell after the retreating Germans at Lens, Cambria, and Ostend.

#### American Railway Construction in France

American railway construction in France was not only one of the marvels of the war, but the most marvelous transportation achievement in the world's history. American engineers worked out an interweaving system of wide gauge and narrow gauge roads, stretching from the sea-coast far into the interior of France, delivering men, munitions and food in a steady stream to the entire front, and further served to quickly transport a whole army corps from one sector to another.

It was this network of strategic railways that enabled the French to send a great avalanch of blue-clad poilus to the relief of Amiens when Hindenberg made his final terrific assault in 1918.

#### Divisions of Military Operations

Military operation may be roughly divided into three classes: Open Warfare, Trench Warfare, and Crater Warfare. The first battle of the Marne was almost wholly open warfare, as were the battles of the Masurian Lakes, Allenstein, and Dunajec, in the Eastern theater, also the battles on the Italian front between the Piave River and Gorizia.

In battles of this variety, airplanes and observation balloons play important parts. When the enemy has been drawn out of the trenches, wireless messages are flashed to the artillery and slaughter at long range begins. In case of no entrenchments, as in the first battle of the Marne, massive artillery guns open a terrific fire, into the open columns, preparing the way for machine gunners and infantry charge.

#### Cavalry a Negligible Factor

Cavalry have played a heroic role in previous wars, but in this war the utility of the mounted soldier was almost negligible. In the armies of both the Allies and Central Powers, cavalrymen were converted into some other form of service, trench mortar companies, bombing squads, and other special groups. In Mesopotamia, South Africa, and parts of Russia, however, when the fighting was in open stretches, great bodies of cavalrymen were utilized extensively.

#### Trench Warfare

Trench warfare occupied the major portion of the time, and contributed nine-tenths of the discomfitures of the soldiers of both sides. During the earlier stages of the war, and before the men became hardened to the rigors of the trenches, many thousands died of exposure and many more thousands became incapacitated for life by "trench feet", a group of maladies developed from exposure to cold and to water, running through the trenches.

As the war progressed trench conditions were improved, and in the end men learned to live in them with some degree of comfort.

#### The "Race to the Sea"

After the first battle of the Marne, the defeated German Army retreated to their prepared positions along the Aisne. Then began a series of flanking movements by both armies, speedily resulting into the famous "race to the sea," resolving itself into a competition between the opposing armies in rapid trench digging.

Each side endeavored to prevent the opposing army from executing a flank movement. Within an amazingly short period the opposing trenches extended from the Swiss border clear up to the Belgian coast, making further flank movements impossible.

When trench night-raiding began, it was quickly observed that straight trenches exposed large numbers of men to deadly fire. Bastians were quickly made, forming zigzag front line trenches — Bastians also extended to communicating trenches, leading back to the company kitchens.

#### Aerial Bombing

Airplane bombing produced a great change in the character of the war. The fighting lines were extended many miles behind the battle front. It brought horrors by night attacks, upon fatigued troops resting in billets far in the rear, destruction and death were also visited upon the civilian population, men, women and children in villages and cities scores of miles from the actual fighting areas.

Germany repeatedly transgressed all laws of war and of humanity by bombing hospitals far back of the battle lines. A sample of these many atrocious attacks was perpetuated on a large Red Cross hospital at Boulenes on May 29, 1918. There was no possibility of mistaking the building for anything else flying Red Cross flags with lights turned on the flags, so that they would show prominently, and the windows were brightly lighted. The building was filled with wounded men. Those inside heard the buzz of the plane, but anticipated no danger, when over the building a huge bomb was dropped, which exploded in the building, carrying death to scores of the wounded soldiers, nurses and a doctor at the operating table. The horror of the catastrophe was increased when the building took fire. Then to add to their murderous assault the airplane returned to the scene of the dastardly atrocity and fired on the rescuers with machine guns.

#### Crater Warfare

This character of warfare was the result of intensified artillery attacks upon trench systems. It was in the Eastern theater at Dunajec, under von Mackensen's direction, that for the first time in history the wheels of artillery pieces were placed hub to hub, in intensified hurricane fire upon the Russian positions with deadly effect. Later the same tactics were employed on the Western front, with the result that whole trench systems were destroyed, with the exception of deep dugouts, thus sending the trench occupants, for protection, into craters made by shell explosions. These craters formed excellent substitutes for trenches, being linked together by entrenching tools, carried by every soldier.

Both armies deliberately created crater systems, by the attacking artillery. Into these crater lines the attacking infantry threw itself, wave after wave, in its rush on the enemy trenches.

The earth over vast areas of territory was so churned up by the intensive artillery fire as to create what is known as "Moon Terrain" fields, resembling the surface of the moon as seen through a powerful telescope.

The troops on both sides were trained to use these shell holes or craters, each crater being occupied by a group of men, who kept in touch with the next group, and all groups along the line moving through the connecting avenues from one crater to another, in unison toward the enemy.

# SECOND YEAR OF THE WAR 1915

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## GERMANY VICTORIOUS IN THE EAST

**Russian Armies Overwhelmed and Driven Back Into the Interior**

**Serbia Is Crushed and the Whole Nation Put to Flight**

**British Suffer Disaster at Gallipoli and in Mesopotamia**

**Turks, Led by German Officers, Massacre 1,000,000 Armenians**

**Germany's Vast African Empire Seized by Britons and Boers**

**Sinking of the Lusitania Strikes the World Aghast with Horror**

**German Zeppelins and Submarines Bomb Defenceless British Towns**

**Germans Use Poison Gas, Liquid Fire and Other Infernal Devices**

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### Survey of Events in the Year 1915

**G**ERMANY'S dream of World dominion seemed near to realization at the close of 1915. Europe then lay all but prostrate at her feet. The remnant of Russia's once mighty army, betrayed and broken, had been driven back into her bleak interior. Warsaw and all Poland had fallen, like a ripe plum, into the hands of the Huns.

Serbia had been desolated and the whole nation put to flight. Turkey and Bulgaria had joined the German alliance and were rendering a truly Satanic service. Greece, though nominally neutral, was secretly aiding Germany. With the Balkans obedient to her nod; Germany's path to the East by way of Constantinople seemed at last opened.

The failure of the Dardanelles campaign had assured the security of Constantinople. There was nothing to fear as yet from England's campaign in Mesopotamia, for was not the "contemptible English army" locked up in Kut-el-Amara, facing starvation? England, moreover, had been unable as yet to bring a preponderant force to bear on the Western front. Italy, it is true, had come to the rescue of civilization, but there was little to fear from this quarter, for Austria and her ally the Alps would protect that frontier.

There had been some German reverses, however. The English, French and Boers together had seized the German colonies in Africa, while Japan and Australia had dispossessed Germany of her Asiatic possession, and her islands in the South Pacific; but these colonies would be recovered in due time after Europe had been conquered.



Only France remained unconquered—France the invincible nation, which alone stood between Germany and her control of the world! France must be destroyed. The Crown Prince would have the honor of breaking through that wall of steel at Verdun, and advancing to the conquest of Paris! France, bleeding to death, was at the end of her military resources! England could not organize her forces in time to prevent the death-blow that was to be delivered at Verdun. So the German war lords viewed the military situation during the second year of the War.

Finally the power of Great Britain should be destroyed. As a necessary step in that program, Admiral von Tirpitz would unleash his submarines and sink all the enemy and neutral ships that plied the seas, in order that England might be coerced or starved into submission. Germany's ruthless submarine policy would also serve as a warning to other neutral nations, especially the United States, that Germany would hesitate at no crime against humanity in her will to victory.

Hence the deliberate sinking of the *Lusitania*, a crime without parallel, that struck the World aghast with horror, and the scuttling of other passenger ships and freight boats, including American vessels, which compelled America tardily to enter the War.

Germany and her allies, during this crucial year of 1915, pursued a military program that, in sheer atrocity, dwarfed all the classical excesses of Nero, Domitian, Genghis Khan and Mahomet. The massacre of 1,000,000 Christian Armenians by German-led Turks and Kurds marked the trail of the Apocalyptic Beast in the East. The bombing as they slept, of defenseless cities, by Zeppelins, and the shelling of English coast towns, by submarines, were features of German warfare in the West. Clouds of poison gas, infernos of liquid fire, blinding bombs, the Huns had sent for good measure into the trenches on all the fronts.

In spite of the employment of these infernal agencies of warfare, and though the cause of civilization still trembled in the balance, the close of the year nevertheless saw all the armies of the Allies intact and gaining strength for the decisive contest.

The march of events in all theaters of warfare during 1915 is here presented in their chronological order, enabling the reader to visualize the successive phases of the great conflict.

EASTERN THEATER. JAN.—FEB.

## Battle of the Suez Canal Proves a Turkish Fizzle

Turkish Troops Easily Routed by the British Forces

Prince Kemal Becomes Sultan of Egypt

SECTION 2—1915

British Force, 40,000

Maj.-Gen. Sir John Maxwell, Commander

Turkish Force, 65,000

Gen. Djemal Pasha, Commander

THE German intriguants at Constantinople had been occupied since the first days of the War in developing a gigantic plot having for its ultimate object a universal uprising of the 300,000,000 Moslems throughout the East. They hoped thus to end the rule of England in both Egypt and India, and destroy the British Empire.

The Moslem world, however, refused to do the bidding of the Huns. Only the Osmanli Turks, now tottering to their fall, consented to act as the Kaiser's cat's-paws.

Germany had proposed, with the assistance of her Turkish allies, to take possession of the Suez Canal in the hope of separating England from India and at the same time menacing English rule in Egypt.

A Turkish Expeditionary Army of 65,000 men, under the nominal command of Djemal Pasha, but in reality led by German officers, was mobilized at Constantinople and ordered to seize the Suez Canal. The Mediterranean Sea route being then unsafe both for Turks and Germans, the Army in reaching Suez, was compelled to cross the trackless and waterless Syrian Desert, varying in width from 120 to 150 miles.

The defense of the Suez Canal had been assigned to Maj.-Gen. Sir John Maxwell, who had assembled an army corps recruited from the Egyptian troops.

As early as November 21, 1914, a skirmish had taken place between the Suez Canal defenders and a troop of 2,000 Bedouins, in which the Arabs were repulsed.

The defenses of the Suez Canal were at once strengthened. At the north end of the canal, the dyke was cut in several places in order to flood a portion of the Syrian Desert to the east and thus prevent attack in that direction. The inundation at once increased the British water defenses some 20 miles and reduced the entire British front about 60

miles. Naval patrols took over the task of guarding the Bitter Lakes through which the Suez Canal runs and the additional water areas in the North.

In the main, all British defences were arranged on the west bank of the canal, but in addition a few defence posts were built to cover ferries and other crossings. Four British gunboats—the Swiftsure, Ocean, Minerva and Clio—took stations in the canal, and two French warships assisted at Port Said, the northern end of the canal.

### The Attack on the Canal

EARLY in January, the British observers had noted enemy preparations in Syria, where the Turks had established outposts at Khan Yunus and Auja, the terminal of the railroad from Aleppo. A week later, the Turks had pushed their advanced posts forward to the villages of El Arish and Kossaima, both on Egyptian soil.

On January 28th, the vanguard of the Turkish Army advanced in two columns to the initial attack on the British line. In the North, the route from El Kantara to El Arish was temporarily cut by the Turks, but they were soon beaten back. In the South, skirmishes near El Kubic took place, but the Turks scored no great advantage.

The main army of the Turks, which had now dwindled to 12,000 men, arrived at the canal on February 2d. A skirmish near Ismailia Ferry was suddenly terminated by a violent sandstorm. After nightfall, however, the Turkish Army, hauled some 30 pontoon boats to the banks of the canal at Toussoun, 12 miles below Ismailia, and attempted to cross. The British troops opened fire with maxim guns, which took a heavy toll in lives. The Turks brought several batteries of field guns into action, but failed to silence the British batteries.



Next day, the British, supported by land and naval artillery, crossed the canal at Serapeum and attacked the Turkish left flank. By late afternoon a third of the Turkish Army was in full retreat leaving 500 prisoner and many dead behind them. The guns on a Turkish warship in the adjacent lake then opened a lively fire, damaging a British gunboat. During the night, the Turks stole away, and so ended the battle of the Suez

Canal. By February 10th the Sinai Peninsula was cleared of the enemy.

### Prince Hassein Kemel Ascends Throne of Egypt

AFTER the British Government had established a protectorate over Egypt, Lieut.-Gen. Henry MacMahon was appointed High Commissioner and Prince Hassein Kemel, eldest son of Ismail, ascended the throne of Egypt with the title of Sultan.

ALL OCEANS, FEB. 5 — DEC. 31

## German Submarines Begin Piratical Attacks on Passenger Ships

American Vessels and American Lives Sacrificed in Germany's  
Newly Established War Zone.

SECTION 3—1915

THE British Navy, after sweeping German commerce from the seas, strove to prevent the transportation to Germany of all foodstuffs, cotton, shells and copper. A virtual blockade over the German ports was established on February 2d, with the avowed purpose of starving Germany into submission.

In reprisal for England's blockade of German ports, which held the menace of ultimate starvation for the Huns, the Kaiser and Admiral von Tirpitz resolved to establish a "War Zone" about the British Isles, in the hope of destroying Allied and neutral commerce on the Atlantic and preventing the shipment of food and supplies to England. To enforce this counter-blockade, they made use of their highly developed submarines, sparing neither passenger nor freight vessels, and inaugurating a reign of terror on the seas which has made the name of German execrated throughout the earth.

### The War Zone

THIS resort to piracy began on February 4th, when it was declared that the waters round Great Britain and Ireland, including the whole of the British Channel, constituted a war region, and that on and after February 18th, all enemy and neutral ships would be liable to destruction without warning. A sea passage, 30 miles wide, to the north of the Shetland Islands and the eastern region of

the North Sea, was set apart for neutral shipping.

This presumptuous decree, which in effect assumed Germany's right to control the movements of all vessels of all nations upon the high seas, aroused the indignation of America and was the occasion of prompt diplomatic action.

### America Warns Germany and England

DESPITE the German blockade, American manufactures and farm products flowed steadily into the Allied ports. The United States Government, however, notified both England and Germany that, notwithstanding their mutual blockades, our rights as a neutral nation would be zealously safeguarded.

Having decided upon a policy of terrorism at sea, Germany lost no time in illustrating her aptitude for this form of inhuman warfare. Germany at this time possessed some 50 submarines of the Lake pattern, 213 feet long and 20 foot beam, with a speed of 12 knots when submerged, and a radius of 2000 miles.

So many British vessels were torpedoed during March that certain areas of the Irish Sea were closed to all kinds of traffic. Neutral ships, in order to escape attack, displayed their names in large lettering along their sides.

### Sinking of the William P. Frye

PREVIOUS to the establishment of the "War Zone," on January 28th, a German submarine

had sunk the American freight steamer, William P. Frye, in the South Atlantic, and a protest had been entered by our Government. Beginning in March, a whole sequence of outrages against American ships, and American passengers on friendly ships, were reported. These were made the subject of diplomatic controversy between the United States and Germany.

### **The Falaba, Gulflight and Cushing Sunk**

THE Liverpool liner, Falaba, engaged in the African trade, with 90 sailors and 100 passengers aboard, was overtaken by a German submarine in St. George's Channel on March 29th. The captain was given five minutes to put his crew and passengers into lifeboats. At the expiration of the time limit, she was sunk by a torpedo and 111 persons, including women and children, were drowned.

Soon after this outrage, the American steamship Cushing was attacked and damaged by a German airplane in the North Sea. Then came the sinking of the Lusitania with the loss of 1153 lives, including 114 Americans.

The American tank steamship Gulflight was torpedoed off the Scilly Islands on May 29th, but managed to creep into port. When the torpedo struck the ship, the captain expired of heart disease and two of the crew jumped into the sea to their death.

### **American Steamship Nebraskan Torpedoed**

AT 9 o'clock on the night of May 25th, the American steamship Nebraskan was torpedoed, off Fastnet on the English coast, and a hole 20 feet square torn in her starboard bow. All on board escaped in the life boats, but when it was seen that the Nebraskan was not sinking, they returned to the vessel and by pumping, managed to keep her afloat till she reached port.

### **Americans Go Down With The Armenian**

THIRTEEN persons, three of them Americans, lost their lives when the Leyland liner Armenian, carrying horses for the Allied Armies, was torpedoed, 20 miles off the Cornwall coast of England. After receiving two signals to stop, the captain of the Armenian put on all speed and attempted to escape.

The submarine opened fire upon the Armenian with shrapnel, killing 13 men and setting fire to the ship. Some of the lifeboats were riddled with shot, but the remainder of the crew were able to escape from the ship.

On July 25th, the American steamer Leelanaw, bound from Archangel to Belfast with flax, was torpedoed off the coast of Scotland.

### **Arabic Sunk With American Passengers**

Two more Americans and 30 British seamen were killed on August 19th, when the Atlantic liner Arabic was sunk by a torpedo off Fastnet Light, England, close to where the Lusitania was sunk. President Wilson again protested against this ruthless form of warfare. The German Government falsely alleged that the Arabic was torpedoed when in the act of ramming a German submarine which was engaged with another English vessel. Prompt denial was made of this assertion by many witnesses who testified that the Arabic, instead of participating in the fight, was endeavoring to escape when overtaken and torpedoed. Our Government entered into several "conversations" with Germany regarding the sinking of the Arabic, but beyond the denial by Germany that she had nursed any belligerent intent toward the United States, nothing came of the incident.

### **Our Consul Lost With The Persia**

ANOTHER wave of anger swept over America, on December 30th, when it was learned that the Oriental liner Persia had been sunk in the Mediterranean Sea, off Alexandria, Egypt, with a loss of 392 lives, including one American, Robert Ney McNeely, the newly appointed consul to Aden, who was en route to his post when he lost his life.

Germany, Austria, and Turkey each in turn disclaimed responsibility for this outrage. Our Government adopted the view that the Persia had rendered herself liable to submarine attack by carrying several 4.7 inch guns, and that the Consul, instead of taking passage on the guilty boat, should have asked for a United States warship to transport him to his post of duty.



### English Submarines Retaliate

ENGLAND did not visit retaliation on German shipping in the Baltic Sea until after the German Navy threatened the Russian port of Riga with her fleet in the fall of 1915. A squadron of British submarines was then sent into the Baltic Sea and on October 28th succeeded in sinking the armored cruiser Prinz Adalbert with 475 of her crew.

### Turkish Battleship Sunk

THE battleship Kheyr-ed-Barbarossa was sunk by British submarines in the Golden Horn, Constantinople, with a loss of 611 men. This feat served to clear the Sea of Marmora of Turkish shipping.

### 1000 Drowned on the Royal Edward

THE Turks took their revenge for the loss of the Barbarossa when they sank the English troopship, Royal Edward, in the Ægean Sea on August 17th, sending 1,000 men to their death out of a total of 1,702 aboard.

### 900 Vessels Sunk in 1915

DURING the year 1915, nearly 900 merchant craft were sunk by German submarines, yet the steam shipping of England during the year was increased by 88 vessels, despite her heavy losses, and the reprisals of Allied submarines resulted in driving German commerce from the Baltic Sea. Many German submarines had been sunk and others had been caught in a steel net sunk in the British Channel.

### American Lives Lost on the Ancona

WHILE Germany was pretending sorrow for the loss of American lives due to the sinking of the Lusitania, the Arabic and the William P. Frye, Austria aroused our nation to wrath by her sinking of the Italian passenger ship Ancona. On November 9th, while en route from Sicily to New York, the Ancona sighted an Austrian submarine in the Mediterranean.

She attempted to escape, but being overhauled, finally stopped. Then without further warning, or the observance of any of the formalities accompanying the right of search, the submarine opened fire upon the unarmed passenger ship, relentlessly shell-

ing not only the wireless apparatus, side and decks of the ship, but even the lifeboats in which the terrified passengers were seeking refuge. Some who approached the submarine in the hope of rescue were driven off with jeers. As a result of this inhuman procedure, 200 men, women, and children lost their lives, among them several American citizens.

When America protested against this wanton slaughter of innocent non-combatants, Austria at first sought to justify the act, but finally consented to punish the submarine commander, "for exceeding his instructions," at the same time pledging herself in future to observe "the sacred commandments of humanity" in conducting her warfare.

### Two German Raiders Interned

THE sensational career of the German auxiliary cruiser Prinz Eitel Frederick, Capt. Thierichens, came to an end on March 10, 1915. Eluding a watchful British cruiser, she slipped into the harbor of Newport News, Virginia, for repairs, carrying a crew of 200, besides 300 passengers whom she had captured on French British, Russian, and American vessels during her cruise of 30,000 miles over the Atlantic and Pacific Oceans. She had sent eight merchant ships to the bottom, including the William P. Frye, an American vessel, laden with wheat. The Prinz Eitel Frederick was at once interned.

The Kronprinz Wilhelm, another German raider, docked at Hoboken at the outbreak of the War. On the night of August 3, 1914, with her bunkers and even her cabins filled with coal and provisions, all her lights out and canvas covering her port holes, she escaped to sea, and in her subsequent raids captured numerous merchant ships of a total value of \$7,000,000 besides taking 960 prisoners.

She it was that supplied the Dresden with provisions. It was the Kronprinz Wilhelm, too, that anchored in the mid-Atlantic in order to serve as a wireless telegraph station for Admiral Spee's squadron. When she finally reached New York Harbor, most of her crew were suffering from a mysterious disease, thought to be beri-beri.

EASTERN THEATER, FEB.—APR.

## Russians Capture Przemyśl, 120,000 Prisoners and Much Booty

German and Austrian Armies Fail to Break Through the Russian Lines.

Hindenberg's Four Attacks on Warsaw All Prove Unavailing.

SECTION 4—1915

### Russian Forces, 2,000,000

Grand Duke Nicholas, Generalissimo  
Gen. Yanushkevitch, Chief of Staff

#### Northern Army groups

Gen. Russky  
Gen. Everts  
Gen. Sievers  
Gen. Bulgakoff

#### Southern Army groups—

Gen. Brusiloff  
Gen. Ivanoff  
Gen. Dmitrieff  
Gen. Alexeieff  
Gen. Selivanoff

### Austro-German Forces, 2,500,000

Gen. von Hindenberg, Generalissimo  
Gen. von Ludendorf, Chief of Staff

#### Northern Army groups (German)—

Gen. Below  
Gen. Eichhorn  
Gen. Scholz  
Gen. Gallwitz  
Gen. Litzmann

#### Southern Army groups (Austrian)—

Gen. Mackensen  
Gen. Dankl  
Gen. Boroëvic  
Archduke Joseph  
Prince Eugene  
Gen. Kusmanek (Przemyśl)

THE opening weeks of 1915, all blizzard-swept and cold beyond precedent, saw Germany massing millions of troops on the Eastern battle-front in the hope of rescuing Austria from the deadly embrace of the Russian bear.

Austria then was exhausted and near to complete collapse. The Russians had overrun all Galicia, driving some of the Austrian armies back into Hungary and seizing the main passes of the Carpathians. Lemberg and Jaroslav both had fallen; Przemyśl, with a garrison of 120,000, had been invested; and Austria had suffered the humiliation of being expelled from Bosnia by the despised Serbians. Unless Russia's grip on Austria were loosened, Austria might soon succumb and sue for a separate peace.

In seeking a final quick decision on the Eastern front, Germany was further influenced by the knowledge that, within a few months at most, she must be prepared to exert her full strength in the Western arena of war, for England's mighty Army was rapidly taking shape and in the coming summer would challenge Germany's occupancy of the Western trenches. It was necessary therefore to strike Russia a mortal blow.

In what sector of that 900-mile battle-line, extending from the Baltic Sea to the frontier of Bukowina, might Germany most effec-

tively strike at Russia? Surely in the Polish triangle, where Hindenberg had met with two repulses in November and December, preceding.

So, undeterred by his recent failure, Hindenberg determined to renew his assaults on the Polish salient, north and south, with Warsaw as his main objective. If his attack succeeded, the Russian Armies operating in Galicia must speedily be recalled to the defense of the Polish capital, giving Austria a respite in which to catch her breath.

### The Disposition of Armies

In February, there were nearly 5,000,000 troops facing each other on that long Eastern battle-line. On the German side, in Northern Courland, was the army of Gen. Below. Next below him, in the Mazurian Lake region, was Gen. Eichhorn's army. Gen. Scholz carried the line from Lomza to Płock. The Bzura River front in Poland was defended by Gen. Mackensen. Below him, stretching south as far as the Carpathians, were the armies of Gen. Dankl in the Nida sector and of Archduke Joseph in the Duna-jec sector. The passes of the Carpathians were defended by Gen. Boroëvic. Prince Eugene carried the German line still further south to the Roumanian frontier. Still another German army, that of Gen. Kus-



manek, was surrounded in the fortress at Przemysl by the Russians.

On the Russian side of the battle-line, Russky's army group held the greater part of the Northern front, from the Vistula to the Niemen, with Generals Sievers and Bulgakoff in command of individual armies. Gen. Ewerts' army was on the line of the Nida in Southwestern Poland.

On the Galician front, in the South, Gen. Dmitrieff's army stretched along the Duna-jec River, facing west toward Cracow. Brusiloff's army covered the Carpathian front, to the south of Przemysl. That fortress city was then being besieged by a reserve army under command of Gen. Selivanoff.

The extreme southern end of the Russian line, from the Kirlibaba Pass in Bukowina, to Kimpolung on the Roumanian border, was occupied by Gen. Alexeiff's army group.

In numbers the Germans held a slight superiority, but in artillery they by far excelled the Russians. The Germans were amply provided with 12-inch guns, while the Russians had only 6-inch bores. In addition the Russians were handicapped by the lack of ammunition.

There came a time when, lacking rifles, it was necessary to send forth Russian troops to assault the German line with only hand grenades for weapons. Yet the brave Russians succeeded in storming many a German stronghold with just such primitive tools of war.

## The War in the Carpathian Mountains

### Russian Forces, 900,000

Gen. Brusiloff  
Gen. Ivanoff  
Gen. Dmitrieff

### Austro-German Forces, 1,000,000

Archduke Eugene, Commander-in-Chief  
Western Army—Gen Boehm-Ermolli  
Eastern Army—Gen. Linsingen  
Southern Army—Gen. von Pflanzer

BEFORE launching his new drive against Warsaw, General von Hindenberg needed to strengthen and regroup the shattered Austrian Armies that had fled into Hungary and then embolden them to recover the Carpathian passes.

Early in January, several German Divisions were dispatched into Hungary, and these, uniting with the scattered Austrian forces, were formed into three new armies, with a total strength of 1,000,000 rifles. This Austro-German force was put under the supreme command of Archduke Eugene of Austria, with Generals Boehm-Ermolli, Linsingen and Pflanzer in immediate command of the army groups.

These armies, late in January, carried the War into the Carpathians. There, amid raging blizzards and in deepest snow, many furious battles were fought during the ensuing months. All these Austrian offensives ended in dismal failure.

The first task of the resuscitated Austrian Armies was to clear the province of Bukowina of the Russian invaders. There were strong

political reasons why Bukowina should be recovered. From Bukowina the Russians might easily advance to the conquest of Transylvania. Now both of these provinces were peopled by Roumanians and it had been Roumania's great ambition to annex them. Austrian domination had prevented, till now, the realization of this dream.

Both the Germans and the Allies had sought to win the support of Roumania in the War, but the Roumanians still remained neutral. If a sufficient bribe were offered Roumania she might be tempted to give her support to one side or the other.

The Austrians had no intention of giving Roumania the two provinces as the price of her support, but they feared Russia would do so if she succeeded in her conquest of the provinces. Hence their eagerness to dispossess Russia of Bukowina.

Gen. Pflanzer's Austrian Army moving eastward, retook the Kirlibaba Pass on January 22d, sweeping on through Bukowina to Czernowitz, the capital, which he occupied

on February 18th. Only a single Russian column, 30,000 men at most, opposed the advance of his great army. After driving the Russians out of Bukowina, Pflanzer crossed the Northern border into Galicia and captured the important junction city of Stan-

islau, 70 miles from Lemberg. Here his advance was stopped. A strong Russian force, early in March, forced him to evacuate Stanislau and retreat back to Czernowitz. With this repulse, the Austrian threat at the Russian communications was removed.

## The Battle of Kosiowa Rages for a Full Month

Feb. 6—Mar. 6.

Russian Army, 300,000  
Gen. Ivanoff

Austro-German Army, 350,000  
Gen. von Linsingen

THE Second Austrian Army, under Gen. von Linsingen, after traversing three of the Carpathian passes leading into Galicia, fell into a trap on the other side. The Austrians had to descend the bare slopes of the Lysa Gova Mountain, through two defiles, in front of the Ridge of Koziowa, upon which Gen. Ivanoff had posted his army. As they entered these defiles, the Austrian columns were swept by an enfilading fire, which took a dreadful toll of death.

In mass formation and at the point of the bayonet, the Austrians, on February 6th and 7th, attempted to storm the ridge. Twenty-two furious bayonet charges were repulsed in a single day, the Austrians falling like leaves in autumn.

Only two ways of escape remained open to the Austrians; one by retreating over the passes; the other, by advancing through those two narrow defiles leading into the plains below. So long as the Russians held the Ridge of Koziowa, it would have been slaughter to attempt to crowd a huge army through these narrow defiles. For an entire month this terrible battle raged, but the Austrians failed to drive the Russians from the ridge.

Meanwhile, due to the failure of this Austrian army to break through and come to its assistance, the great fortress of Lemberg had fallen. But the Austrians held most of the Carpathian passes.

## Capture of Przemyśl by the Russians

Mar. 22.

Russian Army, 100,000  
Gen. Selivanoff

Austrian Army, 120,000  
Gen. Kusmanek

THE most spectacular victory in the Eastern theater of war during the year 1915 was the Russian capture of the town and fortress of Przemyśl, in Galicia. The Russians had laid siege to this fortress in September, 1914, but the investment had been broken on October 15th, and additional Austrian troops had been rushed to the defense of the town.

After the fall of the fortress towns of Jaroslav and Chyrow, the Russians were enabled to renew the siege on November 12, 1914. The fortress was then defended by a garrison of 120,000 men, under command of Gen. von Kusmanek, and the Russian besieging force of 100,000 was directed by Gen. Selivanoff.

Gen. Selivanoff, not caring to risk a ground siege with his 6-inch guns, had gradually closed in upon Przemyśl on all sides by underground operations. With so large a garrison to feed, it was obvious that the fortress must eventually surrender unless the Russian siege circle could be pierced.

Foreseeing this peril, Gen. von Kusmanek, in November and December, had sent out sorties to break through the Russian line, but without success. Two Austro-Hungarian armies at this time were attempting to cross the Carpathians and hasten to the relief of Przemyśl, but being held in check by the armies of Brusiloff and Ivanoff, the fortress was doomed.



The pressure around Przemyśl tightened during January and February. On March 13th, the Russians broke through the outer line of defense at Malkovise and assaulted the inner line.

By March 19th, the luckless garrison were at the point of starvation; even the last of their horses had been devoured. Emboldened by hunger, a force of 30,000 Hungarians marched out from the forts with the desperate resolve to raid the Russian food base at Mosciska, 20 miles away.

Their route led them past the strongest of all the Russian artillery positions. When the Hungarians reached this position, they were annihilated by a tempest of shells, machine-gun fire and rifle bullets. The slaughter was almost complete, only 4,000 surviving the massacre.

Seeing that surrender was inevitable, Gen. Kusmanek ordered the destruction of the munitions within the fort, and the demolition of all bridges.

On March 22d, the formal capitulation took place. In all, 120,000 prisoners fell to the Russians, including nine generals, 93 superior officers, 2,500 subalterns and 117,000 soldiers, besides 1,000 pieces of ordnance.

The capture of Przemyśl deprived Austria of four army corps and released Selivanoff's army of 100,000 for service elsewhere along the Russian line.

### **Third Austrian Army Stopped in Dukla Pass**

The Third Austrian Army, commanded by Gen. Boehm-Ermolli, in the meantime, had been endeavoring to force the Dukla and Lupkow Passes of the Carpathians. Boehm-Ermolli did succeed in penetrating part way through the Lupkow Pass, forcing Gen. Brusiloff to fall back from Baligrod, but Gen. Dmitrieff had come to Brusiloff's assistance and the Austrian armies were finally stopped. The Russians thus secured control of the southern ends of the Dukla Passes.

For a month or more, Gen. Brusiloff strove mightily to gain control of the Eastern passes as well, but he could not dislodge the Austrians from the heights. In one flanking movement, on February 7th, the Russians took 17,000 prisoners. The Austrian invasion, however, had failed to attain its major purposes, namely, to expel the Russians from Bukowina and to relieve the besieged garrison at Przemyśl.

## **Third Assault on Warsaw Ends In Failure**

Feb. 1-8

Russian Force, 100,000  
Gen. Russky

German Force, 150,000  
Gen. Mackensen

Hindenberg, on February 1st, launched his third drive on Warsaw, using for the purpose an army of 150,000, under the command of Gen. Mackensen.

This time the movement was inaugurated with a frontal attack directed against the west side of the Polish salient opposite Bolimof, 40 miles from Warsaw. It was preceded by a violent artillery preparation which wrecked the Russian trenches.

A terrific snowstorm set in, screening the movements of the German troops. In dense masses, ten to twenty men deep, the German tidal wave advanced, surging over the first Russian trench line on a seven-mile front facing the Rawa River.

On the following day, the German flood overflowed the second and third Russian lines, advancing five miles along the Warsaw Railroad. Here it was checked for two days by the stubborn Russian resistance.

The arrival of Russian reinforcements from Warsaw on February 4th turned the tide.

In the midst of a driving blizzard the Russians furiously counter-attacked, steadily pushing back Mackensen's army, day by day, until on February 8th, the Germans had been forced back to the Rawa trenches. Mackensen's drive had failed and 20,000 German lives paid the forfeit of this third thrust at Warsaw.

## Another Russian Disaster in East Prussia

Feb. 10-12

Russian Forces, 160,000

Gen. Sievers  
Gen. Bulgakoff

German Forces, 300,000

Gen. von Eichhorn  
Gen. von Below  
Gen. von Falck

THE scene of battle now shifts to the frozen North, where the Russians are courting fresh disaster in the treacherous region of the Mazurian Lakes in East Prussia. Early in February, a small Russian Army in command of Gen. Sievers had rashly invaded East Prussia from the North. As usual, the Germans proceeded to envelop and trap this army.

Gen. Eichhorn, in command of the German forces, was instructed to draw the Russians on until they had got themselves in a position where it would be easily possible to flank them. The Germans, accordingly, fell back upon strongly fortified positions behind the Mazurian Lakes and the line of Angerapp River.

The Russians heroically charged these positions, the Third Siberian Corps wading up to their shoulders in icy water in a vain attempt to cross the Nietlitz Swamp, in the face of the enemy's fire.

Von Hinderberg, who was personally observing the battle, now summoned von Below's army from the Courland front, farther north and began an enveloping movement around both flanks of the Russian Army.

A heavy snowstorm set in, February 5, and the deep drifts rendered motor traffic difficult. The Germans had prepared for this contingency, having thousands of sleighs and tens of thousands of sleigh-runners ready for the rapid transport of their guns and wagons. The Russians, on the contrary, were unable to move most of their big guns.

With great rapidity, the Germans moved to the attack. The Southern column, under Gen. Falck, struck the Russians at Kolna, and the Northern column fell upon the other wing on a line reaching almost to the Russian border.

The Russian left wing began its retreat in a blinding snowstorm, and was driven relentlessly by the Germans, leaving behind 40,000 prisoners. On February 10th, the snow still falling heavily, the Russians made a stand at Eydtkuhnen. At midnight the Germans launched a surprise attack and drove the Russians from village to village, until on February 15th, this wing was forced back across the Russian frontier.

The Russian right wing, meanwhile, had been flanked near Kovno, taking refuge in the Forest of Augustowa and abandoning most of its vehicles. Men and horses sank to their waists in the snow. No food was procurable, as the field kitchens could not follow the armies. With the snow falling heavily, an icy gale blowing, and shelter denied them, the plight of the soldiers in both armies was pitiful. Many thousands of Russians were taken prisoners and other thousands slain.

Meanwhile, the Russian left wing had been pressed back to Lyck, where a furious battle was fought on February 12th, under the eyes of the German Emperor. Three days later the remnant of this army found its way back on Russian soil.

The Russian right wing, after being shut up in the Forest of Augustowa, fought desperately to break through to the fortress of Grodno, but most of them were captured or killed.

The Germans claim to have annihilated Gen. Sievers' army, taking 100,000 prisoners in all the battles of the Mazurian Lakes. The Russian figures are not available. But it was a great disaster to Russian armies without a question.

## Russians Without Guns, Take Przasnysz

Feb. 24-Mar. 23

Russian Force, 50,000

Gen. Sievers

German Forces, 100,000

Gen. Gallwitz  
Gen. Scholz

WHILE the Russians were being driven out of East Prussia, a German Army, commanded by Gen. Gallwitz, had invaded Rus-

sia and aimed a sudden blow at Przasnysz, a town lying some 50 miles north of Warsaw. If this position could be taken, the Germans



would have no difficulty in cutting the railway between Warsaw and Petrograd.

On February 24th, the Germans stormed the town, which was garrisoned by a force of 40,000 infantry, with some cavalry in support. Przasnysz was evacuated the next day, the Russians making an orderly retreat and contesting every foot of the ground.

One Russian division held a ridge southwest of the town for 36 hours against the attacks of four German divisions. Apprised of the danger, Grand Duke Nicholas despatched a body of Russian raw recruits to the scene.

Lacking rifles, and armed only with bayonets and hand grenades, these raw recruits heroically charged the German columns. A desperate hand-to-hand combat followed. In the end, the Russians triumphed.

The seasoned German troops fled in headlong retreat before those raw recruits, never stopping until after they had reached the German border. The Russians claimed 11,000 prisoners in this engagement.

Gen. Gallwitz, having meanwhile strengthened his army, on March 8th advanced again in the direction of Przasnysz, but only to be repulsed. For ten days, from March 13th to 23d, a determined battle raged round about Jednovozez, no fewer than 46 assaults taking place. The casualties on both sides were heavy, but in the end the Germans were driven back.

#### German Retreat from Ossowietz

AFTER his defeat in the winter battles along the Mazurian Lakes, Gen. Sievers had

been deposed from his command and three new Russian corps, 150,000 strong, had been brought to the defense of Fort Grodno. The ranks of Sievers' decimated corps had also been filled up. Thus reinforced, the Russians gave battle again to Hindenberg's army, which had now reached Suwalki and was endeavoring to cut the main line from Warsaw to Petrograd. This movement was held in check. Hindenberg now began the bombardment of Ossowietz, but here the massive defenses proved unconquerable by the 42-centimeter mortars which had reduced the forts at Liege and Namur. The bombardment continued through February and March. Finally, on April 11th, the Germans gave up in despair all thoughts of forcing the Russian line in the Warsaw salient and retreated to their frontier.

#### Invasion of Courland

The Russians sent a small body of troops into Courland on March 18th and drove the Germans out of Memel, but were themselves forced to evacuate the city a few days later.

On April 27th, a large German Army, under command of Gen. von Lauenstein, entered Courland. Preceded by a cavalry brigade, which destroyed all the railway tracks and bridges to the southwest and northwest of Shavli, the Army advanced in three columns. One column moved on Libau, held by the Russians, which was shelled by German naval vessels on April 29th. The city was evacuated on May 8th, and at once occupied by the Germans.

WESTERN THEATER, MAR. 10

### Slaughter of British at Neuve Chapelle Due to Poor Leadership

A "Victory" that Cost England 13,000 of Her Bravest Sons

Barrage Fire Used for the First Time by the Germans

SECTION 5—1915

British Army, 80,000  
Gen. Douglas Haig  
Gen. Smith-Dorrien  
Sir Henry Rawlinson

German Army, 50,000  
Gen. Falkenhayn  
Crown Prince Rupprecht of Bavaria

THE dearest "victory" yet won during the War was that of the British in the battle at Neuve Chapelle, beginning March 10th. This engagement was otherwise noteworthy as the first in which the barrage fire was used by either side.

The Allies and the Germans had rested quietly in their muddled trenches all winter long with nothing to relieve the monotony save occasional "nibbling" operations intended to straighten the lines.

Early in February, Gen. Langle de Carey's

French army in Champagne had made an attack upon the Germans at Perthes, and reinforcements had been drawn from the German trenches between La Basse and Lille, thus weakening their defences at Neuve Chapelle. Two British army corps, numbering 80,000 men, and commanded by Gen. Sir Douglas Haig, were ordered to attack in the expectation of breaking through the German barrier.

On the morning of March 10th, the British gunners found the exact range of the German trenches. At 7 o'clock the most deafening roar of artillery yet heard on the Western front shook the earth, as 350 huge howitzers and field guns dropped their lyddite shells and bombs into the German trenches at short range. For an hour the shell fire continued and behind this the English soldiers walked in safety through No-Man's Land. The barbed wire emplacements of the enemy at one end of the line were torn like threads.

Soon a dense pall of smoke hung over the German lines. The deadly fumes of the lyddite blew back into the English trenches. In some places the troops were smothered in dust, and spattered with blood from the hideous fragments of human bodies, that went hurling through the air. At one point, the upper half of a German officer, his cap crammed on his head, was blown into one of the British trenches.

### Indian Troops Seize Neuve Chapelle

AFTER an hour's bombardment of the German trenches, the curtain of fire was extended beyond the village, to clear the way for an infantry rush, and at the same time prevent German reinforcements reaching the front. In a twinkling the Hindu troops on the right of the British line went "over the top" and stormed the German trenches in front of the village of Neuve Chapelle, finding them filled with a welter of dead or dying men. The survivors mostly surrendered. Beyond the trenches the village of Neuve Chapelle was a heap of ruins. All that remained intact in that once fair village were two great crucifixes reared aloft, one in the churchyard, the other near a chateau. Meanwhile, the machine guns were keeping up their fire from houses in the outskirts.

**Scottish Troops Slaughtered Through** all the lines were

AT the other end of the British lines, ever, disaster attended the attack. The artillery on the left wing had failed to clear the barb-wire entanglements for the rush of the Scottish Rifles. The accidental destruction of the British field telephone system, by shell fire, also added to the confusion. The Scottish Rifles charged against the barbed wire, even tried to tear it with their hands, while the murderous fire of the Germans laid them low by thousands. Out of one battalion of 750 men, only 150 answered the roll call at the end of the day.

### British Division Held in the Open Five Hours

To the left of Neuve Chapelle, on the Auber Ridge, the 7th Division also came to grief. This division had been ordered to wait at the ridge until after the Eighth Division had reached Neuve Chapelle before advancing through Aubers. Seeing their plight the Germans opened a deadly fire upon that front. At last, after facing this avalanche of shells for five hours, the division was ordered to charge the German gunners. The advance was made in the face of a blazing inferno of shell fire. In this hopeless assault, the British were slaughtered by thousands.

Late that afternoon, finding further advance impossible, the survivors intrenched under the relentless German fire. At day-break the plucky Britons returned to the attack, but were so greatly outnumbered that a retreat to the trenches was ordered. In this one engagement the British lost 13,000 men; of these, 1751 officers and men were taken prisoners.

### Germans Also Lose Heavily

THE battle continued throughout Thursday, March 11th, the British still holding Neuve Chapelle. Under cover of a fog, on the following day, Crown Prince Rupprecht of Bavaria led a large German force in mass formation against the British position. As the German squares emerged from the Biez Wood, they were blown to fragments by the British gunfire.

Wave after wave of Bavarian and Westphalian troops advanced fearlessly to their doom. The slaughter was almost as great as that sustained by the English troops two



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### e of St. Eloi

AS AN immediate sequel to the struggle at Neuve Chapelle, a short and furious battle

took place at St. Eloi, four miles south of Ypres, on March 14th. Following a heavy bombardment, the Germans sprang a mine in a large tumulus or hill within the British lines, and stormed the British entrenchments. The British counter-attacked the next day and recaptured nearly all of the lost ground, but the Germans remained in possession of the hill itself.

WESTERN THEATER, APRIL 22 — MAY 13

## Second Battle of Ypres Fought Amidst Clouds of Poison Gas

Canadian Heroes Hold Allied Line After Colored Troops Are Annihilated

SECTION 6 — 1915

Canadian Forces, 30,000

First Brigade, Gen. Mercer  
Second Brigade, Gen. Currie  
Third Brigade, Gen. Turner  
Artillery, Gen. Burstall  
British Cavalry, Gen. Allenby, Gen. Rivington  
British Battalions (5), Col. Geddes  
French Colonial Division (colored), 20,000

German Force, 150,000

Duke of Wurtemberg's army

FROM the close of the first battle of Ypres, in November, 1914, until the spring of 1915, the Ypres salient had remained comparatively quiet. About the middle of April, the Duke of Wurtemberg's army, 150,000 strong, made a partially successful attempt to squeeze out the salient east of Ypres.

In retaliation, the British assaulted the German position on April 17th, capturing Hill 70, an eminence commanding the city on the southeast. Repeated counter attacks by the Germans failed to dislodge them. The general positions of the combatant armies, however, remained practically unchanged, the Germans still holding the Wytschaete and Messines hills.

Early in April, the defenses of the Ypres salient had been somewhat weakened by the transfer south of the best French troops, together with most of the British artillery, to assist in the great spring offensive, which Gen. Foch was about to launch. The breach in the Allied line was filled by three brigades of raw Canadian troops, newly arrived in Belgium, and a division of colored French Colonial troops, mostly Turcos and Zouaves. The watchful Germans thought the condi-

tions most favorable for an attack on the northern face of the salient with a chance of breaking through to the coast.

### The First Chlorine Gas Attack

ABOUT the middle of April, a deserter from the German lines had warned the Allied commander that the Germans were planning to annihilate the defenders of Ypres with poison gas, but the story was dismissed as a visionary tale.

On the afternoon of April 22d, without further warning, a cloud of greenish-yellow chlorine gas, five miles long, was observed to emit from the German trenches, being slowly wafted by the north wind toward the point where the French and Canadian lines met, in the Northern section of the Ypres salient between Bixschoote and Langemarck. As the poison cloud advanced, the vapor seemed to cling to the earth, seeking out every hole and hollow, and filling the trenches and shell holes as it crept along.

### Colored Troops Overcome by Gas

THE division of colored troops, French Colonials, being in the main path of the cloud, were first enveloped in the deadly fumes, which left them choking and agonized

in the fight for breath. Thousands in the first support trenches and in the reserve lines either suffered violent suffocation, vomited blood, or fell in contortions, many dying later in the field ambulances, and casualty clearing stations.

Some were blinded or stupefied; others saved themselves by burying their faces in the earth, wrapping mufflers about their faces, or stuffing their handkerchiefs into their mouths. The majority of those in the front line perished.

Throughout this terrible ordeal, the German artillery kept up its deadly work, the high explosive shells bursting among the helpless victims of the infernal gas. The remainder of the black troops fled, in wild panic, toward Ypres, leaving a gap four miles wide in the line between Langemarck and the Ypres-Commines Canal. The effect of their withdrawal was to leave the Canadian left wing exposed to attack by 150,000 German troops and the massed German artillery.

#### **Gallant Canadians Hold Firm**

THE main path of the poison cloud also struck the left wing of the Third Canadian Brigade, commanded by Brigadier-General Turner. Though almost suffocated, and their line torn by the fearful cannonading, the brave Canadians held firm.

One detachment with handkerchiefs or mufflers tied over their mouths, actually charged back through the deadly gas cloud in the endeavor to reach the barbarous authors of the gas attack. What became of these heroic Canadians is not definitely known.

Penetrating this cloud of death, the German soldiers, all wearing respirators, poured through the four-mile gap in the Allied line caused by the flight of the French colored troops.

Quickly drawing back his left flank, which had been exposed by the rout of the colored troops, Gen. Turner reformed his Canadian brigade in a semi-circle and stoutly engaged the enemy.

Still dazed and nauseated by the poisonous fumes, and pounded by the fire of the Hun artillery, the brave Canadian troops held the enemy at bay, though the odds were four to one. Thousands fell gloriously in

that unequal struggle. Meanwhile, all the available British and Canadian reserves were brought up.

The day was saved by the timely arrival of five British battalions, under Col. Geddes, which filled the gap in the line.

In the confusion of the first attack, the Canadians had lost several field guns in the St. Julian Wood. These were retaken at the point of the bayonet by the Scottish Canadians after a most gallant assault on the wooded position.

All through the night the main battle continued, the German machine guns playing upon the Canadian Scots "like watering pots." But the line never wavered. As soon as one man fell, another took his place. Finally, the Germans ceased firing and the Canadians were able to intrench in the coveted position. Just before daylight, however, the German artillery fire swept the woods like a hurricane and the Canadians were forced to evacuate.

#### **Within Three Miles of Ypres**

AT break of day, the Germans on the left flank forced the crossing of the Yser Canal, seized Lizerne and advanced to within three miles of Ypres. A counter attack on April 26th by the Canadian 1st Brigade, commanded by Brigadier-Gen. Mercer, was set in motion. Against a fusillade of shot and shell from the German guns, the brigade pressed resolutely forward and at the point of the bayonet forced the Huns out of their front line trenches, retaking Lizerne. Had the Canadian line broken, the whole Western line of the salient must have gone and Ypres would have been lost.

#### **Ypres Destroyed by Shell Fire**

DAY after day, for nearly a month, the desperate battle continued without cessation. The Germans were gradually forced back across the canal. British and Belgian reinforcements appeared and closed the gap in the Canadian line.

The terrific German artillery was now directed on the city of Ypres and many of its historic buildings were destroyed by incendiary bombs. The British troops had neither artillery nor ammunition with which to reply to this bombardment. Seeing that the salient was untenable, the British on May



13th withdrew from Pilken Ridge to a new line about a mile east of Ypres.

By the use of gas, and by their superiority in men and artillery, the Germans had won a limited victory. But the heroism of the Canadian troops who defended Ypres will be

the theme of song and story so long as the world endures.

The British losses in this battle were 60,000; the German losses, 40,000. The Germans took several thousand French Colonials prisoners.

WESTERN THEATER, MAY 7

## Lusitania Torpedoed; 1198 Lives Lost Off Coast of Ireland

Pres. Wilson Warns Germany She Will be Held to "Strict Accountability"

SECTION 7—1915

THE whole civilized world was horrified to learn, on May 7, 1915, that the Cunard Line Steamship *Lusitania*, bound from New York to Liverpool with 1959 persons aboard, of whom 179 were Americans, had been torpedoed off the southwestern coast of Ireland and 1198 lives lost.

The toll of death included 114 Americans and 35 infants. Many persons of distinction went down with the *Lusitania*, including Alfred Gwynne Vanderbilt, Charles Frohman, Charles Klein, Elbert Hubbard, Justus Miles Forman, and William T. Stead.

### German Warnings Published in New York

NINE days before the time set for the sailing of the *Lusitania*, all the notable Americans who had booked passage on the ship were warned by anonymous telegrams to cancel their engagements.

A further warning appeared on the day the ship sailed, in the form of advertisements in the New York dailies, giving notice to neutral travelers that the Zone of War included the waters adjacent to the British Isle and that all vessels flying the British flag were liable to destruction in those waters.

To counteract this threat, the agent of the Cunard Line assured the passengers that no danger need be apprehended. Very few of the passengers cancelled their bookings. So the *Lusitania* was permitted to steam out of New York Harbor on the appointed day.

### Two Torpedoes Strike the Lusitania

ALL went well until 2 o'clock on the afternoon of May 7th, when the *Lusitania*, then some ten miles off the Old Head of Kinsale,

the most southerly point of Ireland, sighted a submarine. Without warning, torpedoes in quick succession struck the ship, crashing through the hull and opening a large cavity through which the water entered. Many seamen were killed outright or injured by the explosions.

### Rescue Ships Threatened

Boats were lowered in haste, only to capsize in the placid sea. The listing of the ship increased the work of rescue. Wireless calls for aid brought many naval vessels and other ships to the assistance of the doomed ship.

One of these, the *Narragansett*, received the call while dodging two submarines which fired upon her as she speeded on her errand of mercy.

The steamer *Etonian* was prevented from answering the call by a warning that she, too, might be attacked.

Eighteen minutes after being struck, the *Lusitania* went down, Capt. Turner still standing upon the bridge. He was afterward rescued. Women and children were given priority in the boats, but in the excitement, several boats were overturned.

The Americans, without exception, died heroically, assisting the women to places of safety in the boats.

### Kaiser Guilty of Wholesale Murder

THE German Government hastened to justify the crime, by the false assertion that the *Lusitania* was in reality an armed munition ship.

This mendacious claim was met by the proof that the *Lusitania* carried no guns, either mounted or unmounted, and the only

munitions in her hold were 1250 shell cases and 4200 cases of cartridges adapted for small arms.

A coroner's jury, at Kinsale, Ireland, charged the Emperor and the Government of Germany with "the crime of wholesale murder before the tribunal of the civilized world."

### Wilson's Warning to Germany

SIX days after the sinking of the *Lusitania*, President Wilson, in a communication to the German Government, declared that "American citizens act within their indisputable rights, in taking their ships and in traveling, wherever their legitimate business calls them upon the high sea." He recited the series of outrages perpetrated by Germans in which American lives had been jeopardized; called upon the German Government to "disavow the acts of which the Government of the United States complains," and warned the German Government that the United States would omit no word or act necessary to the performance of its sacred duty of maintaining the rights of the United States and its citizens, and of safeguarding their free exercise and enjoyment.

Finally, the President warned the German Government that he would hold it to "a strict accountability" for any infringements of the rights of American citizens, intentional or incidental.

The German Government, on May 30th, pleaded extenuation for the crime by reasserting the falsehood that the *Lusitania* carried munitions of war and was probably armed.

### Two Cabinet Members Resign

President Wilson replied vigorously, demanding assurances that Germany would

refrain from conducting submarine warfare upon unarmed passenger boats. Germany pretended to agree to this proposal.

The American Secretary of State, William Jennings Bryan, was so shocked at the belligerent tone of President Wilson's warning to Germany that he resigned and Robert Lansing was appointed his successor.

Lindley M. Garrison, Secretary of War, also resigned from the President's Cabinet, because his views on war preparedness did not coincide with those of the President. Newton D. Baker of Cleveland, Ohio, was chosen to succeed him.

### More German Parleys

PRESIDENT Wilson resumed negotiations with Germany, looking to a settlement of the damage claims for loss of life on the *Lusitania*. On February 8, 1916, Germany promised to make due reparation for the wholesale murders committed, and was almost constrained to admit that the sinking of the *Lusitania* was a crime.

A week later, however, the German Government reopened the rupture by declaring that all armed merchantmen of an enemy nation would be regarded as warships and be subject to attack without warning.

While these parleys were in progress, on March 24th, the passenger steamship *Sussex* was torpedoed without warning in the English Channel. President Wilson, in despair of ever recalling the German admiralty to a sense of humanity, demanded that the ruthless methods of naval warfare cease at once on pain of the instant rupture of diplomatic relations. The continuance of this parley belongs to a later period of the War story.

ALL FRONTIERS—MAY 31

## War In Air Strikes Terror Throughout Europe and Asia

Eighteen Zeppelin Raids Upon English Cities, 309 Persons Killed, Including 51 Children

SECTION 8—1915

THE war in the air, during 1915, carried the flaming sword through the skies hundreds of miles beyond the battle lines, striking terror among the non-combatant populations of cities in all parts of Europe.

Of all the devilish innovations of war, inaugurated by the Germans, none irritated the Britons as did those raids upon their defenceless cities when shrieking bombs crashed from the dead roofs of houses in the dead



their toll of death among the sleeping non-combatants.

When the War began, Germany had 35 of these dirigible balloons, veritable ships of the air, each capable of carrying a load of seven tons and a crew of 20 men, together with fuel for the engines, provisions, wireless apparatus and armament. The pre-war type of zeppelins could fly 1,000 miles in 31 hours.

In battle, however, the zeppelins were found to be practically ineffective, being easily destroyed by the aeroplane guns. They were used principally in carrying out Germany's policy of brutal and cowardly terrorism, by dropping bombs upon sleeping cities and seashore resorts, and aiming chiefly at striking terror among women and children in the unprotected towns.

The first airship raid over England took place on January 19th, when two zeppelins passed over the towns of Yarmouth, Cromer, Sheringham, and King's Lynn, dropping bombs as they sailed along, and killing nine civilians.

### Three Zeppelins Come to Grief

Three zeppelins, while heading for England, were caught in a storm of sleet over the North Sea, February 16th. One zeppelin managed to make a landing on Fance Island in Denmark, its crew suffering acutely from frostbitten hands and feet. A second airship fell into the sea and all the crew were lost. The third airship foundered off the west coast of Jutland and four of its crew were killed. The zeppelins made no further raids until the weather improved.

### Zeppelins Kill 50 in Warsaw

IN March, a squadron of zeppelins shelled Warsaw in Poland, killing 50 persons and causing many fires. One of the raiders was brought down, March 18th, and her crew captured.

Early in the morning of March 21st, four zeppelins headed for Paris. French airmen of No. 1 met them at Compeigne and forced them to turn back. The other two

Two, including the French patrol, kept up

ALL went right with pursuing aeroplanes noon of May 7 bombs over Versailles. Sailsome ten miles they dropped 25 bombs, kill-

ing eight persons and starting a number of fires. All Paris rushed from bed at 4 a. m. to witness the fight in the air.

The Allied batteries at Ypres opened fire on a zeppelin that was surveying the gun positions early on the morning of April 13th. The craft was so badly injured, it fell a complete wreck, near Thielt.

A zeppelin arrived at Newcastle-on-Tyne, England, April 13th, and aimed a dozen bombs at the arsenal and naval workshops; but though several fires were started, no material damage resulted.

A fleet of zeppelins shelled Blyth, Wallsend, and South Shields, on the northeast coast of England, on the night of April 14th, but without causing extensive damage to the industrial and shipping centers of Tyneside.

Zeppelins raided Lonestoft, Malden, and Hebridge in England, on April 16th, set several fires, killed two horses and incited a panic, but no persons were killed.

### Bombing a Hospital

A TYPICAL Hun performance was that of sending a squadron of six zeppelins direct to Southwold, England, April 26th, where the Countess Stradbroke had converted her mansion into a hospital for wounded soldiers, and dropping six bombs in close proximity to the building. Fortunately these bombs missed their mark.

On April 26th, three towns within 30 miles of London were shelled, but the British airmen drove off the invaders. Shortly after midnight, the next morning, one of the zeppelins dropped seven bombs in the neighborhood of Colchester.

Zeppelins visited Warsaw, Poland, a second time, on April 21st, damaging the post office and killing a dozen persons.

### Orphanage Damaged, Many Children Injured

A MIDNIGHT zeppelin raid over Calais took place on April 26th. Here an orphanage was damaged and many children injured.

A French torpedo boat in the English Channel brought down a zeppelin which was returning from a raid on an English town, on May 17th.

Two zeppelins and two Taubes were pursued by French aeroplanes near Calais, on May 18th. One of the zeppelins attacked London.

### First Raid on London

SO WELL was London guarded from hostile air craft that the zeppelins were denied access to the areas above the metropolis until May 31st, ten months after the opening of the War. Near midnight, on that day, several zeppelins appeared above the city, raining down shells upon the city and killing six persons.

In reprisal the citizens of London declared a boycott upon every person having a name of German origin; German shops were looted, German homes were attacked, and rioting took place in many districts where Germans were numerous.

### Huns Violate Their Agreement

ON June 3d, Great Britain and Germany agreed upon a plan for the protection of public buildings from air raids. Hospitals, churches, museums, and other public buildings were to be indicated by large white crosses on their roofs. Despite this agreement, the Huns continued to bomb such buildings.

### Burning Zeppelin Sets Fire to an Orphanage

ENGLAND'S east coast was visited by zeppelins on the night of June 6th, and 24 persons were killed and 440 injured.

The next night a zeppelin shelled Yarmouth, killing four and injuring 40. While returning home, the zeppelin met a British monoplane on scout duty near Brussels.

The little aeroplane gave battle to the dreadnought of the air, which finally exploded and fell, "like a flaming comet," upon the convent orphanage of Le Gran Beguinage de Sainte Elizabeth, in the suburbs of Ghent.

Several of the convent buildings were set afire, causing the death of two nuns and two children. The zeppelin crew of 28 were burned to cinders.

The hero of this exploit, Lieut. Warneford, while flying in a new French machine a few days later, was in turn killed by the falling machine.

### 45 French Airships Raid Germany

Reprisals were taken for the zeppelin raids in England. On June 15th, a fleet of 45 French battle planes flew across Germany to Karlsruhe, setting fire to the largest chem-

ical plants of that city and wrecking both wings of the Margrave's Palace in which the Queen of Sweden was sleeping at the time. She and other titled personages barely escaped death. Fires broke out in various parts of Karlsruhe; 112 persons were killed and 30 injured.

### Raid on English Gun Factory

A ZEPPELIN attack upon the Armstrong munition factory at South Shields, England, was made at midnight, June 16th, killing 16 and injuring 40. The buildings were only partially destroyed.

### Air Raids in Italy

THE Austrians made several aerial attacks upon the historic cities of Italy, evidently with the purpose of destroying their architectural and art treasures. Venice was bombed on several occasions. As a measure of precaution the priceless art works of Venice, including the stained glass windows from cathedrals, the paintings and the statuary, were removed far inland, while the base of the Campanile and other historic edifices were protected by thousands of sand bags.

Numerous fires were caused in Venice and other Italian cities. In reprisal, the Italians attacked Austrian supply bases, railway stations and other vantage points.

### St. Quentin Ablaze

FRENCH airmen were very active from the beginning of the War and many raids were made upon German cities. On April 15th, the station at Saint Quentin was shelled, 150 freight cars and extensive freight sheds were destroyed and the city itself became a roaring furnace for several hours. Twenty-four Germans were killed.

On the following day, French aviators dropped bombs on the German munition works at Leopoldhehe, the electric and munition plants at Metz, and other German centers, doing much damage.

Friedrichshofen was visited twice during April, the French bombs destroying \$1,000,000 worth of property.

### French Anti-Aircraft Gun

THE French devised an improved machine gun for use in their Voisin biplanes which proved very effective. They also invented a



microphone device, so sensitive as to announce the approach of zeppelins and airplanes when many miles away.

English cities, during the period of the air raids, were kept in outer darkness. Windows were covered, street lights were extin-

guished, and the populace walked the streets at their peril.

It was estimated that 309 innocent non-combatants, including 51 children, were killed in England as a result of the 18 zeppelin raids made in 1915.

WESTERN THEATER, MAY—JUNE

## Battle of Artois Disastrous for Allies and Germans Alike

100,000 Men Fall In Struggle for Notre Dame and Aubers Ridges  
British Shell Scandal Results in Removal of Lord Kitchener

SECTION 9—1915

Allied Forces, 430,000

Gen. Joffre, Commander-in-Chief

French Army Group—280,000

Gen. Foch, Commander

Gen. Petain

Gen. D'Urbal

British Army—150,000

Gen. Sir John French, Commander

Gen. Sir Douglas Haig

Gen. Sir Henry Rawlinson

Gen. Sir Herbert Plumer

German Forces, 600,000

Bavarian Army—Prince Rupprecht.

Wurtemberg Army—Duke Albert

Prussian Army—Gen. Buelow

THE hopes of the Allies, during the early spring of 1915, were centered in the Franco-British offensive which Gen. Foch was preparing to launch in May. In deciding upon this offensive, Gen. Foch had kept two objects in view.

First, he hoped to erase the Lens salient by ejecting the enemy from their powerful trench positions on the heights to the west of Lens and driving the Germans across the Artois plain toward Douai. The immediate effect of this operation would be to relieve Ypres from the German pressure.

Second, by pounding the Germans hard on the Western front, he expected to compel them to withdraw several corps from the Eastern front, thus succoring the Russians at a moment when they were facing disaster.

The Battle of Artois, as Foch's spring offensive came to be known, consisted of simultaneous attacks against the German line, by the French and British, launched at separate points. The French Army had for its objectives the strongly fortified heights known as Vimy Ridge and Notre Dame de Lorette. Supporting this operation, the British Army was to assault the German position on Aubers Ridge, further north.

The combined strength of the Franco-British forces was 430,000, while the German armies opposed to them, carried 600,000 rifles. The Germans held the advantage in their strongly fortified positions on the heights. Gen. Foch thought to offset this by a concentration of artillery on a scale never before attempted on the Western front. The French alone had 1,100 cannon directed on the German positions.

### Battle of Notre Dame de Lorette

WITH an army of 280,000 seasoned troops, supported by 1,100 pieces of heavy artillery, Gen. Foch, on May 9th, struck hard at the German line on a twelve-mile front to the south of La Bassee.

The main assault was directed at the German stronghold on the Ridge of Notre Dame de Lorette, overlooking the plains about Lens. The artillery preparation excelled in violence anything hitherto heard in France. In the space of a few hours, 300,000 shells fell like an avalanche upon the German fortifications, burying many of the defenders. Parapets and entanglements alike were blown to fragments.

When the artillery fire subsided, the French poilus dashed forward in three col-

umns to storm the heights. The German first-line trenches were quickly seized. In a few hours the northernmost French Corps had conquered all the slopes of Notre Dame to the west of Lens.

The French advance on the southwest was equally successful. In rapid succession, La Targette, Neuville-St. Vaast, and Ablain-St. Nazaire were captured.

In the center, Gen. Petain's famous 33d Corps swept like a flood over what had been known as the White Works, rapidly advancing two miles beyond the Arras-Bethune Road. In an hour they had overrun all three German trenches and pierced the German lines. Three thousand prisoners and 60 guns were captured in that initial rush forward.

Had the French line everywhere been able to conform to the pace set in the center, Lens might then have fallen. Unfortunately, there were no French troops in support of Petain's corps and so his golden opportunity was lost. Before night, the breach in the German line had been closed by German reserves, brought up in motor cars from Lens and Douai and the French were unable again to pierce the enemy line. Two years were destined to elapse before the Allies again arrived so near to Lens.

Though the French were unable again to break through the German line, they did succeed in capturing many important enemy positions.

On the night of May 12th, the decisive assault was executed. Crawling forward on all fours, the French Chasseurs stormed the German parapets in the face of deadly gusts of machine-gun fire, and engaged in a death grapple with their adversaries in the dark interior of the fort. Nothing could resist the fury of the French assault. They soon were masters of the German stronghold.

The village of Carency, after being riddled with shells, surrendered on May 12 with 200 prisoners. Ablain, which was in flames, and the fort of Notre Dame de Lorette, surrendered the same day.

The retreating Germans had taken refuge behind a series of strong redoubts, in order to attack the French with enfilading fire. One by one these redoubts were taken—the

White Road on May 21st, the cemetery at Ablain on May 29th, the Souchez sugar factory on May 31st, and Neuville-St. Vaast on June 8th.

### **Battle of the Labyrinth, Underground**

THE hardest fighting took place in the Labyrinth, an elaborate system of trenches and redoubts built underground on an angle between two roads near Vimy Ridge. Diving into these underground passages, 50 feet below the surface, the French grappled with the Huns, using bayonets and knives, picks, hands, and even their teeth.

At one end of the Labyrinth, known as the Eulenberg Passage, the Germans made their last desperate stand. Here the entire 161st German Regiment of 4,000 men were slain. The Bavarian Regiment also lost heavily, the French taking 1,000 prisoners. The total losses of the French in this underground battle were 2,000.

### **60,000 Germans Fall in Battle of Artois**

THE French had now smashed the German salient and taken all the outlying defenses of Lens save one. But beyond this they could not advance. They had, however, won a brilliant victory. The Germans had lost 60,000 in the Battle of Artois, the French losses totalling 40,000.

### **British Slaughter at Festubert**

May 9-16

ON May 9th, the same day the French attacked Notre Dame Ridge, the British assaulted the Aubers Ridge, but for lack of ammunition the attack failed. A second assault was delivered on May 16th at Festubert. Here the German trenches were protected by special wire cables, nearly two inches in diameter, with parapets in front of these entanglements. The British, lacking high explosives, could not sweep these obstructions aside with their artillery fire.

After showering the German trenches with shrapnel, the infantry charged against the barrier. Unable to cut the thick wire, the Britishers laid their overcoats upon the entanglements and crawled over the top in the face of a murderous machine-gun fire. Though thousands perished at this barrier, the British troops did not waver.

For 15 hours the Britishers assaulted this



position and finally succeeded in driving the Germans out of their trenches along a part of the front, pursuing them to the slope of a ridge that commanded the road to Lille. Here the Germans had assembled such an array of machine guns, all accurately trained on their second line of trenches, that to advance further meant annihilation.

In the triangle west of La Bassee, the Highlanders made a gallant charge, taking two lines of trenches. The Germans, from their third line trenches, which were protected with armor plate and cement, raked the Highlanders with machine-gun fire, inflicting such terrible losses that the Highlanders had to retreat.

By nightfall, the British Army had been forced to withdraw at all points except in the center, where the Kensington Battalion captured three lines of German trenches in successive bayonet charges, and advanced up the ridge. Unfortunately, the supporting columns on either side of them had failed to break through the barbed wire barriers and the Kensingtons were left alone, to face the close fire of the Germans directed from three sides all day long.

In vain they appealed for reinforcements. Finally, when trench mortars were brought against them, they were forced to retreat over open ground which offered no protection from the deadly machine-gun fire that pursued them. Only a remnant of this brave band returned to the British trenches.

#### Charge of the Scottish Troops

THE Sussex and Northampton troops were almost exterminated in trying to reach the German trenches. Then the Scottish Cameronians and the Black Watch took their places and actually penetrated the German positions in a desperate bayonet charge, but again British reinforcements failed them, and again the British lack of high explosives caused a slaughter, for the heroic Scots were overwhelmed by the German torrent of shell fire. More than 8,000 Britishers perished that day at Festubert.

#### British Make Slight Gains

THE British attack was continued on May 17th, with some success. At Festubert, three lines of German trenches along a front of 1,200 yards, were carried for a total penetration of three-quarters of a mile behind the German position.

An attack from Richebourg was not so successful, as the Germans were prepared for it. The result of these operations was to drive two wedges into the German lines, one in front of Richebourg, the other before Festubert, the intervening space of 1,000 yards being left in German possession. The British attack gradually worked itself out.

#### The British Shell Scandal

Gen. Sir John French, Commander-in-Chief of the British forces, had repeatedly urged upon Lord Kitchener the importance of supplying high explosives to the Army, but without result. After the Festubert disaster he laid the matter before Lord Northcliff, who promptly aired the "shell scandal" in the columns of his English newspaper, the London Times. The British nation then tardily awoke to a realization of its delinquency.

Lord Kitchener was dismissed from the office of Minister of Munitions, and Lloyd George named as his successor. Under the latter's administration, great ammunition plants sprang up like magic, and plentiful supplies soon began to flow toward the Army in France.

#### French Advance is Checked

THE campaign in Artois on the whole proved unfruitful in results. For months the French and English hammered away at the enemy line. Two attempts to pierce the St. Mihiel salient were repulsed. A slight advance over the Vosges Mountains into the Valley of Fecht was made, west of Colmar, but the entire campaign proved of small military advantage to the Allies.\* The Germans still held the trenches, and 100,000 had fallen in the attempt to dispossess them.

WESTERN THEATER, MAY 24

## Italy Nobly Comes to the Allies' Aid in a Critical Hour

Her Friendly Neutrality Made Possible Victory at the Marne  
She Secretly Assures France of Friendship While Preparing for War

SECTION 10—1915

### Italian Army, 700,000

Gen. Luigi Cadorna, Commander  
Gen. Brusati  
Gen. Pecori-Giraldi  
Duke of Aosta  
King Victor Emmanuel  
Admiral Patris

### Austrian Army, 1,200,000

Gen. von Hofer, Commander  
Gen. Dankl  
Archduke Eugene  
Gen. Boroevic von Bojna  
Gen. von Rohr  
Gen. Koevess  
Archduke Charles

**T**HOUGH Italy did not enter the war arena as an active participant until May 24, 1915, yet from the very beginning she had dedicated herself, heart and soul, to the cause of human liberty. On August 2, 1914, three days before England declared war on Germany, and at the very moment of Austria's attack on Serbia, Italy nobly renounced her alliance with Germany and Austria, boldly declaring her neutrality, and proclaiming to the whole world her abhorrence of Teuton brutality.

The fate of France, of civilization itself, depended upon Italy's decision. Had Italy cringed before the might of Germany, France must have regarded her as a potential foe, and felt the necessity of protecting her Southern frontier with a force of 1,000,000 men.

After severing her unnatural bonds with Austria and Germany, Italy at once gave France the full assurance of her friendship, enabling France confidently to withdraw her troops from the Italian frontier and array them against Germany in the glorious Battle of the Marne, where the fate of Europe was decided.

Thus Italy, though nominally neutral, rendered military and moral aid of the supremest value to the cause of liberty, freedom, and justice. Without that moral aid which Italy extended to France, defeat instead of victory might have resulted at the Marne and the world have been subjugated by the German barbarians.

### How Italy Became Germany's Ally

ITALY had become the unwilling partner of Germany and Austria in 1879 from humil-

iating necessity. Following the wars for Italian independence, she was hemmed in by enemy states. Her relations with France had been embittered by the French seizure of Tunisia, to which Italy aspired.

Germany was threatening to disrupt the new kingdom by restoring Rome to the Pope, and plotting to open wide the breach between France and Italy which had been caused by the infamous treaty of Campoformia in 1797. Italy, too, had much to fear from Prussian and Austrian aggression in the Balkans. Germany, on her part, had observed the growing friendship of England, France, and Russia which developed soon after, into the entente alliance.

Feeling the necessity of a counter-alliance that should serve to curb the power of France in the Mediterranean, Germany decided to invite Italy into partnership with herself and Austria. It was really coercion on the part of Germany, for had Italy declined the invitation, she might have been snuffed out of existence on some pretext or other. Italy, therefore, consented under duress to this unnatural alliance with her ancient enemies.

### Austria and Germany Betray Italy

SINCE 1879 Germany and Austria had repeatedly betrayed their ally, Italy. The most flagrant of all these betrayals was the seizure of Bosnia and Herzegovina, in 1908. It had been definitely stipulated, as a condition of the alliance, that the Allies should exchange information concerning relations with other powers. Austria violated her solemn agreement, by seizing the two Balkan kingdoms without notifying her ally, Italy, of her intentions.



Austria persistently fomented trouble in the Balkans without consulting Italy. Thus she selected a ruler for the Kingdom of Albania; compelled Serbia to relinquish an outlet upon the Adriatic Sea; forced Montenegro to yield the port of Scutari, and arranged the frontier between Serbia and Greece, all without consultation with her ally.

#### **Invasion of Italy Proposed**

AUSTRIA'S supremest act of treachery toward her ally, Italy, occurred after the Great Messina earthquake, at a time when Italy was wrapped in mourning.

Gen. Conrad von Hoetzendorff, Chief-of-Staff of the Austrian Army, proposed the invasion of Italy, and his infamous proposal was actually supported, by the Emperor Franz Joseph and the Crown Prince Frederick Ferdinand, who was later assassinated at Serajevo. Happily, the wanton attack upon Italy was successfully opposed by Chancellor von Aehrenthal.

Italy's seizure of Tripoli and Cyranesia from the Turks in 1911 was prompted by knowledge of Germany's preparations to take those territories. Germany, throughout that war secretly aided the Turks to overthrow her ally!

It remained for Austria to cap the climax of her treachery when she served her fatal ultimatum upon Serbia on July 23, 1914, without consulting Italy or announcing her intentions to her ally. Germany, too, after Italy had declared her neutrality in the World War, roused Tripolitania to rebellion against Italy.

#### **Germany Seeks to Bribe Italy**

It will ever redound to the glory of Italy that she spurned the tremendous bribe proffered by Germany to secure her continued neutrality, and instead nobly threw herself into the struggle for freedom at a time when the Allies were on the brink of disaster. Russia had collapsed, the Western line was bending under the German pressure, the U-boats had begun to take their toll of ships, England had not yet placed a tenth of her forces in the field, the Allied cause was in dire straits, when Italy entered the struggle.

Italy was unprepared for war in 1914. She had just emerged from her war with

Turkey in Lybia. Her military stores were therefore exhausted, her artillery depleted, her armies disbanded and her finances in a critical state. In a military sense, she was helpless. To have joined the Allies at that time would have meant national suicide. Instead of aiding, she would have injured the cause of her future Allies. Austria then would have conquered Italy in a short campaign.

Italy, therefore, chose the safer course; she declared her neutrality, secretly assured France of her friendship and made hasty preparations for inevitable participation in the great struggle.

#### **German Propaganda in Italy**

THE German and Austrian intriguants, however, were tirelessly seeking to buy the support of the nation. Italian newspapers were bribed to conduct a campaign of pacifism; Socialists were bribed to advocate the continuance of neutrality. Baron von Buelow, a gifted German diplomat, offered the supreme bribe to Italy, if she would remain neutral.

The greater part of the Trentino was to be restored to Italy; Trieste was to be proclaimed as a free city; certain islands off the Dalmatian Coast were to be surrendered; concessions along the Eastern frontier were to be made; Austria would recognize Italian sovereignty in Vallona and withdraw from Albanian affairs.

#### **Why Italy Hated Austria**

TO ALL these seductive offers Italy turned a deaf ear. The cry of martyred Belgium, the appeal of ravished France, the stifled cries of tortured humanity, aroused her spiritual indignation. At the proper time she would enter the War and fight for human liberty.

Aside from her purely altruistic reasons for striking a blow at the Teutons, Italy had a secondary motive,—the redemption of the lost provinces, "Italia Irredenta," torn from her by Austria. The Italian people in these provinces had been the victims of unspeakable atrocities, at the hands of the Austrians.

Within 50 years, the Austrians had punished their rebellious Italian subjects by soaking their bodies in turpentine and burn-

ing them alive; had crucified children; buried patriots in quicklime and put to death hundreds for trivial political causes. Italy had not forgotten these martyrs.

Italy's aspirations, once she entered the War for liberty, were for the freedom of her own enslaved peoples in the Lost Provinces as well as the other martyred races of earth. As her inalienable right, she demanded a pledge that, if successful in the War, the Allies should restore her Lost Provinces.

Austria had done all in her power to denaturalize the Italian provinces by colonizing Croats and Germans, Prussianizing the schools and subjugating the people, but her efforts proved futile. Trieste, Trentino, Venetia, Dalmatia, all remain as essentially Italian today as they had been Roman for 1900 years previously.

Another vital reason for demanding the retrocession of Italy's provinces, lay in the fact that Istria alone had several excellent seaports, while the Italian shore of the Adriatic Sea is without a single first-class harbor. While Istria remained in foreign possession, just so long was an Austrian knife poised over the heart of Italy. It was stipulated, therefore, that the harbors of Trieste and Fiume especially should be restored to Italy.

### Italy Votes for War

A WAVE of spiritual indignation swept Italy when the facts of the atrocities in Belgium and France first became known. The warm heart of Italy clamored for war. But before Italy could enter the War unitedly, certain political obstacles must first be removed. Giolitti, the former Premier, and perhaps the most powerful politician in Italy, controlled the lower branch of the legislature. He was both a strong neutralist, and a particular friend of the Austrian Ambassador, Buelow.

On May 10th, Giolitti appeared before the Assembly, protesting against war with Austria-Hungary. The Assembly seemed on the point of acceding to his demands. Premier Salandra at once resigned his office. In this crisis, the Italian people took control of the situation. Popular demonstrations occurred on every hand.

On May 15th, in obedience to King Victor Emmanuel's request, Premier Salandra resumed his office. Five days later the Assembly passed a vote of confidence in the ministry, the count standing 407 to 72.

The final step was taken on May 23d, when the Italian Chamber of Deputies, by a vote of 407 to 74, decreed that beginning with the following day, Italy would consider herself in a state of war with Austria-Hungary.

WESTERN THEATER. MAY 24—NOV. 15

## Italian Army Scales Towering Alps to Overthrow Austrians

Italy and Austria Wage War Amidst Mountain Peaks of the Alpine Ranges  
Incredible Feats—Storming Mt. Nero—Battle of Gorizia—Italians Cross the Isonzo

SECTION II—1915

### Italian Forces, 750,000

Gen. Luigi Cadorna, Commander-in-Chief  
Gen. Brusatti  
Gen. Pecori-Giraldi  
Duke of Aosta  
Admiral Patris

### Austrian Forces, 750,000

Gen. Borojevic  
Gen. von Hofer  
Gen. Koevess  
Gen. von Rohr  
Gen. Dankl  
Archduke Eugene  
Archduke Charles

**A**T midnight, on the 23d of May, 1915, the Armies of Italy were set in motion northward to seize and close the gateways of the Austro-Italian frontier, which extended 450 miles from the Swiss border to the Adriatic Sea, a stretch half

again as long as that covered by the Allied front in Belgium and France.

Throughout its greater part, this frontier was formed by the natural barrier of the Alps, whose myriad peaks tower miles in air, overlooking the sunny plains of Venice



and Lombardy. Along this mountain barrier the Austrians had constructed a system of defensive works, which seemingly defied frontal attacks.

From foothills to summits, these awesome Alpine slopes were seamed with parallel lines of trenches, protected by wire entanglements and with permanent gun emplacements and turrets fixed at intervals.

To assault this mountain fortress in mass was deemed impracticable; only by attacking each fortified peak in separate operations and by relatively small bodies of troops might success be attained. Yet it was necessary to cover the whole extent of the frontier with Italian troops, lest the Austrians should pour down into the Northern plains of Italy.

The actual goal of the Italian Armies, however, was not the Trentino and Tyrolean regions in the North, but Trieste in the East.

The way to Trieste, through a 25-mile passage along the Isonzo River, between Cividale and the Adriatic Sea, was unopposed by the Alps. Instead, two parallel railways, some ten miles apart, led eastward from the Isonzo front, one from Gorizia following the course of a branch of the Isonzo River; the other from Monfalcone by way of Carso, following the seacoast direct to Trieste. The central pivot of the Isonzo River was Gorizia, surrounded by outlying forts manned with the latest improved guns.

As the capture of Gorizia would deprive Trieste of her railway communications with Austria, its subjugation was the first real objective of the Italian Army. But while advancing eastward toward the capture of Gorizia, the Italian Army would be liable to attack on its flank through the passes in the Trentino.

There were two Trentino gateways through which the Austrians might advance to attack the Italian Army in the rear. One of these was the ancient highway leading from Munich, Bavaria, which crosses the Brenner Pass and continues through the Adige Valley into Northern Italy; the other was the historic highway leading from Vienna, Austria, across the Pontafel Pass and thence through the depression between the Carnic and Julian Alps into Italy. It

was vitally important that these gateways should be closed before Italy's main Army moved eastward toward the Isonzo.

Accordingly, at midnight, on May 23d, strong bodies of Italian Alpini and Bersaglieri crossed the Trentino border, driving back the Austrian outposts along the whole front, at Lake Garda, the Adige Valley, the Dolomites, the Brenta Valley and at Stelvio.

A second force moved eastward toward the upper Save, in order to cut communications between Vienna and the Trentino, and to close the Pusterthal Passage, which runs parallel to the Italian frontier north of the Julian and Carnic Alps. The main army moved eastward out of Venetia toward the Isonzo River.

The Alpini, agile as chamois, and the Bersaglieri, or sharpshooters, mounted on motorcycles, fearlessly advanced up the steep mountain roads of the Trentino and Tyrolean frontiers in the face of the Austrian rifle- and shell-fire.

When half way up the slopes, the Bersaglieri dismounted and advanced stealthily from rock to rock, and tree to tree, pressing the enemy before them. Within 48 hours, the Italian troops had occupied the highest points on the frontier and converted many of them into fortresses.

Pressing on toward Trent, the Italians scaled the precipitous heights of Zugna, lifting their mountain guns to the summit to offset the Austrian long-range artillery. Cone Zugna, rising 6,000 feet in air, and dominating both the east bank of the Adige and the railway running north to Trent, was won after a stiff fight on May 31st.

Undismayed by the appalling odds, the Alpini swarmed up the towering heights, which bristled with Austrian guns, and on reaching the summit charged the enemy at the point of the bayonet. Six Alpini, after intrenching on the crest of a mountain near the Fourth Canton, held a force of 600 Austrians for three days until reinforcements arrived. Other small groups fought for days against greatly superior forces, crouching in crevices of the rocks or half hidden in forests and snow-banks.

There was no restraining the impetuosity of the Alpini. With the cry, "Vive L'Italia"



on their lips, they hurled themselves against the Austrians and drove them back mile after mile. Though half a million Austrians were massed in the southern Tyrol and the Trentino, they were forced nevertheless, to evacuate all the villages lying between Sugana Pass and Lake Garda, while the Italians occupied every vulnerable position from Stelvio Pass to Grado, a distance of 306 miles. Raids were made in several places 20 miles inside the frontier.

Sleeping in the hollows of the rocks and eating sparingly, the hardy Alpini in scattered bands dominated this long stretch of frontier for weeks, overcoming obstacles from which any other body of fighting men would have recoiled in dismay.

### **Italian Cities Bombed by Austrian Airplanes**

THE Austrians, meantime, had answered this invasion with a combined sea raid and airplane assault on the Italian cities along the Adriatic Coast, at 4 a. m. on May 24th.

The object of this raid was to delay the concentration of the Italian Army by attacking vital points on the main railway between Venice at the north and Brindisia on the south. Bombs were dropped on the arsenal, the oil tanks and balloon sheds at Venice, but happily none of the priceless art works of that queen among cities was damaged.

A rain of shells fell upon Porto Cassini, north of Pavenna, in the vain effort to destroy the torpedo base at that place. Railway stations and bridges were bombed or shelled at Rimini, Sinigaglia, Mandredonia, and Westi.

The open city of Ancona was shelled by warships, and the beautiful Cathedral of St. Ciriaco was damaged. Other undefended towns were shelled, contrary to the law of nations, including Barletta, Porto Cwita-noova, Porto Recavati and Bari. This outrage caused a cry of protest to ring out from all parts of Europe. The raid lasted only two hours and the Austrian fleet of 24 vessels returned in safety to the Harbor of Pola.

### **Italians Cross the Isonzo River**

THE main army of Italy, commanded by Gen. Luigi Cadorna, moving eastward, had crossed the Isonzo River on May 27th and advanced toward Montfalcone, 16 miles

northwest of Trieste, while other strong columns had invested Gorizia and Grodisco. Within a week, the Italian batteries were bombarding Montfalcone and assaulting the heights of Monte Nero.

### **Montfalcone Capitulates in 3 Days**

MONTFALCONE, an important Austrian seaport, was bombarded by an Italian cruiser squadron on June 7th, and the Castle demolished. Two days later, the Berseglieri, with the Italian grenadiers, pierced the Austrian line, forcing a passage of the Isonzo at the point of the bayonet, and began the development of the city.

The pine-clad mountain slopes about Montfalcone were set on fire by the Austrians in the endeavor to stem the Italian rush, but the brave Alpini, storming the promontory of Rocca, occupied the lower section of the town. From the plateau, 1,000 feet above the town, the Austrians opened fire on the invaders with heavy howitzers.

The Italians, undismayed, dragged their 3-inch guns up the precipitous cliffs, driving the Austrians from their stronghold. The way was now opened to Trieste. The Austrians in this engagement lost 2,000, the Italians, only 100 killed and wounded.

### **The Assault On Gorizia**

THE Italians, by their capture of Grodisca on June 8th, completed their control of the lower Isonzo. General Cadorna then ordered a simultaneous attack on all the strongholds guarding Trieste. Chief among these were the Carso table-land and the fortresses of Gorizia, Tolmino and Tarvis. The key to this series of strong defenses was Plava, occupying a salient in the middle of the Austrian line, on the eastern bank of the Isonzo.

Under cover of darkness, on June 17th, the Italians opened fire on Plava from their batteries on Mt. Korada across the river. Then, after throwing a pontoon bridge across the Isonzo, the Berseglieri crossed and carried Plava in a gallant bayonet charge.

### **Gorizia Bombarded**

MASSING 500 cannon on the heights overlooking Gorizia, Gen. Cadorna now began the bombardment of the city. The artillery



assault continued for weeks, Gorizia being one of the most impregnable fortresses in all the Carso table-land. The east side of Gorizia was protected by a broken, rocky wall rising 1,000 feet in places.

South of the city, on a ten-mile front, the Austrian trenches were constructed of concrete, four feet thick, and covered with steel armor. Against these defenses, shrapnel and even high-explosive shells failed to do much damage.

### Italians Repulsed

FOUR corps of Italian infantry, led by the Duke of Aosta and armed chiefly with hand grenades and short knives, were sent forward to take the forts, but were repulsed with heavy losses by 200,000 Austrians under Archduke Eugene and Gen. Boroëvic. The Austrians pursued the retreating Italians across the Carso Plateau. The Italians burrowed in along the slopes of the plateau in caves and holes, gullies and ravines, and strengthened their position with barricades of sandbags.

Meanwhile, the Italians' cannon across the river were shelling the Austrian advance and compelling it to move cautiously. A series of battles ensued for five weeks, from June 22d to July 31st, extending over the whole Carso front. Though reinforced, the Austrians in the end were driven back with broken ranks.

On July 18th, Gen. Cadorna launched a new assault all along the Isonzo front. For three days and nights the battle continued, the Austrians finally being pressed back and yielding 3,500 prisoners.

### Austrian Counter-Offensive Fails

WHILE the Austrians were retreating, many heavy howitzers had been rushed to the Carso Plateau from the other Austrian strongholds. The Bavarian Crown Prince, too, had sent the Austrians generous ammunition supplies and several expert German gunners. Thus reinforced, Gen. Boroëvic began a counter offensive on July 22d, with a concentrated bombardment. The Austrian infantry, under cover of this fire, advanced in massed formation to take the bridges in rear of the Italians.

The Italian line was on the point of giving way, when the Italian batteries on the opposite heights got the range of the Austrian columns and disorganized them. The Italian infantry now recharged and took 2,000 prisoners.

The Austrians sought to recapture Montefalcone, only to be repulsed with heavy losses. On July 25th, the Italians stormed the slopes of St. Busi and San Martins. At St. Busi, particularly, the fighting was sanguinary. Again and again the hill was won and lost, both sides being strongly reinforced and concentrating their artillery fire on the summit of the hill.

On July 27th, the Italians again stormed the Plava Heights and St. Michels with bombs and bayonets. Though they gained both summits, they could not retain the positions, so withering was the enemy's artillery fire. Gorizia itself seemed impregnable. Further assaults on the stronghold therefore, were postponed. The Italians and Austrians each are said to have lost 150,000 in this engagement.

### Charge of the Bulls on Mount Korada

THE most ingenious and spectacular charge in modern warfare was a feature of this campaign. The mountain of Korada, between the Isonzo and the Juario, commanded the middle course of the Isonzo River. Its slopes were protected by a network of permanent trenches and barb-wire entanglements.

If Italy was to be protected from invasion this mountain must be taken quickly. Lacking heavy field guns to reduce the wire entanglements, the Italians adopted a most ingenious expedient to assist the infantry in seizing the heights.

A herd of fierce bulls had been concealed near the center of the Italian line. As the Italian bombardment proceeded, the bulls were wrought to a high pitch of frenzy by the concussion. Suddenly let loose, the bulls charged furiously up the mountain slope, tearing the wire strands apart like so many ribbons. The Italian infantry followed in their wake with fixed bayonets, crowding through the gaps in the wires and capturing the Austrians' position without difficulty.

Under cover of a heavy fog, on May 29th, the Austrians had concentrated an enormous force at Manthon. From this point they made five successive efforts to retake the pass of Monte Croce in the Carnic Alps.

The Alpini, fighting brilliantly against insuperable difficulties, resisted every effort to expel them. When the last Austrian charge had failed, the Italians, springing from their trenches, drove the Austrians down into the valley.

### 200,000 Men Fight Above the Clouds

THE Italian Alpini, by climbing through ice and snow over Paralba Mountain and fighting their way downward, had stormed and taken the passes of Cregione and Valentina, together with the heights of Friekhofel, on June 8th. A week later the Austrians assembled a huge army and endeavored to retake the passes as a preliminary to attacking the Italian flank, and pouring through the passes into Italy.

Fully 100,000 men on both sides were engaged in this unique battle above the clouds, dotting the snowclad slopes and ravines for many miles around. The two armies came to close grips, man to man, along those icy mountain slopes, until the bayonets dripped blood.

At one time the Austrians had actually gained Paralba, at a height of 8,840 feet, but being threatened in the rear, they hastily retreated to the huge mountain of Steinward, overlooking the Gail Valley.

### Italians Take Cortina in the Dolomites

THE capture of Cortina, 4,000 feet high, in the Dolomites was one of the seemingly superhuman exploits of the Italians in the first months of the War. The Austrians had barricaded the historic road that winds around the slopes. Despite these obstacles, and the hurricane of shells from the Austrian guns, the Italian artillerists hauled their guns up through the mountain defiles, while the Alpini ascended the mountain on two sides by way of the glaciers of Serapis, taking the various heights of Cortina.

### Italians Win, 10,000 Feet in the Air

ANOTHER feat almost unparalleled in warfare, was the taking of Falzarego Pass by

the Italians, June 9th. The Italians, though confronted by a fortified position 10,000 feet in the air, nevertheless pushed on almost to the summit, compelling Gen. Dankl to hurry up reinforcements to protect his flank. They all but succeeded in cutting the railway which carried food and munitions to both the Trentino forces and those in Southern Tyrol. Their brilliant action had the effect of discouraging the Austrians from invading the plains of Italy.

### Infantry Against Artillery

THE valor of the Italian infantry was effectual in protecting the Italian frontier cities from artillery attacks. The Austrians were supplied with the great Skoda guns, reputed to be the best in the world, while the Italians were rather weak in artillery at the outset of the War.

Gen. Cadorna's lightning dash through the Austrian passes prevented not only an Austrian invasion through those passes, but also the effective use of the Austrian heavy artillery.

After establishing their hold on the frontier, the Italians moved cautiously for a few weeks to give their own armament factories time in which to manufacture big siege guns.

When these guns did finally move toward his army, and to facilitate their transport, Gen. Cadorna was obliged to build strong bridges across swollen rivers in the face of the Austrian artillery fire. The Austrians rendered the movement of artillery more difficult by breaking down the high embankment used in carrying off the snow water and allowing the mountain flood to inundate the Italian valley below.

### The Storming of Monte Nero

FARTHER to the north, amidst the towering heights of the Alps, a hundred battles were fought at three principal points,—the Carnic Alps, the passes of the Dolomites and the Trentino salient.

Monte Nero formed a rampart of rock that could have been defended by a regiment against an army corps. The Austrians, from overconfidence, had grown neglectful in guarding it. One night, when the Austrian sentries were asleep, the Italian Alpini,



swarming silently up the mountain, silenced the sentries and captured the garrison without difficulty.

Possession of Monte Nero gave the Italians a base from which to shell the forts of Tolmino and Tarvis, but these being the two strongest positions in the whole chain of Austrian defense, defied reduction. The Italian howitzers soon, however, demolished Fort Hensel and other permanent forts.

The Austrians, during June, 1915, sacrificed whole brigades in attempting to recover the peak of Freikofel which had been seized by the Alpini in the first advance of the Italian Army a month before.

### Brilliant Capture of Zellenkofel

THE capture of Zellenkofel, an important observation peak, by the Italians on July 6th, was an example of their daring methods. In the dead of night, a small body of Alpini climbed up the almost sheer precipice, 1,000 feet high, carrying with them ropes and a maxim gun. Having reached the summit,

they opened fire on the Austrians defending the mountain and annihilated the entire force.

The Austrian battery on the opposite slope now belched forth, silencing all the Italian guns, but all the attacks by Austrian Reserves failed to shake the Alpini from the mountain.

### Italy's Gains the First Year

IN August, 1915, the Austrians having been so strongly reinforced, Gen. Cadorna ceased his offensive, being unwilling to send his men to certain slaughter.

During their brief campaign the Italians had advanced more miles across towering mountains than the Allies had done on level ground. The Austrians, it is true, still held their main defenses, but they had been compelled to send for reinforcements from other battlefields, and were unable to aid Germany either on the Western or the Eastern front.

The Italian casualties during the three months totalled 25,000; the Austrians lost 80,000 in the same period.

## AFRICAN THEATER—JULY 11

### German Southwest Africa Surrenders to British-Boer Forces

Warfare Continues in the German Kameruns and along the African Coast

SECTION 12—1915

#### British-Boer Forces, 20,000

Gen. Louis Botha, Commander-in-Chief  
Gen. Lukin  
Gen. Myburgh  
Gen. Mackenzie  
Gen. Smuts  
Col. Van der Venter

#### German-Native Forces, 10,000

Governor-General Seitz  
Col. Francke  
Col. Kemp

**A**FTER the collapse of the Boer rebellion in December, 1914, followed by the surrender of Gen. De Wet and the death of Gen. Byers, the Germans of Southwest Africa were left in a precarious position. Their scattered forces of rebel Boers, Germans and natives numbered scarcely more than 10,000, while the Boer-British Army totalled close to 20,000. Hemmed in on all sides, the Germans sought desperately to break through the circle of steel.

The British then were in possession of all the exits out of Southwest Africa. It remained for them to complete the conquest

of the German colony and capture or destroy the enemy. Gen. Botha's army, in January, was divided into two parts, preparatory to advancing into the interior.

One division, under his personal command, intended to proceed by rail from Swakopmund to Windhoek. A second division was to move in three columns: One proceeding north from Warmbad, one east from Luderitz Bay and one west from Bechuanaland. These three columns were to unite and move northward to aid Gen. Botha in capturing Windhoek.

This movement got well under way in February. There ensued several months of fighting over the eighty-mile stretch of burning desert veldt, where the temperature rose to 120 in the shade and water supplies had to be carried by the commissaries.

### Botha's Boer Army Advances

GEN. LOUIS BOTHA, commanding the Union Army, moved out of his base at Swakopmund on February 22d, and seized Nonidas and Goanikontes, preparatory to advancing upon the German capital, Windhoek. On March 19th, finding the enemy at Riet, which commands the highway to Windhoek, it was arranged that Col. Brits' brigade should attack in front while Col. Colliers' brigade was executing a flank movement to cut off the line of retreat.

The frontal attack proved successful, but the flank attack was a failure, the Germans holding the railway and taking 43 men prisoners.

During April and May, Gen. Botha succeeded in clearing the railway for a distance of 50 miles. He established a railhead at Trekopke with the Kimberly regiment under Col. Skinner in charge. This encampment was attacked on April 26th, by a force of 700 Germans with a dozen guns. The Germans failed in their encircling movement and were driven back, losing 25 men.

### Germans Surrender Windhoek

IN the South, Col. Van der Venter, in command of a Union force, crossed the Orange River and occupied a group of German stations. Uniting with the forces of Gen. Smuts, on April 11th, he drove the Germans from their strong positions on the Karas Mountains. A week later Col. Van der Venter entered Sechein, the Germans fleeing in great haste.

At Gibeon, on April 28th, Gen. Mackenzie's division drove the Germans pell mell before them, seizing much booty.

On May 1st, Karas was evacuated by the

Germans and occupied by Gen. Brits' command. The way was now open to the German capital.

The Germans, seeing further resistance useless, surrendered Windhoek on May 12th, with its population of 3,000 whites and 12,000 natives. The great wireless station at Windhoek, which kept the Germans in touch with Berlin, was found uninjured.

The rounding up of straggling bands of Germans throughout the colony occupied the Union forces during the next two months. Finally, on July 9th, at a place called Kilo-metre 500, the Germans surrendered German Southwest Africa, with 5,000 prisoners of war, to the British. The conquest of this empire cost the Allies 1612 men in killed and wounded, while the Germans and rebel Boers lost 800.

### The War in the German Kameruns

THE Germans and rebel Boers were still holding out in various sections of the Kameruns during 1915, and it was the business of the French, Belgian and British forces to subdue them. Many small engagements took place, but with the capture of the forts at Garna on June 11th, and of Ngaundere on July 29th, the Germans were practically dispossessed of their colony, although in the fall of 1915, a considerable force still occupied Yaunds and did not surrender until New Year's Day, 1916.

### German Raider Destroyed in African River

GUERILLA warfare was kept up during the summer of 1915 along the northeastern borders of Rhodesia and in Nyassal and by British and Belgian forces. The German raiding cruiser Koenigsburg, which had run up the Rufiji River for shelter on October, 1914, was bottled up by sinking a collier across the mouth of the river. On July 4th, up among the jungles of an African river, the monitors Severn and Mersey shelled and destroyed this mighty German raider, once the terror of the seas.



EASTERN THEATER—JULY 26

## 1,000,000 Armenians Massacred by the Turks and Kurds

Russians Drive Turks Out of Northern Armenia and Lake Van Region

SECTION 13—1915

**Russian Forces, 180,000**Gen. Yudenitch, Commander-in-Chief  
Gen. Woronozov, Erzerum Army**Turkish Forces, 200,000**Gen. Enver Pasha, Commander  
Gen. Djevet Pasha  
Gen. Halil Bey  
Gen. Sary Kamish  
Gen. Talaat Bey  
Ahmed Fevsi

**F**OLLOWING up their crushing defeat of the Turkish Army at Sarikamish on New Year's Day, when they captured an entire army corps, the Russians advanced through Turkish Armenia, and in a surprise attack on the Turks near Erzerum, about the first of February, captured a commanding general and the staff of the Thirtieth Turkish Division, besides a large quantity of war material.

In order to deliver their surprise attack, the Russians had crossed a mountain two miles in height during a raging blizzard which served to conceal their movements and the noise of the army. Coincident with this battle, a Russian squadron in the Black Sea bombarded the Turkish transports.

Meanwhile, another Russian Army had encountered a Turkish force at Maraud, in the Turkish province of Azerbaijan, commanded by Gen. Djevet Pasha. The Turks fled in disorder, abandoning their cannon, standards, dead and wounded.

**Massacre of Armenians Begins at Ardanutem**

EARLY in February, after the Turks had been driven out of Ardahan, they retired to Ardanutem, a town near the Armenian frontier. Here they began those systematic massacres of Armenians which have made their name execrated everywhere. Of the 200 victims of Turkish vengeance in this town, 150 were dragged from their homes and killed in the streets, while 50 Armenians were taken from the local jail, stripped naked and compelled to leap to death into the frightful abyss of Jenemdere, also called "The Devil's Gap."

At Tamvot the Turks killed 250 Armenians, leaving their bodies to be devoured by

the scavenger dogs. The women residents of this town were taken into captivity.

**600 Butchered in Antreat**

ALL the male inhabitants of Antreat, 600 in number, were put to death and the women were divided into parties and sent to various interior towns.

An Armenian physician, Dr. Derderian, reported to the Red Cross of London that the whole plain of Alashgerd was dotted with the bodies of men, women and children who had been slaughtered by Kurds after the Russians had retreated from this district. The Armenian women were carried away to the mountains. At this time, the Armenian Red Cross reported that 120,000 destitute Armenians were imploring aid in the Caucasus region alone.

**Turks, Defeated in Persia, Massacre 800**

CONTINUING the advance into Northwestern Persia, the Russians defeated the Turks in a furious battle at Atkutur, the Turks losing 12,000 in casualties.

The Turks cruelly massacred 800 Christians in this region, dragging many of them out from the homes of friendly Mahometans, who had sheltered them. Some of the victims were shot; others were bound to ladders and their heads chopped off where they protruded from the rungs; eyes were gouged out and limbs chopped off. Several hundred other Armenians were thrown into deep wells and drowned.

**Inhabitants of Ten Villages Massacred**

REFUGEES reaching the Russian lines on April 24th, reported that all the inhabitants of ten villages near Van had been killed by the Turks and Kurds. Following this mas-

sacre, the head of the Armenian church at Etchmiadzia cabled President Wilson an appeal addressed to the people of the United States, to act on behalf of the Armenians.

### **6,000 Massacred at Van as Russians Appear**

ON May 15th, the Russian consul at Van reported the massacre of 6,000 Armenians by the Turks and Kurds. One week later a column of Russian troops entered Van, the murderous Turks retreating toward Bitlis after setting fire to half the town. By June 6th, the Russians had cleared the whole region of Turks, practically annihilating Gen. Halil Bey's original corps.

### **Typhus Epidemic Among Russians in Caucasasia**

ALONG the Caucasian front, the campaign had been halted by a typhus epidemic among the Russians, which claimed 150 victims daily. Hostilities were resumed about May 1st, and the Turks were driven back to the southwest, with heavy losses on both sides.

### **12,000 Killed at Bitlis and Mush**

IN June, it was reported that 12,000 Armenians had been killed at Bitlis and Mush, and that several villages in the Lake Van region were entirely wiped out.

At Marsovan, where an American college is located, the Armenians were driven out to the suburbs. Twelve hundred were put to death and thousands of other Armenians managed to escape into Northern Mesopotamia.

### **Armenians Hold Two Towns**

IN some towns the Armenians endeavored to defend themselves against Turkish attacks. At Shaben Karshissar, in the province of Anatolia, the citizens held the town for a short time against Turkish troops, but

were finally overcome. Four thousand were put to death.

The people of Kharput also held out a week against the attacks of the Turks before surrendering.

### **American Ambassador Aids the Armenians**

THE United States Department of State, in reply to a universal appeal for action on behalf of the Armenians, instructed the American Ambassador at Constantinople, Mr. Henry Morgenthau, to make representations to the Turkish Government. While disclaiming responsibility for the massacres, the Turkish Government affirmed that the Kurds were the guilty parties. However, upon Mr. Morgenthau's request, Turkish regular troops were sent to Persia to keep order. Yet it is known that the massacres in the Lake Van region were instigated by the Turkish Minister of the Interior, Talaat Bey, in reprisal for the act of the populace in resisting an order of banishment directed against them.

### **1,000,000 Massacred in Armenia**

THE districts covered by the Armenian massacres were Eastern Anatolia, Cilicia and the Taurus region. The British and Russian official reports agree that in 1915 fully 1,000,000 Armenians out of a population of 4,000,000 were killed by the Turks and Kurds. It was estimated that 250,000 Armenians escaped into Russia after suffering untold privations.

The slaughter of the Armenians is said to have been instigated by Enver Pasha and Talaat Pasha, who charged the Armenians collectively with "treason." These acts of unspeakable savagery, at which the whole world shuddered, were defended by certain German publicists as justifiable.



EASTERN THEATER, MAY — SEPT.

## Entire Russian Line Forced to Retreat on a 700-Mile Front

One Russian Army Blown Into Oblivion by Mackensen's Guns at Dunajec River  
Germans Conquer Poland, Galicia and Courland—Russians Lose 1,600,000 Men

SECTION 14—1915

### Russian Forces, 2,500,000

Grand Duke Nicholas, Commander-in-Chief  
Gen. Yanushkevitch, Chief of Staff

### Army Commanders:

Gen. Ivanoff  
Gen. Alexeieff  
Gen. Brusiloff  
Gen. Dmitrieff  
Gen. Ewerts  
Gen. Lechitzky

### Austro-German Forces, 3,000,000

Gen. Hindenberg, Commander-in-Chief  
Gen. Ludendorf, Chief of staff

### Northern Army Group—Gen. Hindenberg

Gen. Below  
Gen. Eichhorn  
Gen. Scholz  
Gen. Gallwitz

### Central Army Group—Prince Leopold

Gen. Woyrsch

### Southern Army Group—Gen. Mackensen

Archduke Joseph Ferdinand  
Gen. Boehm-Ermolli  
Gen. Marwitz  
Gen. Pflanzer  
Gen. Linsengen  
Archduke Frederick

**I**RREPARABLE disaster befell Russian arms in May, 1915, when a tornado of shell-fire from 3,000 heavy German guns ripped open a 40-mile gap in the Russian front, along the banks of the Dunajec and Biala Rivers, blowing Gen. Dmitrieff's army into oblivion and compelling the entire Russian line to fall back into the far interior, with a resultant loss of 350,000 in killed and wounded and 1,250,000 prisoners.

Her tremendous victory gained for Germany possession of 100,000 square miles of Russian territory, comprising all of Poland and Courland, the greater part of Galicia and several other large provinces, whose aggregate population was 20,000,000.

This disaster, which bore fruit two years later in red revolution and the quick collapse of the Russian Empire, was due primarily to Russia's inferiority in guns and lack of ammunition, which left her impotent before Germany's unparalleled concentration of artillery on the most vulnerable point in the Russian line.

The European Allies for months had been endeavoring to get munitions into Russia. The only practicable route for the transport of supplies from the West was through the Dardanelles and Bosphorus, past Constantinople and thence by way of the Black Sea. The failure of the Dardanelles and Gallipoli campaigns had definitely closed this route to the Allies.

One other entrance into European Russia, from Vladivostok on the Pacific Coast over 6,000 miles of Trans-Siberian Railway to Moscow and Petrograd, remained open. The Japanese had availed themselves of this route in sending \$40,000,000 worth of guns and shells into Russia, but since February the Japanese had been at controversy with China and their exports of munitions were suspended while they made provision for their own needs in case war broke out with China.

After the quarrel with China had been composed, Japan resumed her export of munitions, but these later supplies failed to arrive in time to save the Czar's armies. Consequently Russia for months had been without adequate military supplies.

The United States Government subsequently came to Russia's rescue by sending 20,000 American freight cars and 400 American locomotives to the port of Vladivostok in order to facilitate the shipment of guns and shells over the Trans-Siberian Railroad. Thanks to this timely aid, Russia was able to recover from her defeat and for a time resume the initiative.

### Germany's Colossal Preparations Underway

THE combined armies of Germany and Austria had hitherto failed, after four consecutive attempts, to break through the Russian front by way of the Warsaw salient. They now planned to launch a surprise attack in another direction, further south.

Hindenberg had discovered a more vulnerable point in the Russian line, where it bent along the banks of the Dunajec and Biala Rivers, just below Tarnow in Western Galicia. This sector, some 40 miles long, was thinly held by an army of 200,000, commanded by Gen. Dmitrieff, a Bulgarian officer in the service of Russia. Not only was this sector insufficiently covered with troops, but Dmitrieff had neglected to prepare suitable lines of defense in his rear.

Knowing these facts, the Germans decided that this was the place to launch a surprise attack which would carry ampler promise of victory than did the Warsaw sector. For weeks they were secretly engaged in bringing forward to the Dunajec sector the greatest assemblage of artillery ever known in warfare.

Under cover of night, they had gradually concentrated 4,000 heavy howitzers and field guns of every caliber, together with 10,000 machine guns, in front of Dmitrieff's position. Huge ammunition depots uprose behind the German lines. Food depots were constructed, hospitals erected and an intricate telegraph system set up. Great droves of cattle were brought forward to insure an adequate supply of meat.

### 5,500,000 Troops in Battle Array

FINALLY, an army of 750,000 specially trained troops, under command of Gen. Mackensen, was secretly massed east of Cracow, prepared at a signal to pour through the gap which the German artillery would open in the Russian line. All these extensive preparations went on unnoticed by Gen. Dmitrieff.

In May, a month made otherwise memorable by the sinking of the *Lusitania* and the entrance of Italy into the World War, the Germans were ready to hurl their thunderbolt at Russia. At this time the 700-mile battle front, extending from the Baltic Sea to the Carpathians, was occupied by 3,000,000 German and Austrian troops, divided into three groups of armies, all under the supreme command of Field Marshal von Hindenberg.

At the Northern end of the line, in East Prussia, and prepared to undertake a raid into Courland, there was an army group

commanded by Gen. von Below, under Hindenberg's immediate observation. In the center of the long battle line, along the Polish border, was a group of armies directed by Prince Leopold of Bavaria. Southward, in Western Galicia, an army group led by Gen. Mackensen was acting in co-operation with the armies of Archduke Frederick of Austria.

The Russian trenches were held by some 2,500,000 troops, many thousands of whom lacked rifles and all of whom were in need of ammunition. The supreme commander was the Grand Duke Nicholas, uncle of the Czar. The three principal Russian Army groups were commanded by Gen. Alexeieff in the North, Gen. Ivanoff in the Center and Gen. Brusiloff in the South. At the beginning of the great battle, only the troops in the Galician sector were fully engaged.

### Battle of the Dunajec Opens

ON THE morning of May 2d, the roar of 4,000 howitzers and field guns announced that the battle had begun. In the space of four hours, 700,000 shells were hurled at the Russian line, obliterating the trenches on a 40-mile front and blowing the greater part of Dmitrieff's army into eternity. Everything within the range of shell-fire was swept away—trees, wire emplacements, horses, vehicles and 150,000 men. Many who retreated from this inferno were caught in a cascade of shell-fire that fell upon the terrain at the rear of the main position.

### Gen. Brusiloff's Army Escapes Capture

A MERE remnant of Dmitrieff's army effected their escape from the slaughter pen at Gorlice, retreating in confusion toward the Wisloka River. Mackensen's Phalanx of shock troops quickly pushed through the gap in the line and, separating into two columns began a wide enveloping movement in conjunction with the army of Boehm-Ermolli. They planned to capture, not only the remnant of Dmitrieff's army, but the whole of Gen. Brusiloff's army on the right.

Dmitrieff's shattered army defeated this scissor-like movement by the stubbornness of its resistance, fighting rear-guard actions as it retreated, and enabling Gen. Brusiloff to escape from the trap set for him. The Bavarian and Hungarian Armies, under Gen. von



Emmich and Gen. Marting, strove mightily to reach the Western passes of the Carpathians before Brusiloff could effect his withdrawal, but he managed to elude them, though with a loss of 30,000 men.

### **The Battle on the Wisloka River**

A NEW Russian line was formed on May 5th, along the banks of the Wisloka River, and reinforcements were sent to the armies of Gen. Dmitrieff and Ewerts. The German siege guns were again trained on the luckless Russians, who had but little artillery and less ammunition, to sustain the attack.

Nothing daunted, General Ivanoff's Caucasian Corps, 50,000 strong, with their daggers and bayonets only, charged full upon the powerful German batteries, capturing one of them and taking 7,000 prisoners.

After five days of savage fighting, the line swaying backward and forward across the river, the German artillery fire prevailed, and the brave Cossacks were forced to retreat with a loss of 20,000 men.

With the fall of Jaslo, on May 7th, before the assault of Gen. Mackensen, the whole defense of the Russians on the Wisloka collapsed and the Russians began a general retreat to a new position behind the San River, which they reached on May 12th. In their retreat, the Russians had lost most of their artillery, but they had taken a toll of 130,000 dead or prisoners from the Germans, while their own losses were not less than 100,000.

### **Germans Retake Przemyśl**

MACKENSEN's army reached the San River on May 14th, and two days later they forced a passage of the river at Jaroslav, compelling a further retirement of the Russian Army in that sector to the Grodak Lakes west of Lemberg. The Germans now aimed at cutting the line to the Przemyśl.

While Mackensen's army was seeking to envelop Przemyśl from the North, the Austro-Hungarian armies in Galicia had crossed the San River and advanced north to complete the encirclement. On May 15th, the Austro-German troops, by enormous sacrifices, hacked their way through the Russian trenches and barbed wire entanglements in their effort to reach the railway.

Subsequently, these trenches were recovered by the Russians, but on May 19th, the Austrians regained them and two days later were threatening the Russian line of retreat. Boehm-Ermolli meanwhile was approaching the town from the south and other German-Austrian armies were pressing in from the West.

The Russians, on May 24th, in the hope of saving the garrison at Przemyśl, launched a counter-offensive. Its chief incident was the storming of Sieniawa by Ivanoff's corps on May 27th and the capture of 7,000 prisoners.

Przemyśl was now invested on three sides, shells were cascading in the town, and the Germans had all but closed the sole avenue of Russian escape. But in the night the Russian garrison quietly withdrew, leaving a few gunners behind to protect their retreat. On June 2d, the Germans swarmed into Przemyśl, finding their prey gone.

The Germans paid dearly for their victory, losing in all their campaigns in Galicia 600,000 troops in killed or captive. The Russian losses were 300,000.

### **Russians Hit Back Hard**

THOUGH forced into a general retreat, the Russians still were hitting back hard at the Huns. General Ewerts had smashed Archduke Joseph's army at Rudnik, almost annihilating three Austrian regiments and taking 4,000 prisoners. Gen. Boehm-Ermolli's army was badly mauled on the road from Moscika to Lemberg after failing to storm the Russian positions by mass attacks. Gen. von Linsengen, crossing the Dniester at Zuravno, was balked in his attempt to flank Brusiloff's army. Mackensen's army alone, with its 4,000 heavy guns, was able to batter the Russian line.

### **Cossack Heroism in Battle of Lubaczovka**

ON June 7th, was begun one of the most spectacular battles of the retreat. Between Rawa-Ruska and Lemberg, on the line of the Lubaczovka River, Gen. Mackensen with 500,000 men assaulted the Russian front. The battle raged furiously for a week, but finally on June 15th, the incessant shell-fire and asphyxiating bombs opened a gap in the



Russian line, through which the German Phalanx poured in great flanking movement.

In this crisis, three regiments of Cossack cavalry, under Gen. Polodchenko, charged like a whirlwind against the German masses, sabering them right and left and putting thousands to rout. Then, swerving to the rear, they put the German Reserves to confusion, capturing many machine guns, and sabering their way back to their own lines. In this daring exploit, the Cossacks lost only 200 in killed and wounded. It seemed to have weakened Mackensen's nerve; at any rate, General Ivanoff was enabled without molestation to withdraw his army 20 miles behind the Dniester River to a fortified position.

### Evacuation of Lemberg

LACKING heavy artillery, and with less than half their infantry supplied with rifles and ammunition, the Russians could not hope much longer to stay the German-Austrian advance. Gen. Ivanoff wisely decided to evacuate Lemberg on June 17th, taking with him all his stores and baggage. Gen. Boehm-Ermolli led his battered Austrian corps into the town on June 22d, meeting with no resistances.

Gen. Ivanoff gradually withdrew to the line of the Bug River, with Boehm-Ermolli in pursuit. Southeast of Lemberg, Ivanoff turned upon him, annihilating one of his divisions of 25,000 men.

The Russians finally retreated behind the Sereth River, leaving the Germans in possession of Galicia. All the territory which Russia had gained in an eight months' campaign had been recovered by the Teutons in eight weeks. The Russians had lost nearly 800,000 men; one whole army had been destroyed, and their grip on Austria had been removed. The Teutonic Allies lost nearly 1,000,000 men in these engagements along the whole battle line.

### Battle of Krasnik

MEANWHILE, the German-Austrian advance into Poland was progressing. At Krasnik, on July 2d, the army of Archduke Joseph of Austria, while advancing toward Lublin, was halted by a Russian Army under Gen. Loishche. Three days later, the Arch-

duke fell back upon an intrenched position north of the town, losing 15,000 men. The Russian losses were 8,000. The army of Gen. Mackensen also was stopped near Krastnostav on July 7th.

### The Fall of Przasnysz

FOR a week, or more, comparative quiet prevailed along the entire Eastern front. Then, on July 13th, the army of Gen. Gallwitz, supported by the army of Gen. von Scholtz, launched a sudden assault on Przasnysz, now a mass of ruins.

In the sector north of the city, the Russians had constructed a strong system of fortified positions. For miles in either direction there extended a series of parallel trenches, with bombproof dugouts deep underground. Millions of bags of sand were used as breastworks and in front of this barrier were piled hundreds of thousands of tree trunks. In addition there were many lines of barb-wire entanglements.

Instead of attacking the position from the front, Gen. Gallwitz aimed simultaneous thrusts at the two flanks, preceded by a heavy bombardment of the whole line of trenches. The plan succeeded, and the Russian defenders barely had time to evacuate their trenches before the German pincers closed in upon Przasnysz. The Russians then fell back to the Narew River line, the last refuge in the Warsaw salient, closely pursued by the Germans.

### Germans Capture Courland

THE entire Russian line, from Courland to the Polish frontier, was now being assaulted. Gen. von Below, on July 17th, in far away Courland, had defeated the Russians at Alt-Auz. On the same day Gen. von Woyrsch, in his advance on Ivangorod, pursued a Russian Army across the Ilzanka, while Gen. Mackensen had compelled the Russians to evacuate Krastovor. Farther to the east, the Austro-Hungarian troops had crossed the Bug and Wolica Rivers.

Archduke Joseph, on July 16th, made ten separate assaults on the Krasnik-Lublin line, but was repulsed. The Russians, on July 19th, retreated along the whole front from the Vistula to the Bug. One by one the defensive fortresses were falling.



### **National Call to Prayer**

ON July 21st, the bells in all the churches throughout Russia clanged a call to prayer for 24 hours' continual service of intercession for victory. Hour after hour, in spite of the heat, the people stood wedged in the churches while the priests and choirs chanted their litanies.

### **Lublin and Ivangorod Fall**

WHILE Russia was praying for deliverance from the Huns, the iron circle was closing in upon Warsaw. Lublin, Zamost and Nistau successively were captured. On July 28th, Gen. Woyrsch's army crossed the Vistula and threatened the Warsaw-Ivangorod Railroad. Four days later 100,000 Germans occupied the right bank of the Vistula. Ivangorod surrendered after a violent bombardment on August 4th.

### **Evacuation of Warsaw**

RATHER than risk the bombardment of the city, the Grand Duke Nicholas wisely decided upon the evacuation of Warsaw. Lack of ammunition was also another deciding factor in the retreat. Before quitting the city on August 3d and 4th, however, the Russians had stripped it bare of all metals, such as church bells and machinery, that might possibly be of service to the Germans. All the crops in the surrounding fields had also been destroyed. At 3 o'clock on the morning of August 5th, the last of the Russian troops had departed, after blowing up the bridges.

Three hours later, the army of Prince Leopold of Austria occupied the city. He found it practically deserted. The citizens, to the number of 500,000, had fled into Russia, leaving behind in Warsaw a sprinkling of Poles and Jews.

In the campaign which ended in the capture of Warsaw, 5,500,000 troops were engaged. The losses totaled 1,500,000, about equally divided between the two combatant forces.

### **The Great Russian Retreat from Warsaw**

AFTER the evacuation of Warsaw, the Russian Armies fell back to a new line of defenses, girdled by fortresses, stretching from Kovno in the North to the Roumanian bor-

der. The rupture of the Warsaw salient at its apex compelled the retirement of the Russian Armies from Russian-Poland. How to save his retreating armies from capture or annihilation was the problem which Grand Duke Nicholas had to face. His retreat was a masterpiece of strategy.

The whole Eastern war front, at first 700 miles long, was gradually shortened to 600 miles by the end of October. At the north of the line, from the Gulf of Riga to Novo Georgievsk, Field Marshal Hindenberg with four German armies, faced Gen. Alexeieff with a group of Russian Armies. In the center of the Eastern battle-front, Prince Leopold's armies faced the Russian group directed by Gen. Ewerts. At the Southern end of the line, the armies of Gen. Mackensen and Gen. Ivanoff were in opposition. The Germans and Austrians were well supplied with cannon and ammunition, while the Russian supplies failed during critical periods.

### **Fall of Forts Kovno and Novo Georgievsk**

Hindenberg launched his first attack on the strong Kovno Fort on August 8th, at the same time sending out two columns of troops to cut the Warsaw-Petrograd Railway and seize Lomza. Kovno, with its eleven outlying fortresses, held out till August 18th, when it surrendered under circumstances implying treachery. Indeed, the commander at Kovno, was afterward court-martialed for treason. The fort yielded the Germans 400 guns and 4,000 prisoners.

Two days later, Novo Georgievsk, then in flames from the bombardment, surrendered with 700 guns and 85,000 prisoners. Emperor William and the German General Staff graced the occasion with their presence. The fall of Kovno rendered necessary the withdrawal of all Russian forces along the Niemen sector. Their retreat to Vilna was safely affected.

### **Fort Grodno Evacuated**

GRODNO, the last stronghold on the Niemen, was invested on August 31st. The Germans had brought up their heaviest siege guns for this purpose and a terrific bombardment followed for two days. The Rus-

sians quietly evacuated the fort on the night of September 1st. When Hindenberg's army entered the fort on the following day, they found the place vacated.

### **Czar Nicholas Takes Command of Army**

GRAND DUKE NICHOLAS, though he had outgeneralled Hindenberg and Mackensen repeatedly, was now deposed as chief commander of the Army and appointed Viceroy of the Caucasus.

The first murmurings of red revolution were heard in Russia and Czar Nicholas thought that, by taking chief command himself, he might be able to restore the weakening morale of the Army and the nation. Accordingly, by Imperial ukase, dated September 5, 1915, the Czar assumed personal direction of the Armies of Russia, naming Gen. Alexeieff as his Chief of Staff.

### **Germans Called to the Balkans**

THE Balkan situation now claimed the attention of the German high command and the pursuit of the Russians was abandoned. Gen. Mackensen, with four German armies, withdrew from the line and started for the Danube front. The German line was reorganized into four army groups: One, under Hindenberg, occupying a front extending from Riga to the Niemen; a second, under Prince Leopold of Bavaria, from the Niemen to Pinsk; a third, under Linsengen, from Pinsk to Rovno, and a fourth, under the Archduke Frederick, from Rovno to Bukowina.

### **Brusiloff's Victory at Tarnopol**

UNDER the Czar's leadership, the morale of the Army seemed to improve and ammunition now began to flow to the armies. Gen. Brusiloff, on September 8th, smashed a German column near Tarnopol, capturing many guns and 17,000 prisoners.

### **Vilna Also Taken**

THE investment of Vilna began on Sept. 15th, with the bitterest fighting of the

whole retreat. Enveloped on three sides with its path of escape occupied by massed cavalry, the Army of Occupation fought its way out to the great chagrin of Gen. Eichhorn, the "conqueror," who forthwith occupied the city on September 18th.

### **Attack on Riga Fails**

A JOINT naval and land attack on Riga was launched by the Germans, but their attempted landing at Pernau was blocked. The attempt to bombard Riga was repulsed by the Russian Baltic Fleet, the Germans suffering heavy losses.

Brest-Litovsk, Lutsk and Dubna fell to the Germans in quick succession.

### **Retreat Ends at Last**

BY THE end of September, the Russians were able to establish a strong line from Riga to Dvinsk along the River Dvina. This line was protected at Riga by the guns of the fleet, and at Dvinsk by the Petrograd Railway. Repeated attempts were made to pierce the new line at Dvinsk, but without success and the Germans suffered heavily in each attempt. The German advance had been finally stopped. Although several minor engagements were fought along the line during November, no battles of importance resulted.

### **Russians Lose 1,300,000 Men in 1915**

DURING the retreat, the Russians lost 1,250,000 in prisoners and 350,000 in dead and wounded, besides thousands of field guns. They had surrendered 100,000 square miles of territory of the Germans, including all of Poland, but they still were unconquered and their army was intact.

Outnumbered, outgunned and victims of basest treachery, the Russian soldiers had given a good account of themselves. The German losses also approximated 1,000,000 on the Eastern front, in prisoners and casualties during the year 1915.



EASTERN THEATER, FEB. 19—DEC. 20

## Bombardment of the Dardanelles a Colossal Failure

Gallipoli Proves a Charnel House for 100,000 Australian and New Zealand Troops

SECTION 15—1915

### Allied Army and Navy, 300,000

Gen. Sir Ian Hamilton  
Gen. Monroe  
Gen. Gouraud  
Gen. Marshall  
Gen. D'Amade  
Maj.-Gen. Hunter-Weston  
Maj.-Gen. Douglas  
Lieut.-Gen. Birdwood  
Vice-Admiral Sackville S. Carden  
Vice-Admiral Pierse  
Vice-Admiral John de Robeck

### Turkish Army, 500,000

Gen. Liman von Sanders (German)  
Gen. Enver Pasha  
Gen. Djavad Pasha  
Admiral Usedom  
Gen. Mertens (German)  
Gen. von der Goltz (German)  
Gen. von Wangenheim (German)  
Gen. Talaat Pasha

OF all the transcendent blunders incident to the World War, none was so tragic in its consequences as that which sent 100,000 heroic Australian and New Zealand troops to their doom on the rocky Peninsula of Gallipoli in the spring of 1915.

This ill-fated expedition was a part of the larger plan, involving the bombardment of the outer forts, the passage of the Dardanelles, the capture of Constantinople and the relief of Russia, whose great need for ammunition England sought to supply. The clearing of the Dardanelles, if successful, would have enabled Russia, in her turn, to supply the Allies with millions of bushels of wheat.

There was also to be considered the political effect of the fall of Constantinople, not only upon Greece, which was wavering between the cause of the Allies and of Germany, but upon Bulgaria and the Moslems in India and Egypt as well.

### Powerful Defences of the Dardanelles

THE Dardanelles, the historic water boundary separating Europe from Asia, is a narrow channel 47 miles long and from one mile to four miles wide. It waters the Eastern shores of the Gallipoli Peninsula, which are lined with perpendicular cliffs. From Cape Hellas, at the tip of the peninsula, where a sandy beach permits the landing of parties in small boats, the ground rises rapidly to a height of 500 feet, while beyond this ridge rises the peak of Achi Baba, 1,100 feet high.

At the narrowest part of the Dardanelles stand the Kilid Bahr Plateau, 700 feet high, and northwest of that is the Plateau of Sari Bair, 1000 feet high, and covered with a dense mass of ravines and thickets. The difficulty of landing a force in the face of an enemy intrenched on these heights may be guessed from the fact that the cliff rose almost sheer from the water's edge to a height of 500 feet.

With the aid of German engineers, the Turks had constructed elaborate fortifications commanding both the Dardanelles and the Bosphorous, equipped with huge Krupp guns. The shores were lined with batteries for the launching of torpedoes. The entrance of the straits was guarded by four strong forts, equipped with batteries of 10-inch guns.

At no place along the shore was there a dock or landing place, and at only a few points might a foothold be gained by any expedition that succeeded in effecting a landing. With heavy cannon placed on the heights overlooking these shores, it seemed foolhardy to invade the peninsula until after the Turkish forts had been silenced.

The English, therefore, decided to bombard the forts, confident that their 15-inch naval guns would stand out of range of the guns of the forts and smash them to atoms.

Constantinople and the forts along the Dardanelles were at this time garrisoned by 500,000 Turks under command of a German officer, Gen. Liman von Sanders.

### Blockade of the Dardanelles

AS early as November 3, 1914, two days before Great Britain's actual declaration of war against Turkey, the English had bombarded the entrance forts in order to draw their fire and ascertain their range. On December 13th, Lieut. Holbrook, in a small submarine, dove under five rows of mines in the channel and sank the battleship *Messiduyeh*, which was guarding the channel.

### British Submarine Dives Under Mine Field

ANOTHER British submarine, on the next day, also dove under the Turkish mine field,

but the Turks were now on the alert and so many mines were exploded around the British vessel that she had difficulty in escaping. A French submarine, on January 15th, also essayed the same feat, but was shot to pieces by the Turkish shore batteries.

The English, meanwhile, had established a blockade of the channel, and in January, French and English squadrons had united to form a strong blockading fleet. The Island of Tenedos was seized and a base for naval operations established at Lemnos, 50 miles from Gallipoli.

## The First Bombardment Opens with 12-Inch Guns

Anglo-French Fleet, 14 Vessels  
Vice-Admiral Sackville Carden  
Vice-Admiral John de Robeck  
Rear-Admiral Guepratte

Turkish Navy  
Admiral Usedom

THE first attempt to force the passage of the Dardanelles was begun on February 19th, when a fleet of ten British and four French warships, under the supreme command of Vice-Admiral Sackville Carden, with Rear-Admiral Guepratte in command of the French division, arrived at 8 a. m. off Gallipoli.

Forming in a semi-circle outside the entrance to the Dardanelles, the ships opened fire with 12-inch guns on the four outer forts. The bombardment continued until mid-afternoon, when three British and three French battleships closed in upon and silenced the land batteries.

Bad weather prevented further bombardments until February 25th, when the outer forts again were silenced. Scottish trawlers, detached for the purpose from the North Sea Fleet, now swept the channel clean of mines for a distance of four miles. This enabled three battleships to enter the channel and pound Fort Dardanos on the Asiatic shore with their 12-inch guns, silencing it after a gallant resistance. Several concealed batteries were put out of action at the same time.

Forces of British marines were now landed to complete the destruction of the forts. All the landing parties were successful except at Kum Kale, where the Britishers were driven

back to their boats by a superior Turkish force.

On March 5th, Vice-Admiral Pierse, with a fleet of three vessels, bombarded Smyrna, inflicting much damage but not effecting a landing.

An Anglo-French fleet of five warships steamed up the Dardanelles on March 6th, and attacked the Asiatic forts at close range, while the newer battleships, from the Gulf of Saros, bombarded the forts on the European side at long range. During this bombardment, Allied aeroplanes and a captive balloon circled around the forts, directing the firing.

This plan proving ineffective, the long-range bombardment of the Turkish forts on the European side of the straits was abandoned and the ships shifted their fire to the forts near Chanak. During this bombardment, the Turks scored three hits against the newest British battleship, the *Queen Elizabeth*.

Resuming the attack on the next day, four French battleships steamed up the strait and again bombarded Fort Dardanos, while two British ships in the rear hammered the forts along the narrows. The guns of the *Queen Elizabeth* especially spread havoc among the garrisons of the Turkish forts, one of the shrapnel shells, containing 12,000 bullets, killing 250 Turkish soldiers.



The force of the high explosive shells was shown when, as they struck the Turkish works and exploded, tons of earth and cement were thrown hundreds of feet in air. The poisonous gasses emitted by these shells compelled the Turks to withdraw temporarily from their forts, giving the impression that the forts had been permanently silenced; hence the frequent "silencing" of Dardanos.

### **The Expeditionary Forces Assemble**

FOR several days there was a lull at the Dardanelles, while an Allied War Conference was in progress at the Island of Lemnos. At this conference, Vice-Admiral Sackville Carden was relieved of his command of the Allied fleet, and Vice-Admiral John de Robeck named to succeed him. Meantime, the Allies had been concentrating their Expeditionary Force for a landing at Gallipoli. An English army, 120,000 strong, mostly Australians and New Zealanders, had arrived at Lemnos, while a lesser French force had been assembled at Bizerts in the Ægean Sea. Gen. Sir Ian Hamilton was in command of the British troops and Gen. d'Amade in command of the French Territorials.

### **The First Blunder**

AT THE Conference held in Lemnos, it was proposed to launch a land attack upon the Gallipoli defences immediately. To this proposal Gen. Ian Hamilton demurred on the ground that the British transports recently arrived at Lemnos, had been loaded in such a slipshod manner that the materials absolutely necessary for the protection of the troops upon their landing at Gallipoli were buried in the ships' holds under a weight of tents, hut parts, cooking utensils, etc.

He represented that the slightest delay in landing the troops and providing them with materials of defense would entail terrible losses, if it did not prove absolutely fatal. Declaring that he could not embark with a transport fleet in such condition, Gen. Hamilton urged that the whole fleet return to Egypt, and be reloaded. The suggestion was adopted.

### **Three Battleships Sunk by Turkish Mines**

Now occurred the second blunder of this ill-fated campaign. Instead of waiting for the expeditionary forces, as agreed upon, Ad-

miral de Robeck rashly decided to make a run past the whole line of powerful Turkish forts guarding the Narrows, ten miles from the entrance to the Dardanelles, where the stream is less than a mile wide.

He hoped to silence all the forts without injury to his fleet and win a brilliant victory. On March 18th, Admiral de Robeck's two squadrons of ten battleships advanced up the straits toward the Narrows and engaged the forts of Chanak. Under the combined fire of these naval guns, the forts ceased firing, but not until all the battleships had been crippled by the fire of the forts.

A third squadron of six British battleships then advanced up the Strait to relieve the disabled French squadron. Waiting until the narrow waterway was filled with ships, the Turks released a number of floating mines which were carried down with the current.

The Bouvet struck one of these floating mines, and was blown up, sinking in three minutes and carrying all her crew to the bottom. Two hours later, the Irresistible and Ocean also struck floating mines and sank, but their crews were saved. The Inflexible was damaged by a shell and had to be beached at Tenedos. Several of her officers and crew were killed. The Gaulois also was damaged by shell fire and a huge rent torn in her bows.

With the approach of darkness, the invading ships slipped out of the Dardanelles. The attack on the Narrows had failed, with the loss of three battleships and 2,000 men. Four other ships were so badly damaged that it was necessary to dock them.

### **Turkish Ammunition Almost Exhausted**

IT IS now known that the Turkish forts were so short of ammunition that they could not possibly have held out two days longer if the Allies had continued their bombardment. United States Ambassador Morgenthau, in his book of reminiscences, recalls that on the evening of March 18th, the Anadolu Hamidieh Battery, the most powerful of the Turkish defences on the Asiatic side, had in reserve only 17 armour-piercing shells, while Fort Kilid Bahr, on the European side, had only ten shells remaining.

Naval experts agree that if these two forts had fallen, the Allied fleets might easily have reached Constantinople and thus have changed the whole face of the War.

## The Allied Armies Disembark at Gallipoli

### Allied Forces, 128,000

Gen. Hamilton, Commander  
British, 63,000  
Russian, 47,000  
French, 18,000  
Cavalry, 36,000

### Turkish Line Troops, 250,000

Gen. Liman von Sanders, Commander

THE Expeditionary Force, numbering at the outset 63,000 British, 47,000 Russian and 18,000 French troops, besides 36,000 horses, with Gen. Ian Hamilton in supreme command, arrived off Gallipoli in five divisions on April 23d.

In all the history of warfare there is nothing to compare with the difficulties attending their landing at Gallipoli. There were no harbors, wharves or docks at which to land. The troops were compelled to debark in small boats and wade a hundred or more feet in water before setting foot on the low beaches.

Three main landings were made; the 29th Division of British Regulars disembarked near Sedd-el-Bahr at the point of the peninsula, where its landing was protected by the warships in the Gulf of Saros; the Australian and New Zealand troops disembarked north of Gaba Tepe; while a naval division made a demonstration further north.

The Turks, in anticipation of the invasion, had strengthened their defences. Elaborate systems of trenches and redoubts had been constructed in front of the heights from end to end of the peninsula. The beaches had been lined with rows of barbed wire, some of them extending into the sea. The shores had been planted with mines, electrically operated, to blow the invaders into fragments. Concealed pits, machine-gun nests and other traps were prepared along the front.

On the rocky uplands, rising in successive ridges above the beaches, batteries of howitzers and cannon were solidly emplaced, and prepared to belch forth their infernos of shell, lyddite and shrapnel.

### Plan of Assault at Gallipoli

THE general idea of the Gallipoli campaign was the capture of Constantinople by an

army marching through the peninsula and reducing the forts along the Dardanelles shore by successive rear attacks.

The first objective of the army was the heights overlooking the Narrows, possession of which would enable the Allied artillery to sweep the Turkish fortresses on both shores.

These forts had been assaulted in vain by the Allied battleships; evidently they must be taken, if at all, by attack from the rear. This would necessitate landing the army on the west shores of the peninsula, washed by the waters of the Ægean Sea.

But first it would be necessary to capture the two dominating heights on the Ægean shore—that of Achi Baba 6,000 feet high, near the tip of the peninsula and overlooking the village of Sedd-el-Bahr; and Sari Bahr, 1,000 feet high, eight miles to the northward, overlooking Gaba Tepe and Anzac Cove. By taking Achi Baba and isolating Sari Bahr, the army would have a clear road through the low country to Kilid Bahr and the objective forts.

It was a part of Gen. Hamilton's plan to launch a surprise attack upon Achi Baba and to deceive the Turks as to his intentions by effecting a landing at separated points.

Accordingly, it was arranged that the 29th English Division, composed largely of regular Scottish troops, led by Major-General Weston, should land on five adjacent beaches at the tip of the peninsula, then push forward to the village of Krithia and assault the Heights of Achi Baba from the northwest.

Simultaneously, the Australian and New Zealand troops were to land at Gaba Tepe, 12 miles up the coast, taking possession of the road to Maidos, which runs between Sari Bahr and the heights of Kilid Bahr, and attack the heights from the rear.



At the same time, the French forces, under General D'Amade were to make a diversion at Kum Kale on the Asiatic side of the straits while a squadron of battleships was making a diversion farther up the Gulf of Saros, these two last operations being in the nature of feints, intended to disconcert the Turks.

### The Battle of Gaba Tepe

At one o'clock on the morning of Sunday, April 25th, transports carrying 36,000 Australian and New Zealand troops appeared five miles off the coast at Gaba Tepe, accompanied by a number of destroyers. Landing boats were at once lowered in the darkness and towed to shore in fleets of five by steam pinnaces.

By a fortunate error the boats had been towed a mile above the selected point of disembarkation to a point steeply overhung by cliffs. Had they landed on the lower beach, as originally planned, they would have been subjected to the enfilading fire of the Turks.

The beach on which the actual landing was effected is a strip of sand, forty feet in width and 3,000 feet in length, bounded on the north and south by small promontories. At its southern extremity, a deep ravine, lined with scrub, runs inland, while near the northern end of the beach a small but steep gully runs up into the hills at right angles to the shore. The mountain spur which forms the northwestern side of the ravine falls almost sheer excepting at the southern limit of the beach, where gentler slopes give access to the mouth of the ravine beyond.

As the first fleet of landing boats reached the shallow water in front of the cliffs of Gaba Tepe, the Turkish lookouts gave the alarm and searchlights at once illumined the scene. Leaping from their boats, the gallant "Anzacs" waded through the shoal water to shore, amidst a tempest of bullets from the cliffs above.

The Third Australian Brigade, led by Col. Sinclair MacLagan, was first to reach land. Without hesitation, they charged the Turkish trenches on the beach, bayoneting the defenders, and advancing up the sides of the precipitous cliffs that rise 100 feet in air.

Half way up the cliff, the Turks were

intrenched in a strong position, but in 15 minutes they were swept out of their trenches. The plucky Australians then scaled the cliff and moved inland along the Maidos Road.

By this time, some 4,000 troops had landed on the narrow beach to the south, through a hurricane of bullets fired from the Turkish machine-gun batteries on the summit of the cliff. The landing boats, too, found themselves in difficulty. Three of the towing ropes had been cut by the Turkish shell-fire and the boats drifted helplessly under the withering fire of the Turkish gunners.

Worse still, the Turks had drawn their heavy howitzers to the scene, and, with perfect aim, were hurling heavy shells at the Allied fleet, compelling its withdrawal. Unsupported by artillery, the brave Australians were now in dreadful plight.

As the landing troops continued to splash through the surf on their way to the shore, the Turkish guns enfiladed the beach with a succession of shrapnel, machine-gun and rifle fire that took its toll in thousands. To assault the heights against such odds was beyond human strength.

By 3 o'clock in the morning, some 25,000 Turkish troops had been rushed to Gaba Tepe and about the same number of Australian and New Zealand troops were assembled on the narrow beach. General Birdwood decided no further advance should be made. As a measure of protection, he began to contract his line.

No sooner was this operation begun than the Turks launched a counter offensive, advancing in mass formation against the Australians, but they were driven back.

Just before daylight, the Turks massed for a final attempt to push the invaders back into the sea. The brunt of the assault was borne by the Third Australian Brigade, which had been the first to land. Aided by machine guns, which had just been brought ashore, the Australians managed to stop the Turkish advance, though their losses were frightful.

Finally, when evening fell, both sides rested from sheer exhaustion. The advanced line of Australian troops now held a precarious footing on the ridges overlooking the shore of the Gulf of Saros.

### Battle of Sedd-el-Bahr a Slaughter

THE main British expedition, meantime, was debarking at five points along the tip of the peninsula near the village of Krithia.

At 5 o'clock that Sunday morning, the Scottish Borderers and a battalion of the Royal Naval Division under Lieut.-Col. Koe, landed on a narrow strip of beach, afterwards scaling the 200-foot cliffs without opposition. Having gained the heights, however, they were attacked furiously by a large Turkish force; but resisted bravely. All day and into the next night, they sustained the murderous fire.

At 7 o'clock Monday morning, after half the force had been killed, and when their food, water and ammunition were exhausted, the remaining British troops escaped to their boats, protected by a screen of fire from British warships.

The 87th Brigade, under Brigadier-Gen. Marshall, landed midway between Tekke Burna and Hellas Burna in a wide bay leading to a gully, flanked on one side by steep hills and on the other side by steep cliffs.

The Turks occupied an almost impregnable trench position on the heights. Every inch of the ground on the beach below had been prepared against attack, with sea and land mines, wire entanglements and pits.

After a preliminary bombardment by the supporting warships, the First Battalion, in 32 cutters towed by eight launches, approached the shore. As they leaped into the shallow water, the Turks opened fire upon them, cutting down the first line of the battalion to a man.

The Second Battalion, nevertheless, advanced without faltering and endeavored to cut the wire entanglements on the beach. They, too, were swept away by the Turkish fire, only a remnant of the battalion breaking through the wire to the shelter of the bush-covered slopes.

At this moment, the 88th Brigade, under Brigadier-Gen. Hare, landed just below at Cape Hellas, and stormed the cliffs, expelling the Turkish gunners from their trenches with their bayonets. Presently the Turkish fire ceased, and the survivors of the Bat-

talion were enabled to reform and advance upon Hill 114.

Reinforcements were landed at 9 o'clock at Cape Tekke, the heights above being then in possession of the British. Three lines of Turkish trenches were carried. Preceded by an intense naval bombardment, the British now took Hill 138 by assault, the Turks resisting stubbornly.

Further down the coast, near the village of Sedd-el-Bahr, a landing in large force was attempted on a narrow strip of beach swept by the cross-fire of the Turks, who were concealed amidst the ruins of the village. Barriers of barbed wire emplacements had been stretched, one line along the beach, another half way up the slope of the high hill. Behind this barrier were the Turkish trenches, and farther back there were many places of concealment.

At this juncture, a huge transport, carrying 2,000 men, swung in along shore. Transferring to colliers, the newly arrived troops headed for the beach. Before they could land, however, the Turks concentrated their fire upon the foremost boats, killing half the occupants. The transport itself was now beached and the troops were transferred to lighters.

As these boats headed for the shore, a storm of shrapnel burst over them, and so many of the men were killed that the attempt to land the 1,000 remaining troops on the transport was postponed till evening. This time it was successful. Some small parties were also landed at other points along the shore. In all, 1,500 British soldiers were brought ashore and found protection behind the escapement near the water's edge.

### French Landing at Kum Kale

MEANWHILE, on the Asiatic shore, 3,000 French troops had landed at Kum Kale, and after storming the ruined castle, advanced toward the village of Yeni Shehr. So vigorous was the Turkish resistance, that the French were barely able to intrench. All through the night the battle continued. In the morning, having lost nearly 1,000 men, the French re-embarked under the protection of fire of warships.



### Battle of Anzac Cove

ONLY two of the seven landings attempted had been successful,—those at Beach X and Beach W. Two others had been definitely abandoned. On the cliffs above Gaba Tepe, the Australians were bravely resisting the efforts of the Turks to drive them into the sea.

The cove in which they had landed they named "Anzac Cove," the word Anzac being formed from the initial letters of the official name of the colonial expedition,—Australian and New Zealand Army Corps. Their losses had been very heavy, but withal they were cheerful.

Early on the morning of April 28th, the Anzacs hauled their heavy field guns up the slope of the cliffs to the summit. Here they gave battle to the Turks, all day, but without gaining ground. Though wholly separated from the other landing parties and outnumbered, they managed to hold their own against the Turks.

### First Battle of Krithia

SOME 1,500 men, meanwhile, had been landed on the tip of the peninsula, near Seddel-Bahr, and on the 26th, following a heavy bombardment, they cleared the village, stormed the castle and took Hill 141, though at a high cost in men.

By morning of the 27th, several beaches were in possession of the British and the French. Gen Ian Hamilton united these forces for an assault upon the village of Krithia, from which point they intended advancing upon Achi Baba Heights. The men were exhausted and the few guns landed afforded them but inadequate artillery support. Ammunition was short and the water supply was nil.

Advancing toward Krithia in two columns, the Allies were stopped when within a mile of the village, and driven back by superior Turkish forces. Only by hastily intrenching were the Allies able to hold their position.

During the ensuing two days, the Anzacs were reinforced by six Motor Maxim Corps, who held the trenches while the Anzacs reorganized behind the line. Fresh reinforcements followed with heavy artillery.

### 25,000 British Fall in Three Days

LATE on the night of May 1st, the Turks, creeping up on their hands and knees, leaped into the trenches of the 86th Brigade and bayoneted the defenders, but were unable to press the advantage. Similar raids were made all along the line, but most of them were repelled.

At daylight on May 2d, the Allied troops went over the top in a counter-attack, but being stopped by machine guns and barbed wire barriers, they retired to their trenches. The Turks countered during the next three days with such terrible effect that the British alone lost 25,000 men, killed, wounded or sick.

### Second Battle of Krithia

THE Lancashire Fusilier Brigade arrived from Egypt on May 5th, and a fresh assault was made against the village of Krithia and the Heights of Achi Baba the next day. Though the Allies made advances of half a mile, in the end they were obliged to stop and intrench, so stubborn was the Turkish resistance.

The French Senegalese troops especially distinguished themselves in this battle, falling like leaves in a gale as, again and again, they charged the Turkish trenches and machine-gun batteries.

On May 7th, the Allied warships united in a tremendous bombardment of the ground round about Krithia, but the shells failed to exterminate the enemy. Some hours later, when the Lancashire Fusiliers advanced across the open fields toward Krithia, they melted before the destructive fire of the Turks.

Learning that heavy Turkish reinforcements were on the way, the British troops on May 8th made a last desperate attempt to carry Krithia by bayonet assault. Some units of the advance actually reached the Turkish line, but the assault in general proved a costly failure.

### Anzacs Bombarded for Five Days

MEANWHILE, the Australians, at Anzac Cove, were being drenched with shrapnel. The Turks, aware that the Australian position had been weakened by the withdrawal

of two brigades to assist in the assault on Krithia, launched a vigorous offensive.

Beginning on May 5th, and continuing five days, the position of the Anzacs on the top of the cliffs, along a front of half a mile, was bombarded at the rate of 1,000 shells an hour. The Turks, though unable to expel the Anzacs from the summit, nevertheless succeeded in preventing any reinforcements being sent to the British line. Here, too, a dreadful toll of death was taken.

### **Second Battle of Anzac**

THE Allies received strong reinforcements in the following week, and General d'Amade was succeeded as commander of the French forces by General Gouraud, the "Lion of the Argonne."

The Turks, also reinforced, with a corps of 30,000 men, launched a powerful attack on the Anzacs at midnight, May 18th. Preceded by a bombardment of the Australian trenches, the Turks advanced in close formation, and were met by a scorching fire from the Anzac line.

For six hours the battle continued, the Turks being mowed down by thousands. Hundreds of Turks were caught in the barbed wire entanglements; scores of others, upon reaching the Anzac parapet, were bayoneted. At length the Turks withdrew, after a truce had been called to give them the opportunity to bury their dead.

### **Another Slaughter at Krithia**

THE British and French troops spent the next two weeks in extensive mining and sapping operations, preliminary to a new assault upon the Turkish line along the Krithia front. On June 4th, at noon, the mines were exploded and 24,000 British and French troops advanced a few hundred yards upon a front of four miles.

Unfortunately, a gap existed in the Allied line between the French and English forces. The Turks pierced this gap and enfiladed the exposed wings of both the Allied armies, wiping out an entire British battalion and driving the French back with much slaughter.

### **French Storm the Turkish Trenches**

THE French left wing, led by General Gouraud, stormed two lines of Turkish trenches

on June 21st, capturing the "Haricot" redoubt, which had twice changed hands. The French right wing, at a cost of 2,500 men, took the trenches above Kereves Dere in a gallant assault. Gen. Gouraud lost an arm in this battle and was superseded by General Baillaud.

### **The Battle of the Gully Ravine**

WHILE a British warship shelled the Turkish position, a strong force of British infantry rushed and held five lines of Turkish trenches along the coast at the Gully Ravine.

Further up the coast, Enver Pasha led the Turks in two unsuccessful attempts upon Australian position at Anzac Cove on June 29th.

The Turks, on July 4th, attacked the whole Allied line, at one time penetrating the British front, but they were finally driven back. Eight days later, the British advanced a quarter of a mile in the direction of Achi Baba, carrying a few yards of the Turkish line along a 50-mile front, but the Heights of Achi Baba still defied them.

### **The Heavy Toll of Death**

THE British losses, by the end of July, were 50,000 in dead and wounded and as many more disabled by sickness. Of the original six divisions sent to Gallipoli, fully half were destroyed and a quarter more removed by illnesses. Several more divisions, aggregating 150,000 men, had been brought to the scene of slaughter. The French losses were about half as heavy as the British casualties.

### **Three More British Battleships Sunk**

THE German submarines and Turkish torpedo boats, meantime, had been active in Turkish waters. On May 12th, the British battleship Goliath, while operating just inside the Strait, was sunk by a Turkish torpedo boat. On May 26th, the battleship Triumph, while supporting the Australians near Anzac Cove, was sunk by a German submarine. The entire fleet then withdrew, and it became apparent to all military observers that the Gallipoli venture was doomed to failure.

### **The Final Battle of Suvla Bay**

EARLY in August, while the Turks were celebrating the feast of Ramadan, the Allies



made a final supreme effort to bend back the Turkish line. Fifty thousand fresh troops from England had arrived at Gallipoli— young lads who had never yet faced a battle line—and were landed at Suvla Bay, five miles north of Anzac Cove. Here they were joined by Indian Gurkhas. This landing place had the advantage of much open country stretching back from the beach on which to conduct maneuvers.

It was planned that these troops, upon landing, should push forward to the Anafarta Hills, which rise 600 feet high, dominating the surrounding country. At the same time, the Australian troops at Anzac Cove were to assault the Heights of Sari Bahr, from whose crest thousands of Turkish machine guns looked down.

### Greeks Take Part in the Fight

WHILE these two movements were in progress, the Greek Legion and the Cretian Volunteers were being transported in troopships to Karachali, on the European mainland, where a demonstration was to be made to prevent any reinforcements being sent to the other battlefields. Finally, a new offensive was to be launched at Krithia to hold all the Turkish troops at that point and prevent their being shifted to Sari Bahr and the Anafarta Hills.

### Australians Scale Sari Bahr On One Side

ON August 7th, the Australian troops moved out from Anzac Cove in two columns to attack the Heights of Sari Bahr. The right wing advanced in three lines to storm the Lone Pine Plateau. The first line was totally annihilated. The second line shared a similar fate, only a few survivors reaching the trenches, and they were either bayoneted or captured. The third line was called back in time to save it from similar destruction.

On the next day, however, an assault upon the same position was successful, the Australians capturing and holding the Turkish trenches.

The left wing of the Australian Army, 600 strong, advanced in three columns toward the opposite slopes of Sari Bahr. On the evening of August 6th, one column of Australians moving toward Kojia Chemen,

barely escaped capture and retreated to the base at Asman Dere.

A column of New Zealanders, weighted down with full kits, food and water, scaled the steep sides of Rhododendron Ridge, swept the Turks from the crest, and charged up the southwestern slope of the main peak of Sari Bahr. Here they intrenched, repelling repeated charges of the Turkish infantry. The column of Indian troops also gained ground in the vicinity of Hill 2.

### Fatal Delay of British Troops

AT daybreak, on August 9th, the Allied troops made their final supreme assault on the Heights of Sari Bahr. First, the Allied warships in the bay opened a furious bombardment of the Turkish trenches. Then, with a yell that echoed for miles, the British troops sprang from their trenches and charged up the steep slopes.

The Indian troops, with the Gurkhas in the forefront, scaled the heights in a twinkling. At once, the Turks concentrated their gunfire upon them and upon the New Zealanders who were supporting them on the left. This was followed by a furious Turkish charge which drove the Indians and New Zealanders down the mountain sides.

The English and Indian troops, operating from Suvla Bay, meanwhile, had advanced on the flank of Sari Bahr. The Irish troops stormed and captured Chocolate Hill on the night of August 8th, but failed to make connections with the Australians who were being pressed on the opposite slopes.

Three days passed before the Suvla Bay forces succeeded in coming to the aid of the Australians. The delay was fatal, for the Turks had rallied in great force and driven back the Australians from all the positions they had gained on Sari Bahr. Had the Suvla Bay troops been moved more quickly, the Turkish stronghold might have been taken and the way opened to the forts on the Dardanelles.

On August 15th, the same Irish troops that had taken Chocolate Hill succeeded in rushing Dublin Hill in a hand-to-hand fight with the Turks. On August 21st, the Australians drove the Turkish defenders from the crest of Hill 60.

The Turks had hurriedly fortified all the other hills surrounding Sari Bahr, and all efforts to take them by assault proved abortive.

### Allies Evacuate Gallipoli

THE Allied commanders, now convinced the Gallipoli campaign was a failure, withdrew their troops from Anzac Cove and Suvla Bay, leading a small force of British and French troops at the tip of the peninsula to face the brunt of the Turkish assaults.

It was fortunate for these troops that the rainy season had now set in, rendering it difficult for the movement of Turkish guns and armies. The Turks contented themselves for weeks with shelling the Allied line near Krithia at intervals, while they in turn, faced a vigorous bombardment from the British warships off the coast.

### Gen. Hamilton Deposed

FOLLOWING the failure of the Gallipoli campaign, on Oct. 28th, Gen. Ian Hamilton

was succeeded in supreme command of the Expeditionary Forces by Gen. Sir Charles Monroe. Upon his recommendation, it was decided to evacuate the peninsula, and Monday, December 19th, was the day set for the withdrawal of the troops.

Under the protection of a strong fleet of warships, the troops at Sulva Bay and Anzac Cove were safely removed at 3 o'clock in the morning without knowledge of the Turks. By January 9, 1916, the last of the Allied troops had left the peninsula.

### British Casualties Over 200,000

THE British casualties during the Gallipoli campaign were 112,921. To these must be added 96,683 soldiers and marines who had been sent to hospitals. In addition, the British lost six battleships, enormous stores of ammunition, many guns and much prestige among the Mahometans throughout the British Empire. The Turkish losses were estimated at 50,000, while the French were at least 25,000.

EASTERN THEATER. SEPT. 19—DEC. 1

## Serbia Crushed by Armies of Germany, Austria and Bulgaria

Bulgaria Entered the War While Still Protesting Her Neutrality  
Entire Serbian Nation Put to Flight — 200,000 Peasants Perish in the Mountains  
Treachery of King Constantine of Greece and His German Queen

SECTION 16—1915

#### Serbian Forces, 300,000

Field Marshal Putnik, Commander  
Gen. Zirkovitch  
Gen. Goykovitch  
Gen. Mishitch  
Gen. Jourishitch  
Gen. Stepanovitch

#### Salonika Army, 150,000

Gen. Sarrail, Commander

#### Austro-German-Bulgarian Forces, 600,000

Gen. Mackensen, Commander  
Austrian Army—Gen. Koevess  
German Army—Gen. Gallwitz  
Bulgarian Army—Gen. Boyadjieff  
Gen. Teodoroff

WITH Russia rendered impotent in the autumn of 1915, Germany fulfilled her threat to punish little Serbia for the two defeats inflicted on Austria. The task was assigned to General Mackensen, the victor in the battle of the Dunajec, who, with a force of 300,000 Austrians and Germans, was to co-operate with a Bulgarian Army of 300,000, now secretly preparing for war.

Opposing this army of 600,000, the Serbians at most could put 300,000 soldiers into

the field. Their hopes lay in the promised support of an Allied Army, 150,000 strong, under the command of General Sarrail, which was assembling at Salonika.

### Treachery of Bulgaria and Greece

KING Ferdinand of Bulgaria, a German carpet-bag prince, who had gained the throne a few years before, was secretly pledged to assist the Teutonic Allies. The sympathies of the Bulgarian people, however, were wholly with Russia and against the Teutonic Allies.



The sympathies of the Greek nation also were with the Allies. Indeed, Greece was bound by treaty to assist Serbia if she was attacked by Bulgaria. But the influence of King Constantine's wife, a sister of Emperor William of Germany, had been exerted against Russia and Serbia.

Foreseeing the treachery of Bulgaria, Premier Venizelos of Greece had requested the Allies to send an army of 150,000 troops to Salonika in aid of Serbia if attacked. France and England consenting, the mobilization of an army was begun on September 24th.

King Constantine's German wife then persuaded the King to compel Premier Venizelos' resignation and appoint a cat's-paw, M. Zaimis, in his place. This was done. Zaimis' first act was to renounce the treaty with Serbia and declare for a policy of "armed neutrality."

The Greek Chamber of Deputies at once passed a vote of confidence in the Venizelos Government, but this did not deter either the King or Premier Zaimis from carrying out their nefarious plot. Together, they conspired to prevent the Allied troops landing at Salonika and even encouraged the Turks to make war upon their former Balkan Allies.

Their treachery culminated in a proposal to intern the whole Allied Army, but Lord Kitchener warned King Constantine that his dethronement would follow such an act and Constantine very wisely desisted. The Greek King contented himself with throwing every possible obstacle in the way of the Allies and in giving the unspeakable Turks a free hand in attacking Serbia.

#### **Allies Refuse Serbia Permission To Attack Bulgaria**

WHILE Bulgaria was falsely assuring the Allies that she had no intention of entering the War, Serbia knew that the Bulgarians had mobilized an army of 300,000, prepared at a moment's notice to attack Serbia in the rear.

The strategical position of Serbia was one of extreme danger. The main line of railroad from upper Serbia to Salonika, upon which the nation depended for food and military

supplies and the transportation of its armies, passes within a few miles of the Western Bulgarian border. If this line were cut, the Serbian Army would be trapped between the Austro-German armies on the north and west, and the Bulgarian Army on the east. Her communications with the Allied Army at Salonika would be destroyed and her natural path of retreat closed.

While Gen. Mackensen was personally organizing his offensive against Serbia, his name still appeared in the German official dispatches as being actually engaged on the Russian front. Thus did Germany hoodwink the Allied military strategists as to her intentions, even as Bulgaria was deceiving their credulous diplomats.

On October 3d, Russia awoke to the truth and served an ultimatum on Bulgaria, giving King Ferdinand 24 hours in which to break with Germany, but Ferdinand did not comply with this demand.

#### **Disposition of the Armies**

GEN. MACKENSEN'S Austro-German Army, composed of 300,000 veterans, was rapidly concentrating in two divisions. The left wing, under Gen. von Gallwitz, occupied a front along the Danube from the Roumanian border to Semendria. The right wing, commanded by Gen. Koevess, extended past Belgrade, along the Save River nearly as far as the Drina. The rest of the frontier, along the Drina River, was occupied by a smaller Austrian Army. Mackensen had upward of 2,000 cannon to aid him in smashing the Serbian line.

The Serbians could only muster a force of 200,000 men against the Austro-German Army on the Northern and Western frontiers. This army, in four divisions, was commanded by Generals Mishitch, Zirkovitch, Jourishitch and Goykovitch. To protect their Eastern frontier, they relied upon an army of 100,000 in command of Gen. Stepanovitch to oppose the Bulgarian force of 300,000.

#### **Bombardment of Belgrade Begins**

THE battle began on September 19th, when 2,000 huge guns fired their shells across the Danube River at the Serbian defences, the



bombardment of Belgrade being especially intense.

Under cover of this fire, the Austrians attempted to cross the Danube and Save Rivers at several points, but without success.

At Semendria, an entire Austrian battalion was annihilated. With the firing of the first shell on the Northern front, the Bulgarian Army was advanced to the frontier, prepared to take part in the battle, although up to the last minute King Ferdinand had given England assurance that he would not assault Serbia.

A steady hail of shells fell daily upon the forts of Belgrade and the entire Serbian line. The big naval guns in the capital, supplied by the Allies and served by expert gunners under command of Rear Admiral Troubridge, in reply, swept the Austro-German lines. Two enemy gunboats were sunk.

### Fire Bombs Hurled Into Belgrade

FAILING to reduce the Belgrade forts, the Germans on October 5th hurled vast quantities of inflammable bombs into the city itself, with the intent to set it on fire. At the same time they kept up a constant barrage fire beyond the city limits to prevent the escape of the populace.

### Belgrade Taken by the Huns

ON THE following day, after heavy losses, the Germans forced a crossing of the Danube at four points. The river defences were then blown to dust by the fire of the German howitzers. On October 8th, Hungarian troops took the northern citadel by storm, while the German troops seized the heights on the west side of Belgrade. Soon the naval guns in Belgrade were silenced under an avalanche of shells, while the city was reduced to a mass of charred ruins.

Gen. Zikovitch, meanwhile, had withdrawn the greater part of the garrison to the fortified positions south of the capital and the Germans occupied the ruins of Belgrade, taking 600 wounded prisoners and a number of guns. The Serbian Government, meanwhile, had been established at Nish.

The Teutonic troops poured across the Danube and Save Rivers, taking many small villages and forts along the river fronts,

but being unable to advance far into the interior.

At Zabre, on the Save River, October 10th, the Austrians deluged the Serbian trenches with asphyxiating bombs, and then charged in solid formation. The Serbians, protected by gas masks, met the charge with bayonets, driving the Austrians back in panic. On the Drina River, too, near Badovintse, Austrian charges were repulsed with great slaughter.

Outnumbered and outgunned, the Serbians finally gave way before the Teutonic armies, and by October 11th, Mackensen's forces had occupied the banks of the Danube and Save Rivers for a distance of 100 miles, from Grodishte to Shabatz. Along the Drina River, too, the Germans had gained a foothold and now Mackensen began a closing-in movement from three directions on the Serbian Army.

In the East, the main objective was the railroad running through the Morava Valley. Here it was first necessary to reduce the forts at Semendria and Pojarevat. After a two-weeks' siege, Semendria fell, October 11th, the garrison retiring to Pojarevat. Two days of furious fighting followed, the Germans capturing the fort at a heavy cost in dead and wounded.

### Bulgaria Enters the War

BULGARIA threw off the mask of neutrality on October 11th, declaring war against Serbia on the pretext that the Serbians had crossed the frontier and attacked Bulgarian troops. An army of 200,000 under General Boyadjieff, occupied a line along the frontier from Vidin to Zaribrod, threatening the Belgrade-Sofia Railroad. A second army, 100,000 strong, under Gen. Teodoroff, faced toward Macedonia, with the railroad center of Uskub as its chief objective. By seizing Uskub, they would be able to drive a wedge into Serbia from east to west and close the natural Serbian path of retreat.

Opposing these great armies on the Eastern frontier, Serbia had a force of 100,000 men.

### Allied Army Comes to the Rescue

MEANWHILE, the vanguard of General Sarail's army, 70,000 strong, had landed at



Salonika, and though the treacherous King Constantine of Greece sought to intern them, the troops were at last permitted to advance through Greece to the relief of the Serbians. The Greeks hampered them, however, by rushing their own mobilization and seizing most of the cars on the main railroad needed for their transportation.

General Sarraill's Allied Army advanced up the Sardar expecting to form a junction with the Serbians. At Valandova, on October 15th, an army of Bulgarians attacked them in force, but were repulsed with heavy losses. General Sarraill continued his advance to Krivvlak and Gradsko, but durst not go further until reinforcements arrived.

### **Desperate Fighting in the North**

GENERAL Boyadjieff's Bulgarian Army in the North, meanwhile, had crossed the lower Timok River and advanced in two divisions toward the cities of Pirot and Kniashevats. Never was seen such savage fighting, such awful slaughter, as ensued during the next fortnight, when the Serbians and Bulgarians grappled with each other in those Serbian mountains. Whole regiments were hemmed in against the rocky walls and annihilated.

In some of the combats, when guns were lost, the men seized boulders and hurled them at their opponents, or strangled their enemies with their grip. Quarter was neither asked nor given in this man-to-man combat. Numbers finally prevailed, however, and the Serbians were forced to yield village after village, ridge after ridge, the torch being applied to each town seized by the Bulgars.

### **Bulgars Cut the Railway and Seize Uskub**

GENERAL Teodoroff's Bulgarian Army, moving rapidly into Macedonia, in two columns, aimed at seizing the main line of railroad and preventing communications between the vanguard of General Sarraill's French Army and the Serbians.

One Bulgarian column cut the railroad at Vrania and occupied the city on October 17th. Teodoroff's main army, going South, seized Palanka, Sultan Pepe and Katshaua, and advanced to Veles, where on October 20th, they again cut the railroad line, making any further advance of General Sarraill's army impossible.

Two days later the Bulgarians drove the Serbians out of Uskub and into the Katshanik Pass, where the Serbs made a gallant stand against great odds.

### **Mackensen's Offensive Begins**

THE entrance of Bulgaria into the War was the signal for General Mackensen to move his Austro-German Armies down from the North and encompass the Serbians. He found it a difficult task, despite his superiority in numbers and artillery. The Serbians, all along the line of the Danube and Save Rivers, had built parallel lines of strong intrenchments, protected by the rock-ribbed hills skirting the mountains of the interior. The Germans, after crossing these rivers, had been held back by these obstacles.

On October 15th, Mackensen launched a powerful offensive all along the line. General Koevess moved out of Belgrade and bombarded the heights to the south. Mount Avala, ten miles away, succumbed in three days and by the 21st Obrenovatz and Shabatatz were in his control.

Meanwhile, General Gallwitz was moving his army down the Morava Valley, using his heavy artillery against the fortified positions on the heights. By October 23d, his army had advanced to the southern bank of the Jesenitza and had passed Rakinatz.

On the extreme Western front the Austrians had crossed the Drina at Vishegrad and the German left wing had crossed the Danube at Ovsova, taking the heights overlooking the city. All the rivers forming the frontiers of Serbia were now in the hands of the German Allies, but they paid a heavy price for the gains.

### **The Serbian Nation in Flight**

THE Serbians, while defending themselves so valiantly against their foes, had been buoyed up by the hope that the French and English would come to their assistance. There were promises, too, that the Russians would launch an offensive against the Bulgarians.

But as the weeks passed, and no help arrived, the Serbian peasants began to lose heart. At first, as their villages were occupied by the Huns, they had merely accompanied the Serbian armies in their retreat,



but in late October, a general exodus of the peasantry southward began, the roads being choked with slow-moving ox-carts.

Soon these avenues of escape were closed by the Bulgarians, and then nothing remained for them to do but attempt to cross the forbidding mountain wilderness of Albania, which blocked the way to the Adriatic Seacoast. These mountains were infested by fierce bands of Albanian brigands and tribesmen, to whom murder was a pastime.

To add to the distress of the Serbians, the rain fell incessantly; the roads were deep in mud and food was scarce. The plight of those poor peasants, especially the women and children, may well be imagined. They dropped by thousands along those mountain trails, scarcely half of them reaching the Adriatic Seacoast.

### Huns Hurled Back at Kragujevats

THE Austrian Army, advancing from the north, kept pushing before them the small divisions of Serbians. On October 28th, they found the Shamadian Division defending the hills north of the Kragujevats. After shelling the Serbian position, the Austrian infantry began the ascent of the heights, but met a wall of bayonets which they could not pierce. Wave after wave of Austrians advanced and each was thrown back in confusion, leaving 3,000 prisoners behind them and the field covered with their slain. On the approach of the main Austrian Army, the gallant Serbians evacuated the heights, November 1st, after destroying the arsenal and all the stores it contained.

By November 2d, all Northern Serbia had been conquered, the railroad had been opened between Berlin and Constantinople and the armies of Austria had come in touch with each other.

Farther south, in Macedonia the Bulgarian Army of General Teodoroff, after occupying Uskub, had advanced toward Katshanik Pass, which was held by the Serbian Army under General Bojovitch. Repeated assaults upon this pass failed to dislodge the Serbians, who used their bayonets most effectively.

### The Serbians Forsaken

MEANWHILE, Colonel Vassitch, with a small Serbian force, was holding Veles, where

he expected to form a junction with General Sarrail's French Army, whose guns could be heard assaulting the Bulgarians some miles to the south. After holding back the Bulgarian hordes for an entire week, Colonel Vassitch retired to the Babuna Pass, which marks the division of Macedonia from Upper Serbia.

It was soon apparent that the Serbians could hope for no aid from the outside. General Sarrail's French troops had indeed penetrated north as far as Gradsko, defeating the Bulgarians in several engagements, and were within sound of the Serbian guns, but lacking in strength, or for whatever reason, they could advance no further. General Sarrail's conduct of this campaign was afterward made the subject of a military inquiry, which left him with a clouded reputation.

Great Britain had offered Greece the Island of Cyprus if she would keep her pledge to Serbia, but to no avail. Italy had declared war on Bulgaria, October 20th, but had been unable to render any direct assistance.

### Relief Comes Too Late

ENGLAND had been able to land only 13,000 soldiers at Salonika. The French Government, too, had failed to meet the emergency to the satisfaction of the nations and the Cabinet had been forced to resign on October 28th. A new French Cabinet, with M. Briand as Premier was then formed.

General Joffre visited England to insist that energetic measures be taken for the relief of Serbia. In a few days, as a result of his mission, large forces were sent to Salonika, but they arrived too late to render effectual assistance. The Greeks, were now openly aiding the Austrians by obstacles in the path of the Allies.

### Capture of Nish by Bulgarians

MEANWHILE, the German steam roller was advancing steadily toward Nish. The Serbians were expelled from their headquarters at Kralievo on November 5th, and two days later Krushevatz surrendered with nearly 5,000 prisoners. The Heights of Lugotzni were taken by storm and on the next day, the German forces united at Kirwin, while the forces of General Boy-



adjieff were advancing on Nish from the south. The whole Serbian Army was being enveloped.

### **Battle of Babuna Pass**

THE Serbians in Macedonia were still holding tenaciously to the Babuna and Katshanik Passes, their only remaining avenues of retreat. The Babuna Pass was defended by Col. Vassitch with a force of only 5,000 men.

Here, within 10 miles of the French Army, was fought one of the most desperate battles of the Balkan War. Twenty thousand Bulgarians with heavy artillery, hurled themselves daily against the Pass during the first week in November, but were driven back at the point of the bayonet.

### **Serbians Again Forsaken**

GENERAL SARRAIL, meanwhile, found himself unable to pierce the Bulgarian line and join the Serbs at Babuna Pass. To reach them he must first cross the Tserna River and take the strongly fortified Mount of the Archangel, which the Bulgarians held in superior numbers. Crossing the Tserna, Sarraill's Army, now reinforced, began scaling the heights, 1,000 feet in air. Driving the Bulgarians out of the villages at the base of the mountain, he encircled the heights, forcing the Bulgarians to evacuate Sirkovo half way up the slope.

On November 10th, being reinforced, the Bulgarian Army of 60,000 assumed the offensive. Their plan was to take the French in the rear, cut off their retreat across the Tserna River and annihilate them at the base of the mountain. For three days the battle raged, but the French Army fought so valourously that the Bulgarians were routed, leaving 4,000 dead upon the field.

General Sarraill, however, dared not resign his sole path of retreat across the Tserna River and cross the mountain to the relief of the Serbians who, again forsaken, withdrew from Babuna Pass, falling back upon Prilip on November 16th. Four days later, the Bulgarians returned to Mount Archangel and again attacked General Sarraill, but failed to oust him from his position.

### **Closing In On the Serbians From Three Sides**

THE main armies of Austria, Germany and Bulgaria were now conducting a great con-

verging movement, closing in upon the Serbians from three sides and sweeping them forward toward the awful defiles of the Montenegrin and Albanian Mountains, through which no army could possibly pass. With the cutting of the railroad, the Serbian line of supply was destroyed and they were woefully lacking in food and ammunition.

### **Separate Peace Terms Declined by Serbians**

ON November 12th, General Mackensen had offered a separate peace to the Serbians, if they would resign all of Macedonia, and a strip of territory along the Bulgarian frontier, but Premier Pachitch declined the proposal, saying: "Our way is marked out. We will be true to the Entente and die honorably."

### **Furious Battle for the Katshanik Pass**

HEMMED in on three sides, the retreat of the Serbians presented many difficulties. To escape by way of the mountains of Montenegro and Albania, where no railroads or even good wagon roads existed, seemed impossible. Yet the only alternative to a flight over the mountains was to cross the Greek frontier, where they might later join the Allies.

This road was blocked by the Bulgarians, who had wedged themselves in between the Serbians and General Sarraill's forces. The Serbians, at all costs, resolved to break through the circle of steel. They must, however, first drive the Bulgarians out of the Katshanik Pass before they could advance westward to Tetovo and thence proceed south to Monastir, and finally to Salonika.

### **A Savage Three-Days Battle**

ON November 10th, General Bojovitch, with 8,000 Serbians and 100 field pieces, shelled the Bulgarian trenches at Katshanik Pass, forcing the Bulgars to retreat four miles. The Serbian infantry then rushed upon the retreating Bulgars, and as the two lines merged there ensued a battle that for savage fury never had been equalled during the campaign.

Day and night, for three days, they fought with bayonet, rocks, hands, teeth. They fought oftentimes blindly, friend crushing the skull of friend or rending his limbs with teeth and claws.



Despite the odds of four to one, the Serbians almost opened a gap in the enemy line, but at the crucial moment the Bulgars were reinforced and the Serbs on November 15th retired from the Pass, rolling back toward Prisrend.

### **Last Stand of the Serbians at Pristina**

THE main Serbian forces, by this time, had been rolled back upon the great Kossove Plain, 40 miles long, where they were joined by a hundred thousand Serbian refugees. Here they decided to risk all upon a final decisive battle at Pristina, on the same battleground that saw the defeat of the Serbian Czar Lazar by the Turks in 1389.

The battle of Pristina was fought November 13th amidst a ceaseless downpour of rain, with thunder reverberating and lightning flashing. It was reciprocal slaughter, not warfare. Whole regiments were blotted out in a trice. Along that battle line of 40 miles, quarter was neither asked nor given.

### **King Peter Kneels in Prayer During Battle**

WHILE the guns were roaring their loudest, the aged King Peter of Serbia knelt in prayer in a neighboring church, asking that his kingdom might be saved from destruction. But it was not to be.

The Serbians were overwhelmed by the numbers of their enemy and retreated toward Prisrend, leaving 50,000 dead and 50,000 prisoners behind them. A final stand was made by 80,000 Serbians at Prisrend, November 27th, but they were driven from this position on the following day, fleeing across the frontier into Albania with the whole population in wild pursuit.

### **700,000 Civilians and Soldiers in Retreat**

THE horrors of the retreat of the Serbian nation and the remnant of the Serbian Army through the snow-clad mountains of Albania are beyond description. A fierce northerly gale swept the mountains as the refugees, numbering 700,000, staggered through the defiles. Ill-clad and often barefoot, so famished that they fed upon flesh of dead horses by the wayside, they plunged through drifts of snow up to their knees—some westward to Scutari, others southward to Greece.

Thousands of mothers, hugging babies to

their breasts, sank in the snow or sought shelter behind rocks, there to perish miserably in the fury of the gale.

The whole route, from Prisrend to Monastir, 90 miles away, was lined with human corpses and the carcasses of horses and mules dead of starvation.

Finally the tattered, half starved ranks of the refugees managed to reach their destinations, some at Monastir, others along the Albanian Seacoast, whence they were transferred in Italian ships to the Island of Corfu. Here King Peter set up a new Serbian Government.

### **Greek King Angers the Allies**

THE destruction of the Serbian Army left the French forces of General Sarraill at Mt. Archangel in a position of much peril. A small force of British troops had deployed on the French right wing late in November, holding the mountain chain that forms a natural boundary between Greek and Bulgarian territory. On November 27th, General Sarraill decided upon a general withdrawal of the Allied Army into Greece, with Salonika as a base.

King Constantine of Greece at once objected and even proposed the internment of the Allied Army. More menacing still, he planted 200,000 Greek soldiers between Salonika and the line of retreat of General Sarraill. This act of treachery aroused both France and England. They demanded assurances from Greece that the Allied Army should not be molested, yet the King was so reluctant to yield the point, that it was not until after they had laid a partial embargo on the Greek ports and the city of Athens had been menaced with starvation that King Constantine finally agreed to play fair.

### **Bulgarians Attack the British and French**

THE British, on the right wing of the French Army, occupied a double line of trenches among the snow-clad hills north and west of Doiran. A Bulgarian Army, 100,000 strong, under General Teodoroff, attempted to force these trenches at two points on December 5th, but was sent reeling back at the point of the bayonet.

A second attempt was more successful, the Bulgarians gaining the first line of trenches,



but failing to expel the British from the second line.

On the following day, their movements masked by dense mists, the Bulgarians showered the British trenches with high explosive shells. Then, advancing in mass formation, they drove the British back to Vardar, where they were able to unite with the French.

#### French Retire to Grodetz

MEANWHILE, General Sarraill had stolen a march on the Bulgarians. Early in December, he had withdrawn his entire army with all his stores from the Tserna River, and entrained at Krivolak. After destroying the bridges and railroad tracks at this point, he continued his retreat toward the Greek border. A large Bulgarian Army overtook him at the Demi Kapu Gorge, but he conducted his retreat so skillfully that his army reached Grodetz intact. Here heavy intrenchments were thrown up.

The Bulgarians now attempted to drive a wedge in between the French and British armies, but Sarraill's strategy defeated this

purpose, and by December 11th, the Allied Armies were back on the Greek frontier. As they retired, the Allies destroyed the railroads and set fire to Gevgheli and other towns along the way. During the entire retreat the Allies lost only 3,500 men. The Bulgarians, fearing the Greeks, did not carry the pursuit any farther, and General Sarraill's army was soon back in Salonika.

#### Round Up of German Consuls

ON December 30th, a fleet of German aeroplanes dropped bombs on Salonika, doing much damage. In retaliation, a squad of French soldiers visited the German, Austrian, Bulgarian, and Turkish consulates, arresting all the consuls and sending them to Marseilles, France, whence they were taken to Switzerland.

Later, the Teutonic consuls at Mitylene were arrested and sent out of the country. The Island of Corfu was seized and utilized as a sanitarium for Serbian refugees, and the Island of Castellorize was occupied as a base for operations against the Turks.

EASTERN FRONT, OCT. 13

### Execution of Edith Cavell by the Germans Shocks the World

Her Trial a Travesty of Justice; Her Death a Brutal Murder

SECTION 17-1915

THE martyrdom of Edith Cavell, a gentle English nurse, who was brutally put to death by her German jailers, in Brussels, on October 13, 1915, excited the pity while drawing down upon Germany's head the condemnation of the whole world.

Miss Cavell was directress of a large nursing home at Brussels, Belgium. On August 5th, she was arrested by the German authorities and secretly confined in the prison of St. Giles, charged with aiding British and French stragglers to escape across the Dutch frontier, and with supplying them with money, food and clothing.

Brand Whitlock, the American Ambassador to Belgium, who had been intrusted with the protection of British interests in the occupied portions of Belgium was left uninformed of Miss Cavell's arrest for several

days. When finally apprised of the fact of her arrest, Ambassador Whitlock requested authorization for the legal counsellor of the American Legation, M. Gaston de Leval, to visit Miss Cavell and arrange for her defense. Ambassador Whitlock's request was ignored for weeks, but on September 10th, he urged Baron von der Lancken, chief of the German political department, to take immediate steps to insure for Miss Cavell an impartial trial.

Von der Lancken brutally refused, "as a matter of principle," to allow M. Gaston de Leval to interview Miss Cavell, saying that her defense was in the hands of the German advocate Braun, "who, I may add, is already in touch with the competent German authorities." He further declared that Miss Cavell herself admitted that she had concealed in

her house several French and English soldiers, as well as Belgians of military age, furnished them with the necessary money for their journey to France, and provided them with guides who enabled them secretly to cross the Dutch frontier.

Maitre de Leval repeatedly asked permission to visit Miss Cavell in prison, but was told that attorneys engaged in defending prisoners before German military courts, were never allowed to consult with their clients before the trial and were not entitled to examine any of the evidence in the Government's possession. He was even cautioned against attending the trial of Miss Cavell lest the German judges should resent the presence in court of a representative of the American Legation.

The travesty of a trial was held on Thursday, October 7th, continuing through Friday. Not until the following Sunday, however, was the American Legation able to glean the meager facts disclosed concerning the trial.

It was alleged that Miss Cavell frankly admitted that she had aided young soldiers to cross the frontier into Holland in order that they might return to England and France.

It was further alleged that Miss Cavell acknowledged receiving letters from these soldiers, thanking her for the assistance rendered them.

By a strained interpretation of the German military law, Miss Cavell was adjudged guilty of a "crime," and upon this technical foundation the public prosecutor urged that sentence of death be passed upon her. The sentence was duly passed, not in open court, however, but in the secrecy of her cell.

Maitre de Leval renewed his efforts to see Miss Cavell; he also asked that Rev. M. Gahan, the English chaplain, be permitted to visit her. Herr Conrad, the German official in charge, refused M. de Leval permission to see Miss Cavell until such time as the judgment of the military court should

have been pronounced and signed. He also refused the request that an English chaplain be allowed to visit the prisoner, saying that Miss Cavell should have the ministrations of a German Lutheran chaplain. He promised, however, to notify the Legation immediately upon the confirmation of the sentence, in order that the necessary steps might be taken to secure the pardon for Miss Cavell. This assurance was renewed during the day.

The American Legation drew up a petition for clemency, addressed to the Governor-General, von der Goltz, and a covering note addressed to Baron von der Lancken. In this note, the Governor's attention was called to the fact that of the many persons arrested for aiding soldiers to cross the Dutch frontier, none had suffered the death penalty.

Accompanied by the Spanish Minister (the Marquis de Villalobar), Secretary Gibson of the American Embassy that evening searched for Baron von der Lancken, finding him at length with some of his cronies at a disreputable theater. They presented the note urging clemency. Von Lancken refused to lay the petition before the Emperor. Moreover, he declared that the Military Governor of Brussels had ratified the sentence of death "and not even the Emperor could intervene."

That night Rev. M. Gahan was admitted to Miss Cavell's cell, offering her the last consolations of her faith. Early on the morning of October 13th, the brave nurse was shot in the prison courtyard. The German minister who attended her, and gave her burial, declared that she was courageous to the end; she professed the Christian faith, and said she was glad to die for her country.

It may not be amiss to add that, in 1918, evidence was forthcoming that Miss Cavell had been betrayed into the hands of the Germans by a renegade Frenchman. After the Armistice, this wretch was convicted as a traitor to France and put to death.



WESTERN THEATER, SEPT. 20—DEC. 25

## Titanic Battles Fought in Artois and Champagne

400,000 Men Fall in the Attempt to Reduce the German Salient at Noyon

SECTION 18—1915

### Allied Forces, 1,500,000

Gen. Foch, Group Commander

### French Armies—

Gen. Petain  
Gen. de Castelnau  
Gen. Marchand  
Gen. Dubois  
Gen. Baratier  
Gen. D'Urbal  
Gen. D'Esperey

### British Armies—

Gen. Sir John French  
Gen. Sir Douglas Haig  
Gen. Hubert Gough  
Gen. Henry Rawlinson  
Gen. Herbert Plumer

### French Woman's Battalion—

Louise Armand, Commander

### German Forces, 1,500,000

Crown Prince Rupprecht, Commander  
Gen. von Buelow  
Gen. von Einem  
Gen. von Fabeck  
Gen. Falkenhousen  
Gen. Strautz  
Gen. Gaede  
Gen. Dittfurth  
Gen. von Fleck  
Crown Prince Frederick

THE autumn of 1915 witnessed a truly titanic battle on the Western battle front, with 3,000,000 combatants engaged in mutual massacre along the salient extending from Artois to Champagne.

At this time, the apex of the German salient, at Noyon, extended dangerously close to Paris. Therein lay its weakness, for if the German front could be pierced above and below Noyon, the compulsory withdrawal of the German forces to the Belgian frontier would follow. The situation was almost identical with that on the Eastern front, where the bulge of the Warsaw salient gave Hindenberg his opportunity to strike from the north and south and compel a general Russian retreat out of Poland.

Aiming to destroy the German salient at Noyon, General Foch had assembled two groups of Allied Armies, one on a front opposite Lens in Artois, the other on a front opposite Vouziers in Champagne. The Artois sector was held by a joint British and French Army directed by General Sir John French; the Champagne sector extending from Rheims to Verdun, was occupied by a French Army under General Petain, one of the ablest commanders developed by the War. At the beginning of the great battle, in mid-September, the opposing forces were about equal, 1,500,000 each.

### The Elaborate Preparations

ELABORATE preparations had been made for this supreme assault. In the Champagne sector, a network of railroads had been constructed by the French, and great engineering bases established, to facilitate the work of bombardment. The artillery preparations were made on a gigantic scale, mountains of ammunition having arisen behind the Allied lines.

The Anglo-French forces in Artois had been divided into two armies, one personally directed by General Foch, the other by General Sir John French and Gen. Sir Douglas Haig. The commander-in-chief of the entire front was General Joffre, the hero of the Marne.

The Germans, too, had made extensive preparations for defensive warfare. Their parallel line of trenches, from the Belgian Coast to Switzerland, a distance of 400 miles, had been converted into a continuous fortress, cement lined and interspersed with deep dugouts or caves, "as commodious and comfortable as a ball room." In heavy artillery and in machine guns, they held a superiority over the Allies.

In general, the Allied strategy embraced the following plans. The main attack was to be made in Champagne by the French

group of armies under General Petain. To the north, between Lens and La Bassée, in Artois, where the French and British Armies joined, a joint attack was to be launched. Further north, on a front of eighty miles, the British alone were to conduct a series of secondary assaults.

### **Terrific Bombardment by the French**

THE battle in Champagne was ushered in, September 21st, with the most thunderous roar of artillery that ever assailed the ears of man. Perhaps never before or since has earth heard such an uproar. Beginning in a raging bombardment, it became a mad drumming, furious beyond all power of imagination.

Day and night, for five days, the French guns vomited destruction against the German line. Strongly built trenches were crushed in like ant hills, burying the Ger-

mans by thousands in their dugouts; the German wire entanglements were swept away, the embrasures smashed and many alleys of communication between the German trenches choked up.

The long-range-guns demolished the permanent way, stopping all movements of supplies and reinforcements. During those five days, the Germans lived in an inferno, choked for want of air, half starved for lack of food, dazed and distracted by the violence of the assault. In the shelled trenches the Huns fell by thousands. To add to the horror of the bombardment, a mist of smoke overhung the battlefield, obscuring the general view.

The shells burst so close together that the puffs of smoke along the heights were merged in a single cloud. It was like looking at a multitude of geysers in full ebullition.

## **Great French Victory in Champagne**

French Army, 200,000  
Gen. Petain

THE infantry attack along the 20 miles of Champagne front had been timed for 9.15 a. m., September 25th. At the indicated moment, the French troops climbed out of their trenches and, at double quick, broke in a first immense wave against the German trenches, 660 feet away, an African cavalry brigade under General Baratier participating.

No sooner did one wave of infantry sweep forward than another surged up behind it, flowing impetuously in the same direction. The French advance submerged the entire first line of German trenches, advancing past the batteries to the heights south of Py. Foremost in the rush were the daredevil African Corps and the Moroccan troops, led by the brave General Marchand, who fell mortally wounded at the moment of victory.

The Germans, taken by surprise, had shown but little resistance at the onset. Now they brought their machine guns into play and opposed every step of the French advance. The two French wings were subjected to a converging gun-fire, followed by counter attacks on their flanks, which served to check their progress.

German Army, 215,000  
General von Ditmarsh

The center columns, however, steadily advanced, day by day, fighting every inch of the way. By Sept. 27th, these columns had advanced one to two miles, taking 3,000 prisoners and 44 cannon, and part of the advance had almost reached the second line of German trenches.

Many German batteries were captured, whose artillerists were found chained to their guns.

The heights north of Massiges, which the Germans deemed impregnable, were scaled in fifteen minutes, the Germans surrendering in masses. The advance along the crest of this ridge was made with difficulty in the face of a withering machine-gun-fire.

The French were compelled literally to blast their way through with hand grenades, which were passed along from hand to hand in an ever-lengthening chain of grenade bearers, much as buckets of water were passed from hand to hand in the old fire-fighting days.

For eight days, from September 25th to October 3d, the battle of Massiges Heights continued without respite and with unexampled fury, but inch by inch the Germans



finally were compelled to yield the ground. Possession of these heights enabled the French to extend their lines and take by a flank movement the sections of first line trenches which they had failed to capture by a frontal attack.

### **Germans Lose 165,000 in the Battle**

IN 12 days the French penetrated the German lines to an average depth of two miles on a 15-mile front, taking 25,000 prisoners, 150 guns and a vast quantity of booty. More than 140,000 Germans had fallen dead or wounded, while the French losses were upward of 100,000.

On October 7th, a fresh German Army of 93 battalions, numbering 100,000 men, was recalled from the Russian front to Champagne; and began a counter offensive. They failed, however, to regain their lost territory or to drive back the French. By the middle of October the Champagne Battle had ended in a stalemate.

The tactics of the French commanders had an immediate strategical result of the first importance, for by compelling the Germans to draw their Eastern Armies to support the Champagne offensive, they aided the Russians in stopping the German drive in the East.

## **British Lose 60,000 Men in Battle of Loos**

### **British Army, 250,000**

Gen. Sir John French  
Gen. Sir Douglas Haig  
Gen. Sir Henry Rawlinson  
Gen. Sir Hubert Gough  
Gen. Sir Smith-Dorrien

### **German Army, 250,000**

Crown Prince Rupprecht of Bavaria

THE simultaneous attack on Loos by the British troops under Sir John French and Gen. Douglas Haig opened brilliantly on September 25th. Preceding the assault, for five days, the British guns roared savagely all along the 80-mile front from the Belgian Coast to Artois.

As in Champagne, the German parapets melted away, trenches were obliterated, the very air seemed choked with the infernal din. During the bombardment, squadrons of British aeroplanes flew over the battlefield, some signalling the range to the gunners, others dropping shells on railway trains and bridges. Thousands of gas bombs were dropped upon the German trenches at Loos, giving the Huns a dose of their own infernal medicine.

Behind this poison cloud, the British infantry uprose, wearing gas masks. Advancing in four columns, they stormed the German line but were stopped short by an avalanche of bullets. Three successive assaults by one British division of 10,000 men broke under the German resistance. A fourth advance carried the Britishers over the German trenches, and two miles beyond. The First British Army seized the famous Hohenzollern Redoubt, captured the German

guns and crossed the highway at several places.

The Second British Army was equally successful in its early movements. A Scottish division, after capturing the village of Loos, occupied the slopes of Hill 70, and even penetrated into the last German trench-line near Cite St. Auguste. Unfortunately, the British Reserves failed to support the advance and the brave Scots were left isolated beyond the German line.

The Germans, strongly reinforced, returned to the fray. Before nightfall they had driven back the Scottish troops, retaken Hill 70, restored their line and begun a counter-offensive.

Sir John French, appealed for aid to General Foch, and two brigades were sent to his assistance. But the Germans now were so solidly placed they could not be dislodged and the British assault, which had promised so much at the start, ended in failure.

### **General French is Superseded**

THOUGH the British took 3,000 prisoners and 25 guns in this engagement, yet they lost 60,000 men, and all they had to show for this appalling loss was a dubious advance of two miles along a four-mile front. The

battle of Loos, therefore, must be regarded as a British disaster.

In consequence of this and other failures, a complete reorganization of the British military forces took place. General Sir John French was supplanted as commander-in-chief of the British forces by General Sir Douglas Haig, and Sir William Robertson was appointed chief of staff.

### "The Joan of Arc of Loos"

IN THE shell-swept town of Loos, when the British took possession on September 25th, lived a 17-years-old girl, Emiliene Moreau by name, who was studying to be a school teacher. During the bombardment, while the shells were exploding round about her and the French poilus were falling by thousands, Emiliene had converted her cottage into a first aid station and, unassisted, ministered to the wounded. Two German snipers, through loopholes in a nearby house, suddenly began firing upon her improvised hospital, whereupon the brave girl armed her-

self with a revolver, boldly entered the house and killed them. Later in the day, two other German soldiers charged toward her with fixed bayonets. They, too, were sent to Walhalla by the bullet route.

While going her rounds of mercy the next day, three more Huns endeavored to pierce Emiliene with their bayonets. With hand grenades given her by a British grenadier, Emiliene blew the Huns into fragments.

On the eventful day, when the British line was wavering under what has been described as "the most terrible cyclone of shells ever let loose upon earth," Emiliene appeared at the front, waving the French tri-colour and singing the "Marseillaise."

Inspired by her brave example, the British line stiffened and a retreat that might have endangered the whole front was averted. For these glorious acts of heroism, Emiliene was cited in the French Official Journal, and Sir Douglas Haig christened her "The Joan of Arc of Loos."

## French Victory in Artois

Franco-English Army, 300,000

Gen Ferdinand Foch  
General Sir John French

German Army, 300,000

Crown Prince Rupprecht

IN concurrence with the French advance in Champagne and the British thrust at Loos on September 25th, General Foch launched an offensive in Artois. This offensive also had been preceded by an earth-rocking bombardment lasting five days, which practically obliterated the first two lines of German trenches. Before the bombardment ceased, thousands of German deserters came into the French line, glad to escape from the inferno of shell fire. The French storm troops found the ruined German trenches deserted, and the army in retreat through a woods.

The main objective of the French was Lens, an important coal town. But first they must gain Vimy Ridge, commanding the town, which was held by the Germans. In two days, without much resistance, the French crept up the western slope of Vimy Ridge, but the Germans on the eastern slope prevented their gaining the top.

The Germans, by using a liquid fire composed of petrol and tar, sought to smoke the

French off the slope. A bayonet charge followed. Amidst suffocating fumes, which so clouded the atmosphere that friend could scarcely be distinguished from foe, like denizens of the infernal region, a half million soldiers fought for possession of the ridge.

Day after day the struggle continued, the advantage passing now to one side then to the other. The French lines had been weakened by the withdrawal of two divisions which had been sent to the relief of the British at Loos. Were it not for this, there can be no doubt that the Germans would have been expelled from Vimy Ridge.

The battle finally resulted in a stalemate, after each side had lost 100,000 men. The French, however, took 25,000 prisoners and large stores of munitions. They are justified, therefore, in claiming a victory. It is estimated that 400,000 men fell in this titanic campaign fought in the Champagne and Artois.



EASTERN THEATER — DEC. 21

## British Army Beleaguered in Kut-El-Amara

Fighting Overwhelming Forces in Mesopotamia — Site of "the Garden of Eden"

SECTION 19—1915

### British Mesopotamian Army, 20,000

Lieut.-Gen. J. E. Nixon, Commander-in-Chief  
Gen. C. V. F. Townshend  
Gen. Delamain  
Gen. Houghton  
Gen. Sir Arthur Barrett

### Turkish Army, 40,000

Marshal von der Goltz  
Nuredin Pasha  
German officers—unidentified

**B** RITISH prestige in the East, especially among the Turks and Arabs, had been sensibly diminished through the failure of the Dardanelles campaign. Desiring to restore this prestige, an English Army embarked upon the ill-fated expedition to Bagdad in 1915.

There were, however, other actuating reasons for their expedition to Bagdad. In a very real sense, Mesopotamia has been regarded as the gateway to India, and the vestibule of three continents. It was felt that the capture of Bagdad would alike insure the safety of India, thwart the German ambitions in Persia, and at the same time exert a tremendous political effect upon Turks, Moslems and Arabs alike in Arabia, Persia, Syria and Egypt.

Back in November, 1914, a British force under Gen. Sir Arthur Barrett, already had entered on one stage of the campaign. Landing at Fao, at the head of the Persian Gulf, the British easily dispersed the Turks. The cities of Kurna and Basra, controlling the immense oil fields, very soon were in British possession, and the Persian Gulf was closed to Turkish and German invasion. "On to Bagdad" was now the British battle cry.

### Opening Clashes in "The Garden of Eden"

THE supposed site of the Garden of Eden, in Mesopotamia, now became a theater of warfare. On March 3d, a reconnoitering force of 1,000 British met a Turkish Army, 12,000 strong, at Ghadir. The Turks in force endeavored to flank the British column, but the Britishers, retreating, managed to make their way back to Ahwaz, where a garrison was stationed to defend the Anglo-Persian Oil Company's pipeline. On the same

day, 1,500 mounted Turks attacked a small squadron of British artillery northwest of Basra. The British lured them on to a position where they could be raked by the fire from concealed machine guns and artillery. The Turks fled in disorder, leaving many dead, while the British lost four officers.

### Turkish Guns Bombard Kurna

EARLY in April, 30,000 British troops had been dispatched from India, under command of Lieut.-Gen. Sir J. E. Nixon, and the entire British forces were placed at three points—Kurna, Ahwas, and Shaiba. An army of Turks, 40,000 strong, led by German officers, attacked these positions on April 11th.

For two days the Turks bombarded Kurna, but besides battering the bridge across the Tigris River, the shell-fire had little effect. The British gunboat Odin, and the fire of the shore batteries, succeeded in dispersing the Turkish boats on the river. At Ahwas, large bodies of Turkish cavalry appeared but did not attack.

### Turks Flee from a Mirage at Shaiba

ON April 12th, a three days' battle opened at Shaiba with an attack by a motley army of 22,000 Turks, Kurds and Arabs commanded by German officers. During the thick of the fighting, and when success was well within their grasp, the Turkish forces suddenly ceased firing and fled in wild panic from the field.

A Turkish prisoner subsequently explained the cause of the Turkish withdrawal. It appears that a pack train, approaching the British line from the rear, had been so distorted by a mirage that it appeared to the Turks as a great body of reinforcements. Believing themselves to be fighting against

enormous odds, they had yielded up a victory almost won.

### British Rout the Turks at Basra

ON the 14th, the British assumed the offensive, moving towards Basra, four miles distant, where a Turkish Army, 12,000 strong, were well intrenched in a tamarisk wood. From this retreat, the Turks shelled the advancing British Army with six big field guns. When near the Turkish line, the British united in a grand charge, sweeping over the enemy trenches and expelling the Turks at the point of the bayonet. This victory cost the British 700 men, including 17 officers.

Fleeing toward Nakailah, with the British in close pursuit, the Turks endeavored to escape by boats up the Tigris River. They were overtaken, however, and twelve boatloads of fugitives were captured. In all, the Turks lost 2,500 men, 700 of whom were made prisoners. Three days later the British entered Nakailah.

Still pursuing the Turks during the month of May, the British drove them off Persian soil to a refuge at Amara.

Gen. Gorringe, the British commander, also rounded up certain Arab bands that had assisted the Turks, destroying their property and seizing their strongholds.

### Turks Again in Flight from Kurna

NORTH of Kurna, the Turks were becoming troublesome. On May 31st, a British expedition launched a surprise attack upon the enemy by boat, compelling them to flee, and taking many prisoners and guns. So precipitate was the flight of the Turks that they left all their tents standing. Most of the refugees escaped by boat. They were pursued by a British naval flotilla, which sank the Turkish gunboat Marmaris and captured the transport Masul. Two lighters, containing mines and military stores, were also captured, together with 300 prisoners.

### Amara and Nasiriyeh Captured

THE town of Amara surrendered to the British on June 3d, with 3,000 prisoners, 13 guns, 12 steel barges, and four river steamers. Nasiriyeh, the reputed site of the Garden of Eden, was taken on July 25th, after bombardment, with 1,000 prisoners and 13 guns. The Turkish casualties were 500 and the British 300. A month later, the British expelled the Turks from an intrenched position along the line of communication between Bagdad and the Tigris.

## Kut-el-Amara Captured by the British

### British Army, 12,000

Maj.-Gen. Townshend  
Gen. Frye  
Gen. Delamain  
Gen. Houghton

### Turkish Army, 20,000

Nuredin Pasha  
Djemal Pasha

FROM his base at Amara, on the Tigris River, Gen. Townshend planned an advance on Bagdad by way of Kut-el-Amara. The small British Army, numbering 12,000, suffered greatly from the scorching heat and from lack of water. The motley fleet of vessels, bearing the army, moved up the Tigris early in September. On the way to Kut-el-Amara, the alliance of the Beni Lam Arabs, a powerful tribe, was secured.

The British Army came within sight of Kut-el-Amara on September 23d. Here the army of 20,000 Turks, under command of Nuredin Pasha, were strongly intrenched, on both sides of the Tigris.

For six miles in either direction, the Turks had established a line of trenches, protected by large areas of barbed wire entanglements and supported by heavy artillery. The banks of the river at this point were 20 feet high. A strong redoubt on the right forbade any flank movement in that direction. On the left bank, the line of defense was separated by two miles of marsh land. The river, too, was blocked by lines of sunken boats, while across the river was stretched a heavy wire cable.

A column of Britishers, under Gen. Frye, wormed its way by three days' effort to within 400 yards of the barbed wire entan-



gements which enveloped the Horseshoe Marsh. Day and night during the advance, which ended September 28th, they were subjected to continual shell fire, but lost only 90 men.

Meanwhile, a second British column under Gen. Delamain, crossing the Tigris, had reached an attacking position on a neck of land between two marshes, where the Turks were intrenched on September 28th. Here the British concentrated their field guns.

Gen. Delamain's column, in two divisions, started an enveloping movement around Nuredin Pasha's army, whose northern flank was exposed. One of these divisions, under Gen. Houghton, worked its way in rear of the Turks. Gen. Townshend then gave orders for a general battle.

For three days the battle raged, but at the precise moment when the British ring was about to close on the Turks around the marshes, another Turkish division appeared in rear of the British, also attempting a flanking movement. Turning savagely on the new enemy, the British quickly put them to flight. That night, under cover of darkness, the Turkish Army evacuated Kut-el-Amara, rapidly retreating to Azizi, 40 miles away.

From this base the German and Turkish engineers began to prepare near Bagdad a most elaborate system of trenches and fortifications. The engineers also extended the Bagdad railway line, enabling Nuredin Pasha to transport an army of reinforcement out of Syria.

## **British Win Costly Victory at Ctesiphon**

**British Army, 15,000**  
Gen. Townshend

**Turkish Army, 45,000**  
Nuredin Pasha  
Marshal von der Goltz

AN army of Turks, numbering 200,000 or more, was by this time pouring into Mesopotamia, composed of troops released from Egypt, Gallipoli and Transcaucasia. They were not, however, as yet concentrated in battle line. Opposing the British Army of 15,000 Indian troops, in October there were probably 45,000 Turks.

Against his better judgment, but on the peremptory order of his superior officer, Gen. Townshend had been persuaded to advance toward Bagdad. His little army was supported by a flotilla of boats which sailed up the Tigris in early October.

On October 23d, the British routed a Turkish force of 4,000 at Azizi. The advance continued. On November 21st, Gen. Townshend's army of 15,000 Anglo-Indians encountered a Turkish force of 45,000, occupying two lines of intrenchments near the ruins of the famous palace of Ctesiphon, only 18 miles from Bagdad. The Turks were securely intrenched on both banks of the Tigris. Their trenches, laid on level ground, were deep and narrow, affording a poor target for the British gunners. The Turkish position was further strengthened by fences of barbed wire.

Gen. Townshend's small army gave battle to Nuredin Pasha's army of 45,000 Turks on the morning of November 22d. The British gunners opened with a roaring artillery fire, which failed to find the Turkish trenches.

Under cover of this bombardment, the whole British line advanced on a wide front. The Turks made no sign until the British had advanced to within a mile of the barbed wire barriers; then a perfect shower of shrapnel fell upon the advancing Britishers. Without wavering, the British front advanced across the open ground, then pausing under a murderous rifle fire while a detail of men went forward to cut the barbed wire, finally charging the Turkish trenches gallantly.

Meanwhile, the British wings had turned both flanks of the Turkish line, compelling the enemy to retreat a mile or more to the rear. By mid-afternoon the entire body of Turks had been expelled from their first-line trenches, and when night fell, the British were also in possession of a part of the second-line trenches.

In the desperate charges and counter charges that took place that day an entire Turkish division was destroyed. The Brit-

ish, though victorious, had lost nearly 5,000 men, a third of their force.

During the night, the rescue of the wounded occupied both armies. With the dawn, came a gale of wind and a dust storm which obscured the landscape for hours. When the air cleared, it showed the battlefield strewn with the slain.

The Turks strongly reinforced during the night, and now outnumbering the British four to one, flung themselves against the British line repeatedly, during the afternoon and evening of the 24th, but the line held and before another dawn had broken, the Turks withdrew to reform on their third position along the line of the Dialah River.

Though victorious, the British still had suffered such heavy losses that General Townshend deemed it advisable to fall back upon Kut-el-Amara. The retirement was carried out successfully, in a region swarming with hostile Arabs.

All through the retreat, the British were compelled to fight rear-guard actions with these treacherous nomads, who were

mounted on fleet horses. Finally, the British force reached Kut, where a series of fortifications had been established. Here the slim British forces settled down on December 2d to await the reinforcements which were from India. Every day the Turkish ring of steel closed in upon Kut-el-Amara and many clashes between the two armies occurred. Before the middle of December, the British were practically beleaguered by the foe.

#### Relief Force Starts from India

SIR JOHN NIXON, Commander-in-Chief of the Mesopotamian Army, resigned his post under censure for his mismanagement of the Bagdad campaign and was succeeded by Lieut.-Gen. Sir Percy Lake, Chief of the Indian Staff, who at once despatched an army to the relief of Gen. Townshend's pent-up forces in Kut-el-Amara.

At the same time, the German general staff sent the aged Gen. von der Goltz to Mesopotamia to conduct the Turkish operations against the British.

UNITED STATES, AUG.—DEC.

## German Destruction of Factories in United States Begins

Our Government Demands Recall of Ambassador Dumba, Boy-Ed and von Papen

SECTION 20—1915

GERMANY had mobilized an immense army of spies, dynamiters, assassins and conspirators in the United States at the outbreak of War in Europe. These assassins hesitated at no crime that might in the least degree advance the cause of the Fatherland.

The head center of these conspiracies was the German legation at Washington, and the master mind that directed their efforts was Count Johann von Bernstorff, the German Ambassador.

His principal lieutenants were the Austrian Ambassador, Constantine Deodor Dumba, Captain Franz von Papen, Captain Karl Boy-Ed, Dr. Heinrich P. Albert and Wolf von Igel. Another leading conspirator, Franz von Rintelen, received his instructions direct from Berlin.

In addition to these special plotters, there were at least a million residents of German ancestry who aided the German spies in their work of destruction.

#### Destruction of Factories Planned

THESE German plotters were especially active in the attempted destruction of munition factories, workshops, camps and the most important centers of military and civil supply in the United States.

In addition to the incitement of labor troubles throughout America, they specialized in sabotage in machine shops; the destruction of vessels carrying war material to the Allies; the burning of stocks of raw materials and finished goods; and the destruction of electric power stations in large centers.



### German "Employment Bureau" Organized

IN order to recruit their criminal agents to the best advantage, they had established in New York City a general German employment bureau, with branches in Philadelphia, Bridgeport, Pittsburgh, Cleveland, Chicago and Cincinnati.

Soon after this criminal employment bureau had been established, Ambassador Dumba was able to report to the Austrian Foreign Office that, in his opinion, it was possible to disorganize and hold up for months, if not entirely prevent, the manufacture of munitions in Bethlehem, Penn., and in the Middle West.

### Typical Plots

TYPICAL plots of the German arson and murder squad were revealed at the trial of Albert Kaltschmidt, who had been indicted upon the following counts by a United States grand jury at Detroit:

To blow up the factory of the Peabody's Company, Limited, at Walkerville, Ontario, engaged in manufacturing uniforms, clothing and military supplies.

To blow up the building known as the Windsor Armories of the City of Windsor, Ontario.

To blow up and destroy other plants and buildings in said Dominion of Canada which were used for the manufacture of munitions of war, clothing and uniforms.

To blow up and destroy the great railway bridges of the Canadian Pacific railroad at Nipigon.

To blow up the Detroit Screw Works, where shrapnel was being manufactured.

To destroy the St. Clair tunnel, connecting Canada with the United States.

On the night of February 1, 1915, Werner Hor, a German reserve lieutenant, partially destroyed the International bridge, upon which the Grand Trunk Railway crosses the border between the United States and Canada at Vaceboro, Maine, by the use of an explosive. For this act he was paid \$700.

### Bribery of Congressmen Planned

COUNT VON BERNSTORFF applied to Berlin for authority to pay out \$50,000 in order to influence certain Congressmen to use their effort in preventing America's entering the

War. He naively added: "In the above circumstance, a public official German declaration in favor of Ireland is highly desirable, in order to gain the support of the Irish influence here."

### Involving Mexico with the U. S.

FRANZ VON RINTELEN was specially detailed to the task of embroiling Mexico and Japan in war with the United States, in the expectation that once war was declared it would stop the shipment of American ammunition to the Allies.

The arch-plotter in Mexico was the German Ambassador, Heinrich von Eckhardt. It was to Eckhardt that Dr. Alfred Zimmerman of the German Foreign Office sent the famous intercepted cable despatch, announcing the inauguration of submarine warfare and proposing that Mexico and Germany wage war together against the United States.

### Destruction of Shipping

WIDESPREAD destruction of American shipping, entailing much loss of life, was plotted by the German arson squad. Thirty-three explosions and fires were caused by German bombs on ships sailing from New York harbor alone.

Consul General Bopp and his hired agents were arrested for conspiracy to blow up any vessels belonging to the Allies found within the limits of Canada, which were laden with horses, munitions of war or articles of commerce in course of transportation.

Among other dynamiters arrested was one Robert Fay, who had invented an infernal machine which he tied to the rudder posts of vessels, causing their disablement.

Large sums of money were expended in the bribery of certain newspapers and journalists, among the latter being George Sylvester Viereck, Marcus Braun, and J. F. Archibald.

### Dumba, Boy-Ed, and Papen Recalled

THE criminal activities of Ambassador Dumba resulted in the demand for his recall by the United States Government on September 8th, 1915.

Captain Karl Boy-Ed and Captain Franz von Papen were also recalled on December 8th.

# THIRD YEAR OF THE WAR 1916

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## GERMANY DESCENDS TO PIRACY

Submarines Sink Hundreds of Helpless Ships Without Warning  
German Navy Defeated by British in Great Sea Battle Off Jutland  
Supreme Attempt to Crush France at Verdun Ends in Failure  
Russia Recovers from Defeat and Overruns Galicia and Turkey  
Bulgaria Unites with Germany in Crushing Roumania  
Italy's Victorious Campaign—Huns Hammered on the Marne  
Germany and Austria, Foreseeing Defeat, Make Peace Proposals  
President Wilson Becomes the Spokesman for Humanity

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### Survey of Events in the Year 1916

GERMANY had a bitter foretaste of her inevitable defeat in the year 1916. Yet in the opening months of the year the fruits of victory seemed already within her grasp. Everywhere her enemies had been humbled. Russia lay as a prostrate hulk, seemingly beyond recovery. The French and English forces had hammered in vain against the German ramparts on the Western front.

Italy had sustained a damaging blow at the hands of Austria. England had been humiliated twice by the Turks—first at Gallipoli and next at Kut-el-Amara, where General Townshend's army was forced to surrender. Bulgaria had given Germany assurances of her support; Greece was also a secret ally of Germany.

With Russia apparently crushed and England's Volunteer Army not yet arrived on the Western front, France alone stood between Germany and world dominion. Upon France, therefore, Germany loosed all her thunderbolts in the terrific assault at Verdun. How France endured the inferno of Verdun is one of the most glorious epics of the war.

We shall see, as the year's eventful history unfolds, how the British thrust on the Somme gradually weakened the German offensive at Verdun and taught the Huns that they were neither supermen nor world conquerors.

Germany was to receive a new surprise when the despised Russians, miraculously recovering from their recent defeat, hurled themselves against the foe,



driving the Austrians back 40 miles on a 300-mile front, retaking Galicia and all the strongholds she had lost during her retreat in 1915. At the same time, Russia was expelling the Turks from Armenia, though not until after the Moslems had massacred a million Christian Armenians. Austria's discomfiture was complete, when Italy had driven her out of the Trentino and advanced across the Carso Plateau toward Vienna.

Germany's last hope of a decisive victory on the seas was dispelled when her High Seas Fleet fled back to its harbor, after a losing battle with the English Navy off the coast of Jutland, in the most terrific conflict the seas have ever witnessed.

Unwilling to compete with the Allies along humane lines, the Huns at length threw off all the restraints of civilization and adopted a ruthless, murderous submarine policy, sinking merchant ships and even hospital ships without warning. But these ruthless expedients failed to attain their chief purpose, which was to starve England into submission by sinking all the food ships that plied the oceans.

Germany gained another suitable ally in 1916, when the Bulgarians (those half brothers to the Turks) united with the Huns in completely crushing Roumania. This tragedy might easily have been averted had certain traitorous statesmen, then in control of Russian affairs, hastened to support Roumania. England, too, was in part censurable for the tragedy, having withheld her support of Roumania while the too sanguine Sir Edward Grey was parleying to gain Bulgaria's allegiance to the Allied cause.

The year 1916 was eventful in a political sense, also. The aged Emperor Franz Joseph of Austria died and was succeeded by his son, Karl, who subsequently abdicated his throne. Lord Kitchener, England's Minister of War, was drowned off the Orkney Islands when the ship on which he had taken passage for Russia was sunk either by a mine or a torpedo. Premier Asquith of England resigned under the pressure of public opinion, and was succeeded by Lloyd George, who guided the ship of state through many troubled waters, during the remainder of the War. President Wilson, in 1916, was re-elected President of the United States and by universal consent became the spokesman for humanity. His warnings to Germany, though unheeded at the time, must have convinced the autocratic Kaiser that there was a moral force in the world to which he must answer for his crimes.

That Germany already had grave doubts of the security of her conquests in Belgium, France and Poland, was made evident toward the end of the year, when she put forth certain hypocritical proposals for peace. The Allies met

these bogus peace proposals by the flat assertion that reparation and restitution by Germany was a condition precedent to peace. Germany's idea of a satisfactory peace was one which would leave her in possession of Belgium and Northern France, and as much more of European soil as she could seize and hold.

The attention of the world was focussed for a week in April upon an abortive uprising in Ireland, when 1800 revolutionists, angered by the refusal of the British Government to make effective the Home Rule Bill passed by two successive Parliaments, took possession of Dublin, and held it for seven days against a British army of 60,000. Before the Irish Rebellion was suppressed, a third part of Dublin had been destroyed by fire and shells, and 600 lives lost. The detailed story of the year follows.

EASTERN THEATER, JAN. 6—13

## Austrians Conquer Montenegro in a Two-Weeks' Campaign

Little Army of 40,000 Holds Out Till Reduced to Point of Starvation  
King Nicholas Flees First to Rome and Then to Lyons, France

SECTION 2—1916

Montenegrin Army, 40,000  
General Yukovitch  
King Nicholas

Austrian Army, 60,000  
General Ermolli  
General Koevess

**M**ONTENEGRO, the poorest kingdom in the Balkans, had declared war against Austria on August 7, 1914, and her little Army of 40,000 men had rendered effective aid to their kinsmen in Serbia from the beginning of hostilities. Montenegrin artillery on Mt. Lovcen, had shelled the port of Cattaro and other Austrian towns along the Adriatic Sea in August, 1914, and the infantry occupied Scutari.

When the Serbians were making their victorious assault on Shabatz, and the Austrians were stampeding across the Drina, the Montenegrins attacked the Austrian Army on the frontier, compelling their retirement.

The Montenegrin Army, commanded by General Yukovitch, then advanced into Bosnia and at Bilek, on September 2, 1914, won a signal victory over the Austrians, taking many prisoners. A week later the Austrians met defeat at Foca.

The Serbians then sent an army into Bosnia to unite with the Montenegrins in an advance on Sarajevo, but the Austrians were now in such strong force that both the Montenegrins and Serbians withdrew from Bosnia.

The Montenegrins continued to assist the Serbians through the campaigns of 1915, supporting the left flank of the Serbians' position, and holding the lines around Fotcha and on the Lim River.

After Serbia had been crushed, in the fall of 1915, Austria began to lay her plans to eliminate Montenegro. At this time a huge Austrian Army guarded the frontier, while King Nicholas's forces had dwindled to 40,000 effective men. Despite these inequalities, the Montenegrins were able to smash an Austrian Army at Bielo, in the closing days of 1915, driving the enemy back as far as Ivania.

### Montenegrins Surrender to Austrians

THE main Austro-Hungarian Armies were assembled on January 6, 1915, for a general offensive against Montenegro on two fronts, General Koevess directing the movements. While the Eastern frontier of Montenegro, along the line of the Tara, Lim and Ibar Rivers, was being shelled by the great Austrian howitzers, the warships in the Gulf of Cattaro on the Western front began a violent bombardment of Mt. Lovcen, lasting



four days. The Austrian Infantry then swarmed up the mountain slope and seized Lovcen, driving out the small Montenegrin garrison defending the town.

The Montenegrins had long since expended all their ammunition and they were short of food as well. Moreover, their resistance had been weakened by the knowledge that Premier Minskovitch, a secret friend to Austria, had been negotiating for their surrender.

With their stronghold, Lovcen, in the hands of the enemy, the Montenegrins were forced to abandon their capital, Cetinje, on January 13, 1916.

Many of the Montenegrin soldiers laid down their arms, but a greater number escaped to Albania, uniting with the Serbians. The Austrians occupied Scutari on January 23d and San Giovanni di Medua

two days later. The conquest of Montenegro was now complete.

King Nicholas, meanwhile, had sued for peace, and it was unjustly alleged that he and his German wife had long intrigued with the Austrian diplomats. These rumors ceased, however, when it became known that King Nicholas had refused the terms of peace offered by Austria and remained with his two sons at the head of his troops, prepared to organize a final defense and take part in the retreat of his unconquered army.

On January 23d, King Nicholas arrived in Rome at the court of his son-in-law, King Victor Emmanuel of Italy, and from thence he journeyed to Lyons, France, where the capital of Montenegro was temporarily established by courtesy of the French Government.

..... EASTERN THEATER, FEB. 16—MAY 31 .....

## Turkish Armenia Falls Into the Hands of the Russians

Erzerum and Trebizond Captured by Forces of Grand Duke Nicholas

..... SECTION 3—1916 .....

Russian Army, 320,000

Grand Duke Nicholas, Commander  
General Yudenitch

Turkish Army, 150,000

General Enver Bey, Commander  
General Ahmed Fevzi, Erzerum Garrison

**T**HE Turkish menace loomed up in the opening days of 1916. Tutored by German officers, the Moslems had built up an effective war machine. They had dealt one English Army its death blow at Gallipoli, and had imprisoned another English Army in Kut-el-Amara. Their forces had overspread the Caucasus, Armenia and Mesopotamia. They had slaughtered a million Christian Armenians. Unless driven out of Europe they might prove a menace to civilization. To oust them from Constantinople was the hope of the Allies.

The disaster at Gallipoli had convinced the Allies that Constantinople could not be conquered from the South. An attack from the North, by way of Turkish Armenia, offered the surest promise of success. But first the Turks must be expelled from Erzerum and Trebizond, their two Armenian strongholds. The task was assigned to the Russian Army of the Caucasus, under command of Grand Duke Nicholas.

With an army of 320,000, liberally supplied with munitions and food sent from America, Grand Duke Nicholas applied himself to the task. He aimed first at the capture of Erzerum, an almost impregnable fortress, encircled by a chain of concrete defenses, carrying 1,000 huge guns of the very latest Krupp pattern. In and about Erzerum was a Turkish army, numbering 150,000 first line troops, directed by Enver Bey.

To take Erzerum by direct assault was deemed impossible; indeed, the fortress had resisted all Russian attempts to capture it during the Russo-Turkish War. Instead, Grand Duke Nicholas planned to invest Erzerum from all sides and, by threatening the communications of the fortress with the nearest railroad 200 miles away, to compel its evacuation.

Dividing his army into three columns, and, with Olty as a base, Duke Nicholas advanced upon Erzerum from three directions. The Russian columns began their converging



movement on Erzerum in mid-February, 1916. A blinding snowstorm was raging at the time and the temperature was 25 degrees below zero.

### Two Turkish Corps Dispersed

AT THE approach of the Russian Army, the Turks had moved out from Erzerum to block their path. They proved no match for the Russians. The Northern Turkish Corps was quickly flanked and put to flight. Two divisions of the Southern Turkish Corps were similarly disposed of. The Central Corps of the Russian and Turkish Armies fought a three days' battle at Koprikeui, January 16-18th, which resulted in a Russian victory. The line of the Araxes was forced and the Turks fled in wild disorder, constantly harassed by pursuing Cossacks. All the roads leading to Erzerum were blocked by discarded equipment, abandoned guns, and half-frozen stragglers.

### Turks Evacuate Erzerum

ERZERUM itself was still defended by a strong garrison under command of Ahmed Fevzi. The Russian artillery began a terrific bombardment of the outer defenses, continuing five days. Then, in a grand assault, the Siberian troops carried all nine of the outlying fortresses. Erzerum being no longer tenable, the garrison retired to a strongly fortified ridge east of the city. Gen. Yudenitch, the Russian commander, by hauling his heavy guns up the slopes of the supposedly inaccessible peaks to the north, was enabled to flank the ridge, which was subsequently carried by storm. The Turks evacuated Erzerum on February 16th. A rearguard of 12,000, left behind to protect the retreat, was captured, together with 300 guns and a great quantity of military stores.

### Trebizond Captured by the Russians

THROUGH the deep snows of a Caucasian winter, the Russian Army marched out from Erzerum in three columns on February 18th to invest the city of Trebizond, the principal Turkish seaport on the Black Sea. The right wing of the Russian Army, on February 23d, captured Inspir, about 75 miles northwest of

Erzerum; the Russian Center advanced to Askala, 30 miles from Erzerum, while the Russian left wing on March 2d occupied Citlis. Fresh Russian troops were landed at Atina on the Black Sea, while Russian destroyers took the seaport of Rizeh, and on March 17th, were within 20 miles of Trebizond.

As the Russian armies closed in upon Trebizond, the panic stricken population fled toward Kara-Hissar and Swias. Turkish reinforcements now began to arrive from Gallipoli and the defence stiffened. By March 27th, the Russians had advanced to the Oghene Dere River, between Rizeh and Trebizond, occupying the heights above the stream. A series of strong Turkish assaults failed to dislodge them from this position.

Nearer and nearer the Russians advanced toward Trebizond. During the first two weeks in April, the Turks fought desperately to hold them back, especially along the Kara Dere, but all in vain. On April 16th, the Russians were within 12 miles of Trebizond, occupying the village of Assene Kalessi.

New Turkish reinforcements were rushed up from Central Anatolia in a vain effort to stop the Russian advance. That being found impossible, the Turks evacuated Trebizond on April 18th, and the town was occupied by the Russians two days later, after silencing the Turkish guns in the outer forts.

The capture of Trebizond gave the Russians possession of a stretch of territory 250 miles in length and 125 miles wide, comprising 31,250 square miles, reaching from the Black Sea on the north to the Turki-Persian frontier on the south, and including the greater part of Armenia.

The Russian pursuit of the Turks was resumed on April 19th toward Erzingan on the west and Diarbeka on the southwest. During April and May many minor cavalry engagements were fought along a battle front 200 miles long, with varying successes, the campaign finally resolving itself into clashes between outposts. The Turkish losses during this campaign were estimated at 60,000.



WESTERN THEATER, FEB. 21—OCT. 23

**Verdun, the Greatest Artillery Battle of Recorded History**

Though Deluged with Millions of Shells, the French Repel the Huns for 8 Months

Germans Sacrifice 500,000 Picked Troops in Vain Attempt to Reach Paris

SECTION 4, 1916

French Forces, 500,000

Gen. Petain, Commander  
(Succeeding Gen. Castelnau)

Corps Commanders:

Gen. Balfourier  
Gen. Neville  
Gen. Mangin  
Gen. Humbert  
Gen. Sarraill  
Gen. Herr

German Forces, 1,000,000

Gen. Falkenhayn, Chief of Staff

Army Commanders:

Crown Prince Frederick  
Gen. von Haesseler  
Gen. Daimling  
Gen. von Guretski-Cornitz

**T**HE invincible spirit of France, proved on a thousand battlefields, was put to its supreme test in the inferno of Verdun, where for eight months the slim band of French heroes, guarding the gateway to Paris, held back the overwhelming forces of Germany in the face of a hurricane of artillery fire unequalled in history. Deluged daily with shells, their trenches blown to dust, fighting without adequate shelter and hopelessly outnumbered, the superb soldiers of France heroically defended their line and once again saved Europe from Hun domination. Five hundred thousand Germans were sacrificed in this vain attempt of the German Crown Prince to crush France in one overpowering operation.

**Von Ludendorff Resigns as Chief of Staff**

THE siege of Verdun was launched in compliance with the wishes of Crown Prince Frederick William, who had a roseate vision of himself as a world conqueror entering Paris at the head of a horde of Huns. Upon his suggestion the best shock troops in Hindenberg's victorious army on the Russian front were transferred to his command. This so angered General von Ludendorff, the German Chief of Staff, that he resigned his office in a huff and was succeeded by General von Falkenhayn. Nor did the great Hindenberg take kindly to the withdrawal of his best troops from the Russian front; on the contrary, he frankly predicted the failure of the Verdun enterprise. Regardless of their protests, however, the Crown Prince was permitted to indulge his royal ambition. In

the end, the failure of the siege involved the disgrace, both of the Crown Prince and of von Falkenhayn.

**Why Verdun Was Attacked**

VERDUN, though accounted the strongest citadel in all Europe, in reality was the most exposed point along the whole Western front of 500 miles from Calais to Switzerland. The rapid reduction of the Belgian fortresses at Liege and Namur had demonstrated beyond cavil that no modern fort could long withstand the pounding of great siege guns. Once the forts at Verdun were reduced, the German command believed the march to Paris, 140 miles away, along the Valley of the Oise, would be as a holiday stroll.

Verdun, moreover, constituted a menace to the adjacent iron fields of Lorraine, whence Germany derived the ore needed for her guns and ammunition. The destruction of the forts, therefore, would insure the safety of the indispensable iron fields and open the gateway to Paris.

Germany was well aware that a war of erosion must of necessity result to her disadvantage, inasmuch as the resources of the Allies tended constantly to increase as hers tended to diminish. Her last opportunity of winning the War lay in crushing France, before the Allies could bring their full strength to bear upon the Western front.

England already had placed 600,000 men in the Western trenches and had promised an additional army of 2,000,000 by midsummer of 1916. Italy was preparing to enter the War on the side of the Allies. It was

imperative, therefore, that Germany should endeavor to crush France in one colossal blow.

In pursuance of this general policy, Germany had assembled on the Franco-German front a group of armies whose total strength was estimated at 1,000,000. Of this number, 500,000 were already concentrated at Verdun, the balance being held in reserve.

In preparation for the siege, which had been forecasted a year before, the German High Command had assembled the greatest concentration of artillery in the history of warfare. Mountains of shells had sprung up; thousands of huge howitzers and field guns had been solidly set upon placements for the grand assault; great stores of asphyxiating bombs, poison gases, and other infernal devices were in readiness. To lend éclat to the siege, the "god-man," Kaiser Wilhelm, was present and conferred the chief command upon his son and heir, the Crown Prince.

### The Verdun Defences

THE French, on their part, knew full well that the forts were indefensible. Accordingly they had advanced their defensive eastward across the River Meuse, where two parallel lines of trenches were constructed in a semi-circle along a line of hills, forming a salient whose apex pointed toward the north. Guarding this line, though not wholly in the trenches, was an army of 120,000 Territorials, under the immediate command of Generals Sarrail and Herr.

Both ends of the French salient were held by the Germans; St. Mihiel had been seized in September 1914, and Montfaucon had been occupied during the retreat from the Marne. These positions gave the Germans absolute control of the two principal railroads that supplied Verdun with food and ammunition. More important still, they were able to sweep the salient with a cross-fire from east to west.

Only one narrow gauge railroad remained in the possession of the French, and this being totally inadequate to carry the needed supplies of food and ammunition to Verdun, and within range of the German guns besides, it was necessary to improvise a new

transport system. Motor vehicles of all descriptions, some 10,000 in number, were requisitioned from all parts of France, and this mobile service proved the salvation of Verdun. Thirty-thousand drivers were constantly employed in operating their motor vehicles.

The units of the French Army, crouching in myriad crater holes, or lurking in the wooded stretches along the line, with only a few troops left to guard the trenches, were in a precarious situation, due to the fact that the River Meuse, at their back, was now in flood. A forced retreat across the river might end in disaster.

The Germans, in addition to the advantage they held in numbers, guns, positions and supplies, had constructed a system of railways along the front of the Verdun salient enabling them quickly to transfer their men and supplies to any point where the exigencies of battle called for rapid concentration.

### The Preliminary Bombardment

THE French strategists had anticipated the launching of a powerful German offensive in the Western theater early in 1916, but the general expectation had been that the attack would be deferred until the March winds had dried the ground. The probabilities pointed toward an attack in force against the British front in Flanders. So sure of this were the Allied commanders that they had drawn from the forces defending Verdun, in order to strengthen the British position. The Germans had encouraged this illusion of a Flanders offensive by making a feint attack on a five-mile front at Lihons with rolling gas clouds followed by infantry rushes in mass.

While this feint against the British front was in progress, on February 19, 1916, the real artillery assault on the Verdun salient was begun. Using only a part of their field guns, the Germans seemed to be feeling out the French position, to get the range and to locate the French batteries. But even this preliminary bombardment was a terrible demonstration of German power. This trial bombardment by field guns continued without cessation for 48 hours, the French



gunners answering the fire as best they could, with the inferior artillery at their command.

### **The Immortal Battle Begins in a Blizzard**

HAVING found the range of the French trenches, the Germans, on February 21st, began the bombardment in force. A blizzard was raging and the French soldiers, unsheltered on the bleak hills of the Meuse, suffered greatly from the cold. With a roar that shook the earth for many miles around, thousands of field guns swept the French lines along the heights of the Meuse from St. Mihiel to Montfaucon. Then the huge Austrian howitzers, firing 12-inch shells, were brought into action, concentrating now upon one, then upon another, center of resistance.

The first hurricane of shells reduced the salient from Brabant to Haumont; in a trice the trenches were obliterated. Had they been occupied in force, as the Germans supposed them to be, the entire French Army must have perished.

Fortunately the French Army, for the most part, were crouching low in dugouts, tunnels, crater holes or in the adjacent woods, and only a few thousand perished in the trenches.

Soon, like a puff-ball, the entire sector from Herbebois to Mancourt was blown to dust. Then the Central front of the salient was smothered in a hail of shells pouring down from three directions. Thus the entire front line of trenches was wiped out.

One hour after the opening of the battle, every yard of ground behind the first trenches had been plowed by German shells and the telegraph lines destroyed.

### **German Infantry Attack Repelled**

IN spite of the blasting fire, the valorous French soldiers clung to their dugouts and tunnels, which the shells had failed to penetrate, and from widely scattered positions along their front they operated their batteries of light guns with cool and deadly precision.

As, wave upon wave, the German infantry advanced to secure the trench-line, they were repeatedly checked by the heroes in the dug-

outs, who cut them down with a relentless machine-gun fire. Only in the Center was the assault successful, the Germans occupying the Haumont and Caures Woods.

All this time the French units, isolated in their tunnels and dugouts, were fighting upon their own initiative without general direction.

### **Brabant Proves "A German Graveyard"**

THE second day of battle opened cold and snowy. To warm the French, the Germans threw jets of liquid fire into the Wood of Consenvoye, forcing an evacuation. There followed an infantry assault on Herbebois and the Wood of Ville in which the hand-to-hand fighting was especially bloody and determined.

The German artillery fire, meanwhile, was growing in violence; great gusts of flame swept over Anglemont, the Mormont Farm and La Wavrille; the second French trench line was churned with shells; Haumont was reduced to ruins. Still the hordes of Huns had difficulty in expelling the small body of French defenders; it was evening before they gained possession of the ruins.

When night fell, the French had lost the Wood of Ville and evacuated Brabant, but still held most of Herbebois and La Wavrille. In the cold and snow, under the ceaseless bombardment, the dauntless Frenchmen hastily dug themselves in again. The German losses were so appalling that they afterward named Verdun, "The German graveyard."

### **Germans Slaughtered at Herbebois**

WITH both trenches gone, the battle was now to be fought in the open. Determined upon carrying the wood of L'Herbebois at any cost, the Germans on the third day of battle attacked in great force and in close formation.

Waiting until the Huns were at close range, the French "75's" opened fire on the solid mass. Whole ranks were wiped out at a time; it was downright slaughter. Five successive attacks were made, with the same result. The fighting became furious beyond description. Yet, despite their reckless squandering of life, the Germans could not gain a foot of ground.



Unfortunately, as night fell, the Germans succeeded in taking La Waville and the defenders of Herbebois were obliged to fall back or risk being flanked. Many of the French soldiers, fighting mad, refused to retreat, choosing rather to die where they stood.

In other directions the Germans were advancing more cautiously. On the 24th the French evacuated the dangerous position in the village of Samogneux, and by evening the Germans had gained the hill known as "cote 344," the villages of Beaumont, Le Chaume and Ornes, the Wood of Fosses, and had thrown the French back to the line of the Verdun forts. The Germans were now confident that they had won the battle. One last effort would make them masters of the heights above Verdun and the French Army would be forced to retire in disorder.

### Gen. Petain Takes Over the Command

IN THIS critical juncture, aid came to the French. General Petain arrived, with all his staff, to succeed General Castelnau in active command, bringing with him a corps of 50,000 veterans who had won laurels in Flanders, Artois and Champagne. This corps was at once thrown into the furnace and checked the German advance. At the same time, Crown Prince Frederick's Army of 14 divisions was increased to 25, giving him a force of 800,000 to oppose the French force of 300,000.

### Germans Make a Breach at Douaumont

THE battle, on the 25th, centered on the borderland of Douaumont. Early that day the Germans made a fierce attack on the cote of Poive, carrying the villages of Louvemont and Bezonvant.

Before Douaumont the fighting was intense; by 5 in the afternoon the village seemed to be surrounded. A German brigade had indeed secured a foothold at Fort Douaumont, and the German General Staff had trumpeted to the world that "the armoured fort of Douaumont, the cornerstone of the French defense of Verdun, had been carried by a Brandenburg regiment," but their boast was premature.

### "They Shall Not Pass"

DECLARING that "they shall not pass," the French by a vigorous counter-attack, thrust back the enemy. A desperate struggle followed; the Germans did their utmost to widen the breach they had made toward the fort; the village of Douaumont was taken and retaken, but all the German effort and waste of men were in vain. They could not pass on; henceforth their advance was definitely controlled.

### The "Iron Corps" Retakes Douaumont

GENERAL PETAIN met the peril of this crisis, February 26th, by launching a counter offensive. The veterans of the immortal "Iron Corps," led by General Balfourier, flinging themselves in front of the whole German advance in the Ravine of Death, on the edge of the Douaumont Plateau, first halted the onrush of the Great German Army and then retook Fort Douaumont.

During the ensuing three days Douaumont changed hands three times, but try as they might, the Germans could not dislodge the heroic Iron Corps. Single positions were regained and lost twice in a day.

In this engagement the losses of the Germans were unbelievably heavy; 100,000 fell in a single day. The future of France, of the world, was at stake and the Iron Corps would have died to a man rather than suffer defeat. In that maelstrom of death, every reserve corps available had been used by the Germans. At the moment of victory they had been thwarted by a single brave French Corps which was forced to fight facing uphill and with a flooded river at its back.

### "The Battle of the Wings"

FAILING to force the French line at its Center, the Germans, on March 2d, attacked the two ends. The French salient was now inverted, with its apex pointing toward Verdun, the right wing resting on Fort de Vaux and the left on Dead Man's Hill. The breach in the Center was swept continually by the efficient artillery fire of the French gunners. It was necessary to capture these wings before the German direct advance on Verdun could be continued.



In these hellish attacks the Germans made use of liquid fire, asphyxiating gas, bombs, machine guns and bayonets upon a scale hitherto unknown. Thousands of brave Frenchmen melted away like snow flakes, in this crucible of war. Their only shelter was that afforded by swamps, forests and shell-craters, which were half filled with water and ice.

Continually the ground was swept by a rain of shells. So fiercely was every inch of ground contested, that advance was possible only after the shelter holes had been pulverized and their occupants blown to atoms. It was downright butchery; the soldiers contending not only against the infernal weapons of warfare, but also against the sullen forces of nature.

Snow fell interminably during March and there was little protection against the weather in the coverts of the forest, the swamps and the hillside. In this bleak theater of war, during a period of three months, was fought one of the most terrific battles of the entire War.

#### **Battle of "Dead Man's Hill"**

ACROSS the Meuse River, opposite to Douaumont, is an eminence known as Le Mort Homme ("Dead Man's Hill"). Adjacent to this, and separated from it by a brook, is another eminence known as Hill 304. These hills, which commanded Verdun, were held, but not occupied in force, by the French.

The defending French Army at this time occupied the higher elevation along the Charny Ridge, which extended westward from the River Meuse four miles north of Verdun. If the Germans could capture these hills, the gate to Paris would be opened.

The Germans, by a great sacrifice of men, advanced during the first week of March to the foot of Dead Man's Hill. Another week found them in possession of one of the summits. Here they were stopped. "They shall not pass" declared the French.

During the next ten days the Germans wasted regiment upon regiment in futile attacks upon Hill 304.

Still hoping to break through to Verdun, they next assailed Pepper Ridge, which stretches between Douaumont and Dead

Man's Hill. Here the resistance was equally stubborn, and on April 18th, the Crown Prince desisted from further efforts in this direction.

Returning to the assault on Dead Man's Hill, the Germans, in the last week of May, succeeded in expelling the French. Hill 304 soon after succumbed. But it was an empty triumph, bought at frightful cost. The Germans still found they could not break through to Verdun.

#### **Fort de Vaux Holds Out Three Months**

THE German bombardment of the village and Fort of Vaux at the right wing of the salient, was begun on May 29th. Vaux stood on a broad plateau whose slopes were seared with ravines, which assisted the Germans greatly in their operations.

Having first seized the little village of Vaux-devant-Damloup in the valley below, the Germans cautiously worked up through the ravines and in the ensuing weeks gradually advanced their trench lines around the fated fort. Continual bombardment finally reduced the fort to powder.

The slim French garrison of 600 men, now completely isolated from the rest of the army, took refuge in the underground passages of the fort. They were in sore straits for lack of food and water.

On June 3d, the Germans reached the summit and by dropping gas bombs and liquid fire down upon the French garrison, sought to suffocate them in the shelter below.

Finally, on June 7th, with death by suffocation as the only alternative, Major Raynal, the brave commander of Vaux and his plucky garrison, surrendered. The Germans, after 100 days and at a loss of thousands of men, had gained an objective which profited them little.

#### **The German Thrust at Verdun Fails**

HAVING captured the two wings of the French line, the Crown Prince then launched his final thrust for Verdun through the center of the salient. The two armies faced each other on lines running north and south. The Germans, on the Douaumont Plateau, were now but four miles from Verdun.

Their first intent was, by frontal attack, to expel the French from the narrow ridge

which barred the way to Verdun. In this effort they were doomed to disappointment. After two months of the most terrific fighting of which history has a record, the Germans succeeded in penetrating only six miles into French territory on a 15-mile front. The limit of their advance was Thiaumont, which was taken on June 23d after an assault by 100,000 picked German troops. On the next day the battle raged in the streets of Fleury where the French held their ground and stayed the advancing tide.

The Souville Fort still held, and until that had been reduced, the German passage of the Meuse would be hotly contested. The Crown Prince had promised his troops in July that the push for Verdun would continue, but the battle of the Somme was now raging further north, and the Crown Prince was forced to withdraw his reserves from the Verdun battle field to assist in the Somme operations.

Failing to dislodge the French at Souville he could not hope to reach Verdun. On the other hand, while the Germans held Douaumont, a renewal of the Verdun offensive might be expected at any time.

The French, in August, attacked the positions gained by the Germans at Fleury and Thiaumont, but were repulsed with heavy losses. So matters rested until the great French offensive began in September.

#### **German Losses 500,000, French 200,000**

THE Germans, so far in the Verdun campaign, had sacrificed 500,000 lives and their only recompense for this fearful loss was a paltry gain of a few miles of French territory on a 15-mile front. The French losses were estimated at 200,000. France had again saved civilization. Russia had been given time to recuperate from her disaster, and England had been able to bring 2,000,000 soldiers to the Western front.

#### **Recapture of Douaumont and Vaux**

THOUGH the German pressure against Verdun had relaxed in July, because of the transfer of men and guns to the Somme battle-field, nevertheless the Germans were able to hold Forts Douaumont and Vaux and seriously threaten Verdun.

The situation being intolerable to the French, early in September they began pre-

parations for a counter-offensive. Artillery of the heaviest type was concentrated about Verdun and there was also a great assemblage of aviation.

General Mangin, in command of the offensive, planned a threefold attack. One division was to advance on the town of Douaumont by way of the Hardamont Quarries. A second division, advancing from Froide Terre, was to take Fort Douaumont. A third division was to assault Vaux.

The triple attack was launched on October 24th, preceded by a concentrated artillery fire which crumpled up the enemy's trenches. Just before noon in the obscurity of a dense fog, the three divisions rapidly advanced towards their several objectives. Whole sections of the German first line were taken without resistance.

The ravines, especially those at Hardamont, were the scenes of savage fighting. A battalion of Senegalese, newly arrived from Africa, here encountered a terrific fire of musketry and machine guns. Wavering for a moment, the negro troops swept on again. Split in the Center by an enemy force, the Senegalese rushed ahead on either side, attacking on the first lines. Due to the heroic action of these brave colonials, the resistance of the Germans at Douaumont was broken.

Despite the desperate resistance of the Germans, Douaumont was taken in four hours, the victors traversing ground which it had taken the Brandenburgers six months to cross after an expenditure of hundreds of thousands of lives. This victory netted the French 6,000 prisoners and much booty, their losses being less than 3,000.

#### **End of Battle of Verdun**

THE assault on Vaux was less successful. The French advance was halted on the line of the old ditch, but with Douaumont in French possession the fate of Vaux was sealed.

The Germans held the fort until November 2d, then suddenly evacuating the position and retiring to the Woivre Plain. With the restoration of Vaux, the circle of Verdun defences was once more complete.

Eight months before the French had said: "They shall not pass." And the Germans



did not pass Verdun. Instead they had retired a defeated army, leaving half a million of their dead on the slopes round about Verdun.

### Final Dispersion of the Germans

THOUGH the Germans had withdrawn, their guns were still within range of the Verdun forts. It was necessary to drive them out of range. This the French did in a second and final counter-offensive, which opened on December 15th. In a few brief hours, four French divisions swept twice

their number of Germans out of the Meuse district to the north; clearing the interval between Douaumont and the Woivre and re-establishing the main defensive position beyond the circle of forts. At the same time they took 11,000 prisoners, together with 115 guns and much booty.

Of all the territory seized by them, the Germans retained only Dead Man's Hill and Hill 304. These were destined to fall in the following year.

Verdun had been redeemed by the valor of the French.

EASTERN THEATER. JAN. 8—APR. 28

## British Army at Kut-El-Amara Surrenders After 143 Days' Siege

Relief Army of 90,000 from India Fails to Unite with Gen. Townshend's Forces

SECTION 5—1916

British Garrison, 9,000

General Townshend

British Relief Army, 90,000

General Aylmer, Commander-in-Chief

General Younghusband

General Kemball

General Keary

General Gorringe

British Mesopotamian Army, 20,000

General Sir Percy Lake

General Brooking

General Sir John Nixon

Turkish Army, 200,000 (estimated)

General Khalil Pasha

General von der Goltz

FOR the first time in 140 years—or since the American Revolution—an English Army was forced to surrender, when the famished remnant of General Townshend's Mesopotamian Army on April 29, 1916, laid down their arms to the Turks at Kut-el-Amara after sustaining a siege of 143 days.

When General Townshend's Expeditionary Force started on its ill-fated campaign to Bagdad in October, 1915, it numbered less than 25,000 men. These had diminished gradually in several battles with the Turks, and when General Townshend finally took refuge in Kut-el-Amara, on the banks of the Tigris River, he had an effective force of about 9,000 men. The strength of the Turkish forces has been variously estimated up to 250,000. They were under the command of a German military instructor, General von der Goltz, assisted by General Khalil Pasha.

All efforts to bring relief to General Townshend had failed. One British Relief

Army, 90,000 strong, under the command of General Aylmer was being organized at Ali Gherbi. The First Division of the Army of Relief, commanded by General Younghusband, which had started for Kut-el-Amara on January 4, 1915, was advancing in two columns along both banks of the Tigris. The British Mesopotamian Army, commanded by General Sir Percy Lake, and numbering 20,000 men, also endeavored but without success to break through the Turkish ring and relieve the beleaguered British forces.

### Turkish Sorties Repulsed

GENERAL TOWNSHEND'S garrison, then well supplied with provisions and hoping for speedy relief, were busily engaged during the month of January, 1916, in repelling the frequent sorties of the Turks. The January floods, which compelled the retirement of the Turks from their intrenchments around the Kut to the higher ground a mile or two away, also worked to the advantage of the British garrison.



### Attempts to Reach Kut-el-Amara

THE British Mesopotamian Army, under command of General Sir Percy Lake, which had been operating near by, strove mightily to break through the Turkish ring and relieve the beleaguered garrison.

The Mesopotamian Army, advancing on February 22d along the right bank of the Tigris to Um-el-Arak, bombarded a Turkish stronghold at El-Henna across the river, stampeding the Turks. Two weeks later the army had pushed forward to Es-Sinn, seven miles from Kut-el-Amara, and assailed this Turkish stronghold. The Turks were driven from their first line trenches in the early assault, but recovered the position on the same day. General Lake then withdrew to his former position, 23 miles from Kut-el-Amara. On March 10th, a division of General Lake's army drove back a body of Turks that had occupied an advanced position on the Tigris. A period of stagnation now set in.

### The Indian Relief Army Advances

MEANWHILE, the British Relief Army from India, under command of General Aylmer, was fighting its way along the desert to the relief of Kut-el-Amara. On January 8th, this army defeated the Turks in two pitched battles at Sheikh Saad, and by January 22d had advanced to Umm-el-Hanna, where the Turks were strongly intrenched. The British bombarded the position, but the Turkish reply was so effective that the British withdrew with heavy losses. General Aylmer was then succeeded in command by General Gorringe.

The spring floods had now set in and the whole region was a sea of mud, rendering all military movements difficult. The British troops were obliged to bivouac, during a downpour of rain, in soaked and sodden ground, sinking ankle deep in mud. Any advance made must be over open country, affording no protection from shell fire, against elaborate trenches built for the Turks by German engineers under the direction of General von der Goltz.

### British Relief Army Repulsed at Dujailah

UNDISMAYED by the repulse at Umm-el-Hanna, General Gorringe decided to move

up the left bank of the Tigris and across the desert at night and launch a surprise attack on the Turkish position at the Dujailah redoubt, seven miles below the Kut. It was a risky enterprise, inasmuch as the British Army would be removed from its water supply and in event of a repulse would be in a position of grave danger. However, on March 7th, the plans were finally perfected. Gen. Kemball's division of infantry, covered by a cavalry brigade, was to attack the Dujailah redoubt from the south, while General Keary was to attack on the east side. The remainder of the army was held in reserve.

Unfortunately, General Kemball's division was delayed three hours in opening the attack, and for lack of co-ordination, the whole movement failed. The British, with heavy losses, thereupon fell back on Wadi.

### Relief Army Gives Up the Fight

OWING to the heavy floods, the English Army could not renew their operations until April 4th, when a second and successful assault was made upon Umm-el-Hanna. On April 8th, the British attacked Sanna-i-yat, but were repulsed. Turning to the fort of Beit-Aiessa, on April 17th, they captured that position after a heavy bombardment, holding it against several counter-attacks. A two days' assault on Sanna-i-yat followed, April 20-21st, resulting in a victory for the Turks. The Relief Army had fought day and night, for 18 consecutive days, on both banks of the Tigris; had advanced time and again to assault positions of great strength defended by superior forces; had contended against the obstacles of flood, heat, lack of water, and scarcity of food. Utterly exhausted from facing a foe that greatly outnumbered them, they were near to the end of their resources. They could not force the Turkish lines. Consequently, the garrison at Kut-el-Amara could hope for no aid from them.

### One Final Effort to Send Food to Kut

ONE last desperate effort to relieve the now famished and emaciated garrison at Kut was made on the night of April 24, 1916. A ship, laden with provisions, attempted to run the gauntlet of Turkish guns command-



ing the entire stretch of the Tigris between Sanna-i-yat and Kut-el-Amara, but it ran aground near Magasis. At the same time an attempt was made to send food by aeroplanes, but the Turkish anti-aircraft guns riddled the planes with shot, bringing them crashing to the ground.

### **Plight of the Garrison**

THE sufferings of the garrison, meanwhile, were intense. In the early stages of the siege, there was food in plenty for the 10,000 British and Hindu soldiers and the 20,000 civilians living in Kut. Arab traders sold stocks of jam, biscuits and canned fish at exorbitant prices. These supplies being soon exhausted, all were forced to depend upon the army commissariat. In February, the ration was a pound of barley-meal bread and a pound and a quarter of mule or horse flesh. In March, the ration was reduced to half a pound of bread and a pound of flesh. In April it was four ounces of bread and twelve ounces of mule flesh, which was the allowance operative at the time of the surrender. The food problem was made more difficult by the religious scruples of the Indian troops, who refused to eat horse and mule flesh, lest they should violate the rules of their caste. In this emergency the English troops were required to give most of their grain allowance to the Hindus.

Disease spread among the horses and hundreds were shot and buried. The diminished grain and horse food supply necessitated the shooting of 2,000 starved animals; the fattest of these carcasses sufficed to feed the garrison for 40 days. Stores of grain had been found secreted in several houses, but could not be used because of lack of a mill to grind it. This difficulty was overcome when British airplanes, in response to a wireless appeal, succeeded in dropping millstones inside the city. Scurvy, however, soon set in and many deaths resulted because the mule and horse meat was boiled in the dirty muddy water out of the Tigris without salt or seasoning.

Stray cats furnished many a "wild rabbit" supper; ginger root took the place of tea; a species of grass was cooked as vegetables and it gave a relish to the horse flesh. When the milk supplies ceased, the hospital diet

was confined to corn flour, or rice water for the sick. On April 22d, the last of the reserve rations had been issued; all the artillery, cavalry and transport horses, mules and donkeys had been consumed, save only five mules. From April 25th to April 29th, the garrison subsisted on slim supplies dropped by aeroplanes. The garrison and populace were by this time so attenuated as to resemble walking skeletons.

### **The Surrender of Kut-el-Amara**

ON April 29th, the 143rd day of the siege, after destroying his guns, munitions and wireless equipment, General Townshend hoisted the white flag of surrender. The surrendered army was composed of 2970 British and 6,000 Hindu troops. The Turks agreed to supply their captives with food sent up the Tigris from the English base. It was also arranged that wounded prisoners should be exchanged and this was done. No reprisals were attempted on the civilian population. The prisoners were removed without delay to Bagdad and from there to Constantinople. Very few of the prisoners of war survived the treatment they received at the hands of the Turks in Constantinople.

### **British Relief Army Defeats the Turks**

FOR a month after the surrender of Kut-el-Amara, quiet reigned along the Mesopotamian battle front. On May 19th, activities were renewed, when the Turks vacated their position on the south bank of the Tigris at Beit Eissa.

General Gorrings's Indian Relief Army at once advanced and attacked the Turks at Es-Sinn, driving them out of the strongly fortified position known as the Dujailah Redoubt. They were assisted in this operation by a force of Cossack cavalry, which had ridden 200 miles over mountains 8,000 feet high from their base in Kermanshah, Persia, to join the British.

Having cleared the south bank of the Tigris of Turks for a distance of ten miles, the British now shelled the Turkish positions on the north bank of the river, but failed to dislodge them. On June 10th, the Turks sank three British barges on the Tigris. The extreme heat prevented any further operations in this theater of war from May to July.



EASTERN THEATER, MAY 26—DEC. 30

**Allies Reconquer Macedonia and Occupy City of Monastir****Bulgarian-German-Austrian Forces Defeated — Revolution in Greece Results from King Constantine's Treachery — Allies Seize Greek Navy**

SECTION 6—1916

**Salonika Army, 700,000**

Gen. Sarrail, Commander

**French Land and Naval Forces**

Gen. Cordonnier

Gen. Guillemat

Admiral du Fournier

**Serbian Force, 100,000**

Gen. Mishitch

**British Force**

Gen. G. F. Milne

**Roumanian Force**

Gen. Averescu

**Italian Division****Russian Corps****German-Bulgarian-Greek Forces, 800,000**

Bulgarian Army—Gen. Boyadjieff

Austro-German Army—Gen. von Staabe

Greek Army—Gen. Kovakes

**T**HE situation in the Balkans, during the early months of 1916, was of such gravity as to fill the Allies with deep concern. Though nominally neutral, Greece nevertheless had been secretly aiding the Germans. King Constantine, the brother-in-law of the Kaiser, had winked at all evasions of Greek sovereignty attempted by the Bulgarians and the Austrians. When his Prime Minister, Venizelos, protested against these treacherous acts, the King had caused his removal. A new cabinet, headed by M. Daimos, had been chosen to fill the interior until the general elections were held in August.

Following the conquest of Serbia in 1915, the Bulgarians had driven the Salonika Army, commanded by General Sarrail, back across the Greek border to its base. Greece being then at peace with Bulgaria, the Bulgarian Army had not crossed the frontier in pursuit of Sarrail. At Salonika, General Sarrail had established himself in a strong position with a wide circle of intrenchments. But on the sea side, he was menaced by the forts at the entrance to the harbor. On January 28, 1916, Sarrail had seized these forts and driven the consular agents of the enemy powers out of Greece.

**German Bomb Raid Angers Greeks**

GERMAN activities began at Salonika on March 27, 1916, when a squadron of Greek

aeroplanes dropped bombs upon the British and French warships in the harbor. Four of these aeroplanes subsequently were disabled by the fire of the Allied guns. Many of the bombs fell in the city of Salonika, killing 80 civilians.

This raid naturally aroused deep resentment against Germany among the populace. The Chamber of Deputies considered the question of declaring martial law, but Premier Skouloudis discouraged all hostile criticism of Germany on the ground that "the higher interests of Greece impose silence." Nevertheless, the raid was characterized as an act of "simple assassination" and "German frightfulness." Attempts to hold mass meetings were prohibited, but at the funeral of the victims of the raid the populace cried, "Down with the barbarians!" and "Down with Germany!"

**Bulgarians Invade Greece and Seize Fort Rupel**

WILD excitement was caused among the Greeks on May 26th, when it became known that their hated enemies, the Bulgarians, had invaded Greek territory and seized Fort Rupel, six miles across the border, compelling the garrison to evacuate. On the following day the Bulgarians occupied Fort Dragotin, and Fort Kanivo.

The Bulgarians pretended that this was only a temporary occupation of the forts, necessary to their protection from an im-



pending advance of the Allies out of Salonika. It developed later, however, that the surrender of the forts was due to the direct command of King Constantine, who had received a bribe from Germany in the form of a "loan" of \$15,000,000.

Emboldened by their success, the Bulgarians pushed further south, occupying all of the Kavala—Drama district, all of the Greek territory east of the German line and finally seized the Adrianople—Salonika Railway which enabled them to transport their troops and supplies with greater facility.

### **Allies Compel Greek Army to Demobilize**

DECIDING to teach the Greek King a lesson, the Allies on June 8th served notice on Constantine that a commercial blockade of Greek ports would be established. This action provoked hostile demonstrations in front of the Allied legation buildings. On June 23d, the Allies made these several demands: The complete demobilization of the Greek Army; the appointment of a new ministry devoid of any political prejudice; the immediate dissolution of the Chamber of Deputies, to be followed by fresh elections; and the dismissal of certain police officials who had connived in the assaults upon the legations.

King Constantine, returning hastily to Athens, ordered the troops under arms and summoned the Chamber of Deputies. The resignation of Premier Skouloudis was accepted and Alexander Zaimis was named as his successor with power to choose a new cabinet. The obnoxious chief of police was immediately removed and it was promised that all the demands of the Allies should be carried out. Thereupon the blockade was raised and the Allies agreed to advance Greece a loan to tide her over her financial difficulties.

### **Salonika Army Now Numbers 750,000**

GENERAL SARRAIL'S army at Salonika had been rapidly expanding until in August, 1916, it numbered 750,000 men. These forces included 350,000 French and English, 100,000 Serbians who had been transferred from the Island of Cyprus; 80,000 Russians, a large body of Italians and representatives of all other Allied nations excepting the Japanese.

The Bulgarian Army at this time was 300,000 strong.

### **Bulgarians Capture Kavala in Macedonia**

ANTICIPATING an advance by General Sarrail's army, the Bulgarian forces on August 17th moved south from Monastir; crossed the frontier of Eastern Macedonia, where the treacherous Greek guards gave them right of way; forced the Serbian defenders of Macedonia back as far as Ostrova Lake, and surrounded Fort Kavala, which was defended by the Fourth Greek Army Corps. More Greek treachery was here disclosed, for the larger part of the garrison surrendered to the Bulgarians without firing a shot. A considerable number of the loyal Greek soldiers, however, escaped to Theos. This movement of the Bulgarians disconcerted the plans of Gen. Sarrail, whose advance was now threatened from three directions, rendering impossible the use of his army in mass.

### **Greeks Rise in Revolutions**

THE treachery of King Constantine, in permitting the Bulgarians to invade Greek territory without opposition, still further inflamed the public indignation. Revolutions broke out in Macedonia and Crete among the loyal Greeks. In Macedonia, a provisional government was organized with Col. Zimorakakis at its head, receiving the support of the Greek garrisons at Voden, Port Karaburun and Salonika.

In Crete also a provisional government was formed and a committee was sent to Salonika to tender the allegiance of the Cretans to Gen. Sarrail. The Revolutionists organized an army with M. Venizelos, the former Premier, as their leader.

This revolution so frightened the King that he hastened to make overtures to the Allies. Premier Zaimis urged the Allies to state the reward Greece might expect should she enter the War on their side, but he was informed that Greece must waive the question of compensation for the present.

On October 9th, President Venizelos arrived at Salonika and assumed direction of the new Revolutionary Government, which had meanwhile been officially recognized by the Allied Governments. The new Greek



Government thereupon declared war upon the Germanic Allies and began to enlist troops for a campaign against the Bulgars. King Constantine, however, still ruled over Athens and indeed over all the mainland of Greece outside Salonika.

### Allied Advance Against the Bulgarians

THE Allied campaign in the Balkans against the united forces of Bulgarians, Austrians and Germans, was finally begun in September, after the Bulgarians had overrun Eastern Macedonia. Gen. Sarraïl had detached a group of armies from his forces at Salonika, consisting chiefly of Serbs, French, English and Russians, to advance northward against Monastir in Macedonia. Co-operating with this force, was an Italian Army in Albania, approaching Macedonia from the west. An energetic offensive was begun along the entire front on Sept. 11th.

The Serbian Army, 100,000 strong, led by Gen. Mishitch, stormed the heights near Lake Ostrova, driving the Bulgarian's left wing back to the rocky hills behind Binitza. It took a week of intense fighting to dislodge the Bulgars from this strong position, but in the end the Bulgarians were routed, the Serbians pursuing them nine miles and capturing many prisoners and guns. The Bulgars made their next stand on the banks of the Cerna, but were quickly pushed back along the ridges forming the eastern side of the Monastir Valley.

Meanwhile, the British forces, under Gen. G. F. Milne, had crossed to the east bank of the Struma, pushing the Bulgars before them. The French, under Generals Guillemat and Cordonnieu, had hammered the enemy west of Lake Doiran as far as the Vardar, taking the first line of Bulgarian trenches. In the West, the Russian columns had shoved the Bulgars back upon the crags and precipices near Kastoria. The Italian Army, operating in Albania against the Austrians, had driven the foe out of Tepeleni and other villages on the border. A regiment of Greek volunteers, commanded by Lieut.-Col. Gravannis, assisted in the capture of the town of Florina. The net was closing in gradually on Monastir.

By the middle of October, the British were hammering at the Seres fortress, the Serbians had taken Velyselo and Baldentsi, and the Italians had entered Macedonia from the west and were soon to establish a connection with the Russian left wing operating in Kastoria.

### Allies Seize the Greek Fleet

MEANWHILE, King Constantine had been concentrating his pro-German Army in the interior near Larissa and the Allies resolved to clip his wings. On October 11th, Admiral du Fournier was sent to Athens to demand the surrender of the entire Greek Fleet, excepting two battleships and one cruiser. These demands being complied with, he further ordered the dismantling of all the shore batteries and the transfer to Allied control of the railroad connecting Larissa with the seaport of Piraeus.

So unpopular was this proceeding that street riots resulted in which the police participated. Admiral du Fournier thereupon landed a large force of French Marines with machine guns and took command of the Greek police force throughout the Kingdom. This summary action brought King Constantine to his senses, and he ceased, for a time, his pro-German activities.

### Monastir Recaptured by the Allies

IN Macedonia, so rapid had been the advance of the Russians in the West, that the Bulgarians were forced to abandon their entire line of frontier defences centered on Kenali, retreating across the Viro and Bistritza Rivers toward Monastir.

Hot in pursuit, the Russians by November 16th were within four miles of the city. The Serbians, meanwhile, were swinging rapidly around to the northeast of Monastir, taking many prisoners. The Italians, too, had invested Monastir on the west side. The French were advancing toward the north, threatening the Bulgarian line of retreat.

Fearing the loss of their entire Army, the Bulgarians and Germans evacuated Monastir on the night of November 18th, retreating northward, and the city was occupied the next day by the Serbians, on the anniversary of their expulsion from the city in 1915. The Bulgarians, during their retreat



from Monastir, were harassed by the Serbians, losing many thousands in killed and wounded.

Meanwhile, on the right of the Allied line, between Vardar and Doiran, the Bulgarians had shown strong resistance. With the capture of Monastir the Serbian campaign closed so far as military results were concerned and a deadlock ensued on the Macedonian front.

### **Greek Against Greek**

THE first clash between the Greek Revolutionists and Royalists occurred on November 2, 1916, when a body of Revolutionists marched overland to Katerina, some 25 miles northeast of Larissa, where a garrison of Royalist troops were stationed. In a brief encounter, the Revolutionists ousted the Royalists and occupied the city. King Constantine thereupon decreed that any Royalists who chose to do so might join the forces of the Revolutionists.

### **Fighting In Streets of Athens**

THE Germans, on taking over the forts in Macedonia, had confiscated 350 cannons, 60,000 rifles, and \$20,000,000 worth of ammunition. The Allies thought it time to remove all further temptation out of the reach of Germany.

Accordingly, on November 18th, Admiral du Fournier was instructed to notify King Constantine that the "Equilibrium of War" had been disturbed by Germany's seizure of so much war material and that Greece would be required to surrender all arms, munitions and artillery to the Allies before December 1, 1916.

The King having withheld his consent to any surrender of arms, a transport contain-

ing French troops appeared off Athens and preparations were made to land them.

The Royalist Government in the city at once expelled the French officers in charge of the telegraphs and post office, taking possession of them.

Admiral du Fournier made formal demand for the delivery of the first installment of war material; the reply was a definite refusal. Whereupon, Allied troops and marines were landed from the ships into the harbor.

As the troops marched into Athens they were fired upon by a mob of Greeks, 47 Allies being killed. Returning the fire, the Allies killed 29 Greeks. On the following day the landing party returned to the ships, while the Greek soldiers began intrenching on the heights overlooking Athens. During the melee, the Allied warships fired 38 shells into the city, some of which seemed aimed at the Royal Palace.

Meanwhile, the Revolutionary troops had declared war on Germany and Bulgaria. All the citizens of the Allied nations had left Athens and taken refuge in Piraeus. The Greek ministers at London and Paris had resigned, saying they could no longer identify themselves with the Royalist Government of Greece. The diplomatic representatives of the United States, Holland, and Spain protested against the treatment accorded the Revolutionaries, Gen. Korakas and Major Benakas of Athens having been arrested on charges of inciting guerilla warfare.

Following conferences between the King, the Greek Government and the Allies, it was announced on December 16th, that Greece had accepted unreservedly the conditions of the Allies with reference to the surrender of arms.

EASTERN THEATER, MAR. 1—DEC. 31

## Russia Defeats Combined Armies of Germany and Austria

All of Bukowina and the Greater Part of Galicia Recaptured  
Owing to Failure of Ammunition Supplies, Victory Comes to Naught

SECTION 7, 1916

### Russian Forces, 2,000,000

Gen. Alexeieff, Chief of Staff

#### Northern Army Group

Gen. Kuropatkin, Commander  
Gen. Plehve

#### Central Army Group

Gen. Ewerts, Commander

#### Southern Army Group

Gen. Brusiloff, Commander  
Volhynian Army—Gen. Kaledin  
Galician Army—Gen. Sakharoff  
Bukowina Army—Gen. Lechitzky  
Independent Army—Gen. Lesh

### Austro-German Forces, 2,000,000

Field Marshal Hindenberg, Commander

#### Northern Group (German)

Gen. von Scholz  
Gen. von Eichhorn  
Gen. von Fabeck  
Gen. von Woyrsch

#### Central Group (German)

Prince Leopold of Bavaria, Commander

#### Southern Group (Austrian)

Archduke Joseph Ferdinand, Commander  
Volhynian Army—Gen. Linsengen  
Galician Army—Gen. von Bothmer  
Bukowina Army—Gen. Pflanzer

#### Turkish Divisions

THE Russian Armies, though staggered by the loss of a million men during their headlong retreat from Warsaw in the closing weeks of 1915, still possessed the essential power of recuperation. As the spring of 1916 approached, so rapid was their recovery, they were able to reorganize on the Dvina line, seize the initiative anew and launch a powerful offensive against the combined Armies of Germany and Austria.

In a whirlwind campaign, after rupturing the Austrian line on a wide front, the Russians dispersed two great Austrian Armies, reconquered all of Bukowina and the greater part of Galicia, and forced the Teutonic Armies to retreat 50 miles behind their frontiers.

In Transcaucasia the Russians were equally successful. Armenia was freed from Turkish dominion and the victorious armies of Grand Duke Nicholas then turned southward with Constantinople as their goal. Once again Germany and her allies were threatened with disaster and once again they were saved from annihilation through the evil machinations of the pro-German conspirators at the Russian court who so contrived that the necessary arms and munitions were withheld from the Russian Armies. Let us now examine in detail the Russian operations during the crucial year of 1916.

### Eastern Front Reorganized

UNDER the direction of Gen. Alexeieff, Chief of Staff, the 720-mile battle line was reorganized in January, 1916, the Czar's armies being divided into three groups. In the Northern sector, from Riga south to Dvinsk, the command was vested in Gen. Kuropatkin, the old Commander-in-Chief in the Russo-Japanese War. In the middle sector, between Dvinsk and the Pripet marshes, the army group was directed by Gen. Ewerts. In the Southern sector, from the Pripet to the Dniester, Gen. Brusiloff was in supreme command, with Gen. Kaledin directing the Volhynian Army, Gen. Sakharoff the Galician Army, Gen. Lechitzky the Bukowina Army and Gen. Lesh an Independent Army, facing the Bukowina border. At this time the fighting strength of the Russian Armies did not exceed 1,500,000 rifles, but by early summer there were some 2,000,000 Russian soldiers on the battle front.

The Austro-German forces were similarly divided into three main groups. Gen. Hindenberg directed the Northern group, Prince Leopold of Bavaria the Central group, and Archduke Joseph Ferdinand of Austria the Southern group. The Teutonic Armies, at the dawn of 1916, had a combined strength of 1,200,000 men, which was increased to 2,000,000 as the summer advanced. Thus,



from first to last, 4,000,000 men were engaged on this front in 1916.

### **Prelude to the Great Russian Offensive**

THE campaign on the Eastern front had two general phases—first, the assault on the German line, from Riga to the Pripet River, in March, and second, the crushing attack on the Austrian line from the Pripet Marshes to Cernowitz, beginning in June.

The March offensive was launched by the Russian Armies in the generous hope of succoring the French troops engaged in the defense of Verdun. By assaulting the German line in the East, it was expected the enemy would be compelled to relax their pressure on Verdun and perhaps transfer several army corps eastward to meet the Russian menace. Due to the unpreparedness of the Russian Armies and their fatal lack of ammunition, the March offensive proved a colossal failure.

Gen. Kuropatkin on March 2d, began his campaign in the region between Lake Driswiaty and Lake Narosch by feeling out the strength and disposition of the enemy. Frequent collisions took place between the opposing armies during the ensuing two weeks, but no battle of consequence was fought. On March 18th, Gen. Kuropatkin endeavored to fracture the German line in the sector south of Dvinsk, using his limited ammunition supplies in one supreme artillery preparation. All that day and far into the night the drum-fire of the Russian guns persisted, but at last the artillery fire ceased and the infantry were ordered to advance.

The losses of the Russians, in the infantry attacks which followed, were fearful, being estimated at 80,000 men on a front of 90 miles. Still, without cessation, the Russian attacks continued day by day, fresh troops being brought up constantly. Eight distinct attacks, during the next four weeks, carried the Russian line forward a mile, but at a terrible cost in men.

When the spring thaws set in, the Germans, along the entire Northern front, possessed the advantage of higher ground. The Russians, knowing that their own trenches would soon overflow, redoubled their efforts to force the Germans back. Russian artil-

lery carried death and destruction into the German trenches along the whole front, and many sectors of trench were taken.

Successive Russian waves swept on over the heaped corpses, over the barbed-wire barriers before the German line, over the first trenches, and full upon the German soldiers, crouching half frozen in the mud of their shattered shelters. Terrible hand to hand conflicts followed. Hand grenades tore down scores of attacks. The combatants fought like madmen, with spades, bayonets, knives and clubbed guns. The Russians gained ground, but at a fearful price for so slight a gain.

Having reached the first line German trenches, the Russians seemed helpless. Instead of sweeping on toward the second line, they tried to intrench themselves in the weakened first line. The German artillery fired shells of the heaviest caliber into these trenches, ripping the Russian invaders into fragments. The Russians in this ill-fated campaign lost 140,000 in killed and wounded.

### **A Lull on the Austrian Front**

MEANWHILE, the Russians had begun a limited offensive on the Austrian front, which slowed down by the end of March because of the river floods which inundated their trenches and the surrounding regions. The Austrians at once started local offensives at points along the line, most of which were repulsed. Artillery duels were of daily occurrence, and skirmishes between outposts, but attacks in force were rare.

Resuming their offensive in April, the Russians were able to advance their positions along the Austrian front; then came a lull, due to muddy roads, until, on the last day of April, the Austrians in turn started a strong offensive north of Mouravitsky in Volhynia which gained some ground. The Russians, in a counter attack, recovered the ground and captured many prisoners.

From now on until the first of June, the operations along the Austrian front, though savagely fought, were of minor importance.

Meanwhile, General Brusiloff had succeeded General Ivanoff as Russian group commander in the Austrian theater of war, and with him were associated the armies of

Generals Kaledin, Scherbacheff and Lechitsky.

### **The Great Russian Offensive Opens**

THE battles of the past three months had been merely the prelude to the real Russian offensive which began June 2d, with a terrific artillery fire along the entire Southern front from the Pripet to the Pruth, followed by a general infantry attack along the 300-mile front. Immense masses of men were hurled against the strongly fortified Austrian lines at every important point. So overwhelming was this onrush that it swept the Austrians out of their trenches. In one day, 40,000 Austrians were captured, with 27 cannon and 50 machine guns.

### **Russians Capture Lutsk Fortress**

ADVANCING in swift successive waves, the Russians pressed back the Austrian Army of Archduke Joseph, twenty miles to the plain of Lutsk, taking nearly 50,000 prisoners, 77 cannon, 134 machine guns and 49 trench mortars, together with great reserves of ammunition.

On June 7th, the Russian artillery blast swept away 19 rows of wire entanglements, making a breach in the enemy's position near the village of Podganzy, where 3,000 prisoners were taken.

Simultaneously, another Russian force, advancing on the Lutsk fortress along the line of the Dubno River, stormed the trenches of the village of Krupov, taking thousands of prisoners. The fortress itself was surrendered the same day with 11,000 men and many guns. The Austrians were now in panic flight. Field Marshal Ludendorf hastened to the scene of disaster, bringing reinforcements from Verdun.

Continuing his pursuit of Archduke Joseph's army, General Brusiloff crossed the river Styr the next day, and in one sector alone, so precipitate was the Austrian flight, he captured two supply trains, 29 field kitchens, 193 tons of barbed wire, 1,000 concrete girders, 7,000,000 tubes, and a great quantity of arms. Another sector yielded him 30,000 rounds of rifle ammunition, 1,000 rifles, and four machine guns.

Northwest of Tarnopol, in Galicia, the Russians seized the adjacent heights and 6,000

prisoners, while a division of raw Russian troops, just arrived on the line, forced the bridgehead near Rozhishchwa, thirteen miles beyond Lutsk, taking 3,000 prisoners and several heavy guns.

### **Russians Advance 50 Miles, Take 120,000 Prisoners**

THE offensive along the Dniester was also successful. Advancing 12 miles, the Russians captured the villages of Potok Zloty and Scinka, seizing a large artillery park and many shells.

On June 10th, the seventh day of the great offensive, the Russians' flood had swept forward 50 miles, had captured one general, 1,700 officers and 120,000 soldiers, besides 124 guns of heavy caliber, 180 machine guns and 58 trench mortars. The remnant of Archduke Joseph's army was fleeing westward toward Kovel.

### **Dubno Is Captured**

JUNE 10th also saw the capture of the Austrian fortress city of Dubno which gave Russia possession of the Volhynian triangle of fortresses, consisting of Lutsk, Dubno and Kovno. Still in pursuit, the Russians crossed the Ikva and pushed 25 miles westward, compelling the surrender of the garrison at Mlynov. Thus in Volhynia the Russians in one week had pushed the Austrians back nearly 50 miles.

### **Austrian Defeats in Bukowina**

FURTHER south, in Bukowina, General Lechitsky's army had pushed the Austrian army back, and advanced to within 14 miles of Czernowitz. In the teeth of a furious flanking fire, and despite the explosion of numberless Austrian mines, the Russians captured the Austrian positions south of Dobronowce, 14 miles northeast of Czernowitz, taking 20,000 prisoners and ten guns. On June 12th, Lechitsky's army crossed the Dniester, captured many fortified points, including Zaleszczyky and Jorodenka, 35 miles northwest of Czernowitz.

Brusiloff, on the same day, had occupied Torchin, while on the Pruth sector, the Russian troops had approached the bridge head of Czernowitz. At only one point were the Austrians able to hold their line—near Kolki



in Northern Volhynia, south of the Styry River, where they had repulsed the Russian attacks.

### **Lemberg and Czernowitz Threatened**

BOTH Lemberg and Czernowitz, the capitals of Galicia and Bukowina, were now threatened. The Russians had overrun all of Southern Volhynia, advancing 45 miles on the ninth day of their offensive. The precipitous banks of the Dniester, which had been converted into a seemingly impregnable stronghold, proved no obstacle to General Lechitsky's gallant army. In the first few days of the Russian offensive, he had taken one of the principal positions between Okna and Dobronowce, southeast of Zaleszcyky.

General Brusiloff's operations on the flanks of Gen. Linsengen's Austro-German Army were proceeding with wonderful rapidity. All the efforts of German reinforcements, sent south by General Hindenberg, had failed to drive in a counterwedge at Kolki, Rozhishshe and Targowica. The Russian Eighth Army, having advanced 40 miles into the enemy's territory, were now in a position to assist the Russian thrust beyond Tarnopol and co-operate in the proposed advance on Lemberg.

On June 13th, the Russian advance continued along the entire 250 mile front from the Pripet to Roumania. The Austrians offered stiff resistance at the village of Zarurski and on the heights of Gaivivonka, but could not stay the advance. Pushing on to within 10 miles of the Galician border, the Russians took Kozin by storm. In Bukowina, the town of Sniatin, 20 miles from Czernowitz, was captured, putting the defenders of that capital in a perilous position. General Pflanzer-Ballin's army was routed and almost destroyed.

### **Czernowitz is Taken**

CZERNOWITZ, the capital of Bukowina, fell on June 16th, after a six days' assault. Shells fell incessantly, day after day, causing a terrible panic among the inhabitants, mostly Jews, Ruthenes, and Poles. The final artillery attack was terrific. "It resembled a thousand volcanoes belching fire," wrote one German journalist. The Austrian guns replied with equal intensity. The Russians

advanced in 16 waves and were mowed down. Russian columns were continually pushing back from the Pruth beyond Sudagora. Hundreds were drowned in the River Pruth. At last, numbers prevailed and the Russians occupied the town, but not until the Austrian Army had safely withdrawn. Only a rearguard of 1,000 Austrians was captured.

In an endeavor to weaken the Russian attack on the Austrian line General von Hindenberg, on June 16th, began an offensive on the north, from Dvinsk to Kovno, along a 150-mile front. The attack, while yielding some minor advantages, failed in its chief purpose. In order to strengthen his line, Hindenberg had been compelled to transfer several divisions from the Somme battlefield.

More successful was the combined German and Austrian attack on the center of General Brusiloff's front, west of Kovel. The Russian Center was halted and 3,500 prisoners were taken.

### **1,000 Wagonloads of Food Captured in Bukowina**

GENERAL LECHITSKY's army, after the capture of Czernowitz, crossed the River Pruth in pursuit of General Planzer-Ballin's shattered forces. In several rearguard engagements, 2000 Austrian prisoners were taken, and more important still, 1,000 wagonloads of provisions and forage fell into the hands of the Russians.

Large quantities of engineering material, left behind at railroad stations, also were seized by the Russians. The Russian advance in Bukowina progressed rapidly. On June 21st, the city of Radautz, controlling an important railway, was captured. On the next day, three more railway junctions were seized.

### **Russians Control All Bukowina**

IN a furious battle, fought at night, the town of Kimpolung was taken by the Russians on June 23d, together with 3,000 prisoners, and loaded trains found in the railway station. The towns of Kivty and Viznic were next seized, and with their capture all Bukowina was now in the possession of the Russians. The retirement of the Austrians had been so hurried that they abandoned

2,500 tons of coal and great reserves of fodder and structural material.

### **Russians Take 250,000 Prisoners in One Month**

GENERAL LECHITSKY, still advancing, captured Kolomea on June 29th, after a furious battle of four days' duration, taking 15,000 prisoners. This victory not only endangered the remnant of Gen. Pflanzer's army, but menaced the army of Gen. Bothmer on the Volhynian front to the north. Two days later, in his advance on Stanislaw, he stormed some strong Austrian positions, taking 2,000 prisoners. Advancing into Southern Galicia, one column of Lechitsky's army occupied the railway junction at Delatyn and seized many depots of war material abandoned by the Austrians. On July 9th, while heading for the passes of the Carpathians, Lechitsky's forces meanwhile had driven the Germans before him.

In Galicia the Russian forces meanwhile had driven the Germans across the Dniester and were advancing toward Lemberg, taking thousands of prisoners and many guns. On July 30th, they were close to Stanislaw.

At many points along the Northern front, the Russians battered Hindenberg's line, the Germans being ejected from Niki with big losses.

From June 4th to June 30th, the Russians had taken 250,000 prisoners in all sectors of the battle line.

### **Russian Advance Checked**

Two Austrian armies—those of Archduke Joseph and of General Pflanzer-Ballin—had been routed with huge losses. In mid-June, General Lechitsky's Russian Army was threatening Lemberg from the south, while General Sakharoff's army was approaching from the north by way of Brody. The Austrian Center, under Generals Bothmer and Boehm-Ermolli, still held fast, but their flanks were threatened and the situation was serious. If the Russian Army of Gen. Kaledin succeeded in reaching Kovel, he could drive a wedge in the Teutonic line at the point where the Austrian and German fronts joined.

General von Hindenberg quickly detached several divisions from his forces on the

Prussian front, sending them under General Linsengen to the aid of the Austrians. At once the situation changed. The Russian advance toward Kovel was retarded and the danger of a breach in the German line, compelling a general retirement from Poland, was for the time being eliminated.

### **The Battle of the Stokhod River**

THE Russians, in other sectors, were more successful. During July they had regained 15,000 square miles in Volhynia, Galicia and the Bukowina. They had taken the cities of Lutsk, Dubno and Czernowitz.

The Austro-German Armies had made a stand on the bank of the Stokhod River, extending 100 miles from Lutsk to the Pripet River, of which it is a tributary. At a salient in this line, near Kovel, furious fighting was in progress early in August. The artillery fire was simply a continuous roar like thunder. At night the whole sky was illuminated by bursting shells, searchlights and star-bombs. The fortunes of battle were first with the Germans, then with the Russians, but in the end the Russians were driven back after a week of fighting. The advance toward Lemberg had failed.

### **The Failure to Reach Lemberg**

UNDAUNTED by this reverse, the Russians made another thrust at Lemberg from the east early in September. The attacks were especially violent in the vicinity of Halicz. Here the Austrian line had been greatly strengthened. Seven new divisions, including three of Turkish troops fresh from Gallipoli, had been added to the original seven divisions. As the battle developed, the most sanguinary and desperate fighting which war-swept Galicia had experienced, took place, especially in the sector between the Zlota Lipa and Dniester Rivers. The Russians repeatedly stormed the strongly fortified Austro-German lines, but the resistance was so stubborn that very little advance was made. Nevertheless, before September 16th, the Russians had taken 25,000 prisoners and 22 guns.

After a brief lull in the fighting, the battle for Lemberg was again in full swing on October 1st, all along the line from Brody to the Dniester. The Russians assaulted



with great violence day after day, but made no conspicuous progress. Late in October, in a counter offensive, the Austrians wrested complete control of the west bank of the Narayuka from the Russians. During the next six weeks, the Czar's troops tried to recover the lost positions, but December 1st found the way to Lemberg still barred to them. The Russian offensive had worn itself out.

### The Drive on Kovel Fails

FARTHER north, the Russian drive against Kovel had resulted in appalling losses to the Czar's troops during September. The Russians threw themselves recklessly against the Austro-German line, but wave upon wave they were annihilated. On September 6th, the Russians attacked on a twelve-mile front west of Lutsk, but could not bend the Austrian line. Again on October 2d, they tried to batter their way through to Kovel, making no less than 17 attacks on one point of the line, but without material gains. The assaults gradually slowed down during November, the Austrians holding their positions firmly.

### Fighting in the Carpathians

WHILE the thrusts against Lemberg and Kovel were in progress, the Austrians launched a violent offensive along the entire

Carpathian front of 75 miles; from the Jablonica Pass down to the Roumanian border, but with only minor gains. South of Dorna Vatia the Russians were thrown back across the Negra Valley, but in October they regained some of the ground lost.

All through November and December engagements were fought at various points along the Carpathian Hills just north of the Roumanian border, but without effecting the general situation.

### Russia's Offensive Ends

THE Russian offensive had spent itself. The Czar's troops had achieved a colossal victory in the early weeks of the offensive, taking 300,000 prisoners, 20,000 square miles of territory and an immense booty. By pressing the united Austrian and German forces in the Eastern theater of war, the Russians had compelled the withdrawal of enemy corps from Verdun, the Somme, Gallipoli, and Italy. In this way Russia had aided if not saved the Allies. But she had done it at a great sacrifice. So prodigal was Russia's expenditure of man-power that her casualties must have exceeded 500,000. It was Russia's swan song, for the forces of anarchy were now undermining the pillars of state, and the Czar's mighty empire was destined soon to fall in irrevocable ruin.

WESTERN THEATER, MAR. 15—NOV. 1

## Austrians Force Their Way Into Italy, but are Driven Back

The Italians' Spectacular Advance Toward Trieste, Taking Gorizia

SECTION 8, 1916

Italian Army, 500,000

Gen. Cadorna  
Gen. Pecori-Giraldi  
Duke of Aosta

Austrian Army, 600,000

Archduke Charles of Austria  
Field Marshal von Hoetzendorff  
Gen. Dankl  
Gen. Koevess  
Gen. Boroovic von Bojna  
Gen. von Rohr

DEEMING herself finally delivered from the Russian peril, Austria was free to bestow her full attention on the Italian front early in 1916. An army of not less than 600,000 picked troops was assembled on the Alpine frontier with 2,000 huge cannon, ready to batter its way through the Italian defenses. The task of

crushing Italy was assigned to Archduke Charles Joseph Ferdinand of Austria, assisted by Field Marshal von Hoetzendorff.

The Austrians hoped to forestall the expected Italian assault on Gorizia, then being planned, by an attack on Trentino. Concentrating their artillery fire on the front between the Adige and Brenta, they hoped to

push through to the Venetian Plain, capture Verona and Vicenza, and then, by threatening the Italian flank, compel a general retreat of all the Italian forces operating along the line of the Isonzo River.

From late February until the middle of March, there was a succession of floods and snowfalls, with their resultant avalanches and landslides, rendering military operations difficult. So sudden and resistless were these avalanches that they swept away whole regiments of men and great sources of supplies.

The Austrians assisted nature in this destructive work by producing artificial avalanches on the steep mountain slopes by means of mines, bombs and artillery fire.

### The Austrian Advance Begins

ABOUT the middle of March, the Austrians began to develop their offensive. With 2,000 guns available, the artillery fire intensified along the entire front. The Austrians advanced west of the St. Maria Mountain in the Tolmino sector, taking many prisoners. In the Doberdo and Ploeken sectors, and along the Gonby bridgehead, the Austrian guns thundered incessantly for a week from March 26th to April 1st. Many minor positions were taken by both armies.

Early in April General Brusati of the Italian Army was deposed, and his command given to General Pecori-Giraldi.

For six weeks, from April 6th to May 15th, many violent engagements took place on the Doberdo Plateau and along the whole Isonzo front, without affecting the general situation. The Italians, on April 11th, carried with the bayonet a strong line of redoubts along the southern slopes of Monte Pari Cimadore and the crags of Monte Speron.

A part of these trenches were recovered by the Austrians in a counter assault on the following day, only to be retaken that same evening by the Italians in a hand-to-hand struggle.

On April 11th, while a blizzard was raging, an Italian force attacked and carried the Austrian positions on the rocky crags of the Lobbia Alta, 1918 feet high, taking several prisoners and one gun.

### A Mountain Blown Away

ONE of the most spectacular episodes of the battle occurred on the night of April 18th. The Italians had occupied Col di Lana Mountain, 4,815 feet high, but failed to drive the Austrians from its western peak, where a battalion of sharpshooters with field and machine guns were strongly intrenched, protected by the Austrian artillery on the adjacent Mount Sief.

The Italians solved the problem of ejecting the Austrians by mining the entire western margin of Col di Lana with tons of high explosives. The resultant explosion shook the earth like a mighty earthquake, blowing the mountain peak to atoms and destroying the 1,000 Austrians who occupied the trenches on the peak.

### Terrific Battles in Adige Sector

THE Italian counter-offensive had been so successful that by May 15th Cadorna's troops were less than 12 miles south of Trent and seriously threatening that city, but now they were to taste the bitterness of defeat.

No less than 400,000 Austrians were thrown into the narrow sector of 25 miles between the Adige and the Val Sugana. More than 2,000 guns suddenly rained projectiles of all calibers upon the Italian position. A bombardment of incredible violence ensued. Aeroplanes regulated the fire of a 15-inch naval gun showered projectiles on the town of Asiago.

Following the hurricane of artillery fire, the Austrian troops attacked in mass formation. Four onslaughts were made on Zugna Torta. The Italian machine guns cut down the grey-blue masses of men; the wire entanglements were heaped with dead. The Austrians then hurled themselves against the advance posts of the Val Terragnolo, but the Alpini defended every foot of the ground, fighting always in the snow.

Three resolute bayonet attacks lacerated the Austrian lines, but the assailants kept advancing in endless waves. Finally the Italian rear guard threw themselves on the enemy and checked their advance long enough to permit the retirement of the main Italian body to the line running from Malga Milegna to Soglio d' Aspigo.



Even here there was an avalanche of gun fire, and the Austrian dead filled the valleys, but fresh troops swarmed up from all parts. Night soon ended the first day's dreadful slaughter.

#### **Austrians on Italian Soil**

AFTER three more days of uninterrupted artillery fire, the Italians vacated their positions between Val Terragnolo and the upper Astico on May 18th. On the same day the Austrians crossed the Italian frontier and established themselves on the Costabella, a ridge of the Monte Baldo chain, driving the Italians back four miles. A day later the Italians were forced from their position on the Col Santo. In the five days of Austrian offensive, 13,000 Italians had been captured and 109 guns.

#### **Austrians Advance to Roncegno**

ON May 20th, the Italians lost the Borgola Pass, 3,000 men, 33 guns and three howitzers. Everywhere the Austrian advance was successful. The Laurence Plateau, Fima, Mandriole and the heights as far as the Astico Valley were captured in quick succession. Between the Astico and Brenta, the Austrian advance continued in the Valleys of Terra Astico, Doss Maggio and Campelle.

Well across the Italian frontier on the way toward Vicenza, the forts protecting Assiero were reduced. By the capture of Spitz Tonezza and Monte Meglignone the Austrian line was made secure across the frontier as far as Forni on the Astico.

After storming Col Santo, the right wing of the Austrian Army now moved toward Monte Pasubia, while the left wing stormed the Sasso Alto, enabling the Austrians to advance into the Sugana Valley and take Roncegno.

In less than a week the Austrians had advanced their whole line far into Italian territory, across mountains 5,000 to 9,000 feet high, and had taken 24,000 prisoners, 251 cannons and 101 machine guns.

By May 26th, the Austrian Center had seized Arsiero, while the right wing had advanced to within 10 miles of Schio, both cities being terminals of the railroad system of which Vicenza is the center. Another force of Austrians meanwhile had captured

the entire mountain range from Corno di Campo Verde to Montemeata, taking 2,500 prisoners and 8 guns.

Austrian troops, on May 30th, drove the Italians from Gallis and then took Monte Beldo, Monte Fraia and Monte Prufora by storm. Asiago then being threatened, the Italians evacuated the city. The total casualties of the Italians, at the end of the second week of this Austrian offensive were not less than 80,000 men.

General Cadorna, on June 3d, issued his memorable order that the Italian troops must defend the last remaining positions to the death. How heroically the soldiers responded was shown in the battle of Mount Ciove, when 4,000 men in a brigade of 6,000 were killed or wounded.

The loss of 200 cannon was a very serious matter to the Italians, since these could not immediately be replaced.

#### **Verona and Vicenza Bombed**

AUSTRIAN aeroplanes, on June 2d, bombed the cities of Verona and Vicenza, while Italian air squadrons retaliated by dropping 100 bombs on various enemy camps and ammunition depots. Still the Austrian advance continued. On June 3d, Cesuma was captured with 5,600 prisoners and 14 guns.

#### **Italian Counter Offensive Begins**

Now the Austrian offensive began to weaken, for the Russian successes had compelled the transfer of Austrian troops from the Italian front to the Galician theater of war. This withdrawal enabled the Italians on June 9th to launch a counter offensive. Artillery duels were maintained along the whole front, and the invaders were pushed back in the upper Arsa Valley and along the western slopes of the Monte Cengio. On June 10th, an Austrian attack at Monte Lemerle was repulsed with heavy losses. The Italian offensive was livening from the Adige to the Brenta.

On the next day Austrian aeroplanes dropped bombs on the military hospital at Vicenza, and also attacked Venice, Thiere and Mestre with slight damage.

The Italians, on June 12th, carried the strongly fortified line from Parmesan to Tio Romini. The Austrians, by violent artillery



action, attempted to regain the initiative, but were everywhere thwarted with huge losses. Their offensive had utterly failed.

### Marvelous Italian Engineering Exploits

RELIEVED of the enemy's pressure, the Italians again took up the offensive and with renewed energy made for Trieste and Trento. But the Austrians were even still better prepared than before to obstruct their advance. Here Italian engineering genius triumphed. Gigantic and endless trenches, caves and forts had been excavated. In addition, a tunnel 850 feet long, and reaching to within 90 feet of the Austrian trenches, had been bored, in which 800 Italian troops were assembled. At a given signal, the men leaped from these secret pockets and assaulted the Austrian positions with incredible rapidity. Within 20 minutes three lines of Austrian trenches were carried; the redoubt on the summit fell within an hour, and the chase went on along the crest and down the sides, straight to the banks of the Isonzo, the Italians taking many prisoners. San Mauro was taken by 6 o'clock, after which the work of intrenchment was begun.

The Austrians, on the following day, were compelled to withdraw to the eastern bank of the Isonzo; at the same time the positions on Monte San Michele were evacuated, and the Italians thereby were put in full possession of the Gorizia bridgehead. In three days they had taken 10,000 prisoners, 20 cannons, 100 machine guns, and had recovered the territory they had lost in the spring.

### Italians Recross the Isonzo River

GORIZIA was now subjected to a devastating artillery fire, under cover of which the Italians crossed the Isonzo at nightfall of August 8th. On the next day the bridge over the Isonzo was taken by storm, after a most sanguinary battle, and the Italians at once occupied the city. The pursuit of the Austrians continued, and by September 11th the Italians had advanced five miles nearer to Trieste. By this time the Austrians had been reinforced and they seemed to be determined to stop the Italian advance across the Carso Plateau.

Meanwhile, Italy had declared war on Germany, August 27, 1916.

### Heights of San Grado Taken

AN attack on the Carso Plateau, on the evening of September 14th, carried the Italian lines forward a few miles. The height of San Grado was taken by storm. During the next two weeks only minor engagements were fought along the whole Alpine front, except at Mount Cimone. Early in the morning of September 23d the entire summit was blown up by an Austrian mine and the occupying Italian force of 500 men destroyed.

### Advance Along the Carso

IN October, a notable though terribly exhausting advance was made along the Carso Plateau, that strongly fortified bulwark of Trieste. Without giving the enemy a moment's respite, numerous diversive actions were undertaken in the direction of Trentino, among which for the heroic efforts made and the important tactical results obtained, special merit must be awarded to the retaking of the Pasubio district and the march in the zone of the Alps of Fassa, where the mountainous peak of the Cauriol was conquered and the Austrians were compelled to concentrate a number of their forces on this point, diverting them in this way from other fronts.

With the beginning of November 1st, the Italians once more resumed their drive again against Trieste, and in four days of fighting on high mountain peaks advanced their lines, taking 10,000 prisoners. But their own losses also were heavy, compelling a cessation of hostilities. Excepting for a series of artillery duels during November, neither side undertook any important engagement.

### Spectacular Warfare in the Dolomites

THE early and hard winter surprised the combatants on the new lines and delayed, without suspending, the operations on the mountains. The great works carried out by the Italians during the summer and autumn to facilitate the carriage of the gigantic pieces of artillery up the steep slopes of the highest peaks of the Alps, to victual and furnish new supplies to the soldiers nestled



up in the heights, constituted one of the most difficult engineering feats ever known.

On no other front were there so many natural obstacles to overcome, with so many dangers to face; such as avalanches, aerial raids, frozen limbs, bombardments, mines that would unexpectedly blow up, etc. On no other front was there greater difficulty in the matter of supply and transport and the care of the wounded. Every stretcher bearer found himself continually exposed to the peril of falling over a precipice together with his wounded. Over all these obstacles the Italians triumphed. They drove the Austrians back, foot by foot, up the almost vertical Dolomite rock, sometimes by the fire of their mountain, field and heavy guns, but oftener in hand to hand and bomb fighting.

Sniping never ceased by day, but the actual battles were almost invariably fought at night. The only day fighting occurred when, failing to carry it by direct assault, the whole or part of a mountain top was blown off.

Tunnels were driven by machinery through the solid rock beneath the Austrian

strongholds, which presently disappeared under the smashing influence of 40 tons of dynamite. Then the Alpini would swarm over the debris and capture or kill the enemy.

Food for the men and ammunition for the guns were first carried up zigzag roads, especially built by the Italians for this War. When these roads had reached their utmost possible height, the guns were carried up a series of wireways, steel cables slung from hill to hill, from ridge to ridge, spanning the yawning depths and reaching almost vertically into the clouds. Up these cables the guns and food were handed, as well as timber for the huts in which the soldiers lived, and material for the intrenchments. And down these dizzy wireways, the wounded were lowered.

Add to these difficulties the assaults of Nature; the gales and snowstorms were excelled in horror by the avalanche. On one day the melting snow revealed the frozen bodies, looking horribly lifelike, of a whole platoon which had been swept away a year before.

IRELAND AND ENGLAND. APR. 21—MAY 21

## Irish People Rise in Rebellion Against English Tyranny

Dublin Seized — Part of City Destroyed by Fire and Shells — 600 Lives Lost  
Sinn Fein Movement Analyzed

SECTION 9—1916

### Irish Rebels, 6,000 men

James Connolly, Commander  
Patrick H. Pearse  
Edmond de Valera  
John O'Reilly  
Major John McBride  
Countess Markievicz

### English Army, 60,000 men

Gen. John Maxwell  
Gen. Friend  
Brig.-Gen. W. H. M. Lowe  
Col. Portal  
Col. Kenard  
Maj. G. A. Harris  
Maj. Wheeler

**T**HE most audacious and yet the most inspiring rebellion in modern history—that of a handful of Irish patriots to wrest control of Ireland from Great Britain and set up a Republic—astonished the world when launched in April, 1916. Before it was finally suppressed by the British Army of Occupation, a third part of the city of Dublin had been destroyed by fire, and hundreds of lives immolated on the altar of liberty.

The provocation to rebellion was supplied by a conspiracy entered into by a small cote-

rie of Scotch-Irish Tories in Ulster, then virtually in control of the British Government, to nullify two successive acts of Parliament granting Home Rule in Ireland; their treasonable action in permitting the Ulster Volunteers to retain their arms while disarming the Irish Volunteers in the south of Ireland, and finally their attempt to coerce the defrauded Irish majority into bearing arms in defense of Great Britain, with no assurance of freedom and justice as their reward.

The great majority of the Irish people, having despaired of achieving Home Rule



by constitutional methods, in view of the perfidious policy of the British Tories and the immunity granted the Ulster Volunteers for their treasonable defiance of Great Britain, at last resolved to die bravely as rebels rather than be disarmed and conscripted into the British Army by a nation that had held them in subjection for 700 years.

### **Causes of the Rebellion**

IN THE broad historical view, the Irish rebellion of 1916 was the ultimate protest of four-fifths of the people of Ireland against the further exploitation of a subjugated race by the rapacious Tories of Great Britain, coupled with the desire of this unconquered nation to realize their ideal of complete independence under a democratic form of government. The issue was complicated by the frenzied resistance of a small minority of the Scotch Irish, living in Ulster, who had sworn to defeat Home Rule, even if it were necessary to fight the British Empire in the effort.

Just prior to the outbreak of the World War, and after the British Parliament had placed a Home Rule law upon the statute books, these fanatical Ulsterites organized an army of 100,000 volunteers, equipped with 50,000 rifles which they boasted had been supplied by Germany.

The Volunteers were drilled daily in various cities, defying the British authorities openly, but due to the extraordinary influence of Sir Edward Carson, Andrew Bonar Law, Lord Arthur Balfour and other Tories, they escaped punishment for their seditious acts and treasonable utterances. They were even rewarded for their treason, the leaders among the Ulsterites being vested for a time with the virtual control of the British Empire.

### **Ireland Once the "School House of Europe"**

IN order to comprehend the Irish question in all its complex details it is necessary briefly to recall a part of the glorious early history of Ireland, from the days when the "Isle of Saints" was the school-house of Northern Europe, and its colleges and schools gave learning and light to the Irish missionaries who converted and civilized each in turn the painted savage Saxons of England, the Picts

of Scotland, the Gauls of France and the Goths and Teutons of Germany.

Under the tutelage of the Druid priests, Ireland or Scotia, already had advanced to a state of culture far beyond that of the other inhabitants of the British Isles. With the conversion of pagan Ireland to Christianity by St. Patrick in the fifth century, a marvelous era of education began. Colleges, seminaries and schools sprang up like magic all over the island. St. Patrick himself founded 365 churches and schools, ordaining 450 bishops and thousands of priests.

Missionary priests from Scotia (Ireland) journeyed to England and Pictland (Scotland), where the still savage Saxons and Picts were instructed in the rudiments of education and of religion.

From there the Irish priests crossed the channel into France and Germany, bringing the light of learning and of Christianity to the Gauls, the Goths and the Teutons.

From the fifth to the seventh century, Ireland was famous as the cradle of education for Northern Europe. To Ireland were sent most of the princes and sons of the royal and noble houses of Europe to acquire an education. Here were the leading colleges, schools, teachers of Europe. A prince without an Irish education was a rarity. In general culture, too, Ireland naturally surpassed her neighbors of the British Isles, who were vastly slower in emerging from the stage of barbarism.

### **Ireland Comes Under the Saxon Heel**

THE Saxon heel was first implanted on the neck of Ireland in 1171, during the reign of Henry II, when the Earl of Pembroke, surnamed Strongbow, conquered the southern provinces and was acknowledged as sovereign by all the petty chiefs. It has been alleged, upon "evidence" found to be spurious, that King Henry II invaded Ireland with the authorization of Pope Adrian IV, himself an Englishman, for the ostensible purpose of bringing the "rebellious Irish" under "submission" to Rome.

In support of their contention, the Anglo-Saxons produced a document purporting to be a copy of the original decretal issued by Pope Adrian IV, authorizing the ignorant



Saxon King to invade enlightened Ireland.

But inasmuch as the alleged decretal lacked the papal signature, and because a search of the Vatican archives has failed to reveal the original decretal, it is the unanimous opinion of impartial scholars and historians that the document in question is a brazen forgery.

If additional evidence were needed to refute the Saxon canard, which curiously persists to this day, it could be supplied by the plain inferences drawn from the English history of the period. Recollect that it was by instigation of this same King Henry II that the saintly Thomas a'Becket was foully murdered before his altar in the Cathedral of Canterbury. For that atrocious crime, King Henry II of England was excommunicated by Pope Adrian IV. Furthermore, the ban of excommunication was still in effect at the time the Saxons were subjugating Ireland.

Therefore, beyond all doubt, Henry II was an outcast from the Catholic Church and a bitter enemy of the reigning Pope, at the very time he is supposed to have been authorized by that Pope to invade Ireland and bring the loyal Irish Catholics under "submission" to Rome.

Surely it must affront the candid mind to be asked to give credence to the theory that an excommunicated King, his hands imbrued in the blood of a prince of the Church, and while still resting under the papal ban, was chosen as the instrument of the same Pope that cast him out of the fold, to visit chastisement on a race whose loyalty to that church has ever been proverbial.

Even if the absurd contention be allowed that the excommunicated King and murderer was in fact sent as a "missionary" into Ireland, still the Saxons are not justified in remaining longer in Ireland, for instead of bringing the Irish people under "submission to Rome," as they allege they were commissioned so to do, King Henry II and his successors ever since, have been ceaselessly though uselessly employed in undermining the faith of the Irish Catholics and separating them from Rome. In strict logic, therefore, since they not only have failed to carry out their alleged pact with Pope Adrian, but contrariwise have violated its express terms, the

Saxons are no longer morally justified in remaining in Ireland.

### Dispossessing the Irish

SO IT appears that the Saxons, by brute force, succeeded in subjugating the greater part of Ireland some 750 years ago, and have held the Irish nation enslaved ever since. After the conquest, various attempts were made to plant colonies of English and Scots in Ireland, but without marked success until in 1608, the entire northern province or Ulster was confiscated and parceled out in lots of 1,000 to 2,000 acres each among a new set of alien colonists, composed chiefly of Scottish planters. In addition, large sections of the province were allotted to various London corporations and individuals.

It was stipulated, as a condition of ownership, that all those planters should belong to the Protestant faith, that they should follow English or Scottish customs, and should employ no Irish in any capacity. Then was ushered in the era of the terrible persecutions of the Irish by their alien masters continuing through the centuries.

Gradually the Irish recovered many of their civic rights. In 1783, when England was fighting the American colonies, the Irish were granted a Parliament and Ireland prospered amazingly, her ports being filled with ships and her commerce extending through the seven seas. But when England was once again out of danger, she contrived, by shameless bribery as Gladstone described it, to deprive the Irish of their Parliament and their liberties and Ireland in 1800 was united to England, without the consent of the people.

The Tories in England and in Ulster, after despoiling the Irish of their homes and acres have ever since kept the people in subjection, have done their utmost to fan the flames of religious animosity, have destroyed many of her industries and have laid upon the people the heavy burden of unjust taxation.

### United Irishmen Organize

THERE was a large Protestant faction in Ireland, however, that united with the Catholics in their struggle for freedom. Among the earliest of the Protestant leaders were Thomas Addis Emmett, Wolf Tone and John Mitchell, who aimed at a reunion of all par-



ties for the securing of the common rights of all Irishmen.

The movement to create a democracy in Ireland—"a government of the people, by the people and for the people"—was begun in 1790, when Theodore Wolf Tone, the Protestant secretary of a committee dedicated to the task of redressing Catholic grievances, founded the Society of United Irishmen.

He designed to include all classes and all religions in the ranks of the new society whose immediate purpose was to reform the Parliament and effect the removal of religious grievances.

The Protestant people of Ulster, excepting the Tory leaders, joined hands with the Catholics of the South in this new effort to secure this liberty.

The French Revolution was then in progress, and in 1796 the French Government agreed to aid the Irish rebels. Pursuant to this promise, a fleet of French ships, commanded by General Hoche, sailed from Brest with 15,000 men and 45,000 rifles, but was dispersed by a storm.

In July, 1797, a Dutch Army under De Winter set sail for Ireland pledged to render aid to the Irish rebels, but they were defeated by the British at Camperdown.

Following this defeat, the Irish were disarmed, and a reign of terror ensued. There were wholesale arrests and many thousands of Irish patriots were sold into slavery in the West Indies. An English Army, numbering 110,000 men, occupied Ireland, using repressive measures to quench the ardor of the rebels. Nevertheless, a rebellion followed, led by Wolf Tone, but this was quickly suppressed. Tone committed suicide in prison.

#### **Emmett and O'Connell**

IN 1803, Dr. Robert Emmett led the Irish in another revolt, but this, too, was suppressed and Emmett was hanged.

Daniel O'Connell, a brilliant young lawyer, elected to Parliament in 1828, gradually wrung from the British certain concessions, but failed in his efforts to repeal the act of Union. At the height of his parliamentary career, the dreadful famine of 1846-47 occurred, when half the population of Ireland perished or emigrated to America.

An uprising of the Young Irishmen took place in 1848, but this also proved abortive.

#### **The Fenian Movement**

THE next struggle for independence for Ireland was better known as the "Fenians" uprising. Many officers and soldiers of the British Army secretly joined this organization, and after our Civil War, thousands of American soldiers of Irish ancestry also united with the movement. The Fenian threat won many concessions for Ireland, but as a momentous force Fenianism was practically shattered in 1867, following an unsuccessful invasion of Canada by the American branch of the order.

#### **The Home Rule Movement**

A "Home Rule" movement was launched in 1870, by a group of business and professional men in Dublin, who agitated for an assembly in Ireland subservient to the Parliament of Great Britain.

Nine years later the Land League was organized by Michael Davitt, having for its object the restoration of Irish farm land to the Irish people and the destruction of alien landlordism. These two movements were merged under the leadership of Charles Stewart Parnell.

Two Home Rule bills were introduced by Gladstone in 1886. The first was defeated by a narrow majority in the House of Commons, the second was passed by the House of Commons, but was vetoed by the House of Lords in 1893. Meanwhile, land reforms had been won. In 1881 the Irish tenants' Charter of Freedom was granted, guaranteeing the Irish farmer the ownership of all the improvements he made on his farm. Land courts were established to fix fair rents for farms and a limited scheme of land purchase was also put in operation.

#### **The Land Purchase Bill**

REACTION came with the defeat of the second Home Rule Bill. Parnell was dead; there was a split in the parliamentary party, and the cause of Irish self-government ceased to be a living issue in the House of Commons. But the drive toward the ownership of the land still continued.

At length, in 1903, a conservative British Government passed the Land Purchase Bill,



enabling the tenant farmers of Ireland to purchase their farms on a plan of installment payments, extending over a long term of years. Under the operation of this act, much of the land of Ireland has passed to the tenants.

A system of local government was also set up in Ireland through popularly elected County and District Councils. The Congested District's Board was created to assist the people in the most impoverished districts of the West and South.

In 1900 the Department of Agriculture and Industries was organized. Finally, in 1909, a national university was established in Dublin.

### **Birth of the Sinn Fein Movement**

IN 1893 a new movement was launched in Ireland by the intellectual leaders of the race, whose earliest spokesman was Dr. Douglas Hyde, a Protestant, who urged the restoration of the Gaelic language and the reconstruction of Irish life. "Ireland for the Irish" was their motto. Conceiving themselves as "nation builders," they urged the necessity for de-Anglicising Ireland. While the people were waiting for some form of self-government, everything vital and distinctive in Ireland's intellectual and spiritual life was being corrupted or destroyed. "You cannot make a nation of half-and-half," they declared. "Where people are half Irish and half English, there is only a province, not a nation. Make them wholly Irish—in speech, in thought, in mental direction, and then you will have a nation with a worthy civilization."

A real movement for the development of a national culture began. The revival of Irish industries first was inaugurated. On the intellectual plane, the movement signaled itself by a creative effort that aroused interest in Europe and America. There was a new outburst of Irish literature in the English language, in which W. B. Yeats, George Russell and Standish O'Grady took a leading part.

The Irish parliamentary party in the British House of Commons, meanwhile, had been reunited under the leadership of John Redmond, but against the power of the English Tories it could work but little headway.

The young intellectuals, numbering many college professors, physicians, editors and other professional men, contended that Irish emancipation could not be gained by the agitations of an Irish Party in the British Parliament. Rather should Irishmen insist upon the withdrawal of their representatives from Parliament, and strive to govern Ireland through a provisional government.

Nationalists, they argued, should resort to arbitration courts and not to law courts established by British authority. Agricultural co-operation should be developed so that Ireland might become independent economically. In brief the policy was "Ireland for the Irish," with every Irish Nationalist working for national protection. The Gaelic phrase, "Sinn Fein," ("Ourselves") with its insistence upon Irish initiative and self-reliance, independent of English control, became the slogan of the movement.

### **England Promises Home Rule**

AN English liberal party meantime had gained the ascendancy and a measure of self-government was offered to Ireland, but this was rejected because of the inadequacy of its administrative and financial proposals. A genuine Home Rule Bill was then introduced and circumstances seemed favorable to its passage. To a greater extent than at any time in her history, England had been liberalized and democratized.

Unfortunately, the Tory party, represented by the decadent House of Lords and a small but powerful coterie of office holders and manufacturers in Ulster, fought the proposal as inimical to their business interests in Ireland. Yet at that very time, in the nine counties of Ulster, the Home Rulers had a majority of one in the Parliamentary representation.

The English Lords encouraged the minority among the Ulster Irishmen in their opposition to Home Rule. The threat was made that, on passage of the Home Rule bill, a provisional government would be set up in Ulster and civil war follow. To give reality to this threat, a body of Ulster Volunteers was organized in 1913 and armed under the inspiration of Sir Edward Carson. Openly defying the British Government they broke forth in treasonable speeches, declaring that



if the British Parliament should pass a Home Rule Bill they would resist its operation by force of arms.

Leading Tories like A. Bonar Law, Lord Arthur Balfour, Sir Frederick Smith and several British generals promised the Ulster forces support and immunity in event of their rebellion. The arms used by this band of traitors were supplied from Germany.

In this emergency, Edmond MacNeill, professor of history in the National University, urged the formation of a body of Irish Volunteers to safeguard the constitution that represented the will of the democracy of Great Britain and Ireland, as expressed by the British Parliament. The Irish Volunteers was organized in November, 1913, at a public meeting in Dublin. Previously an "Irish Citizens Army" had been organized in the South of Ireland.

The Tory party in England, which had encouraged the Ulsterites to arm themselves, now placed an embargo on all arms, making it difficult for the Irish Volunteers to prepare themselves for the civil war that seemed to be impending. Meanwhile the Ulster Volunteers were holding daily drills in and about Belfast, and yelling defiance at the British Government without molestation.

#### **The "Curragh Camp Mutiny"**

IN March, 1914, a group of British military officers, headed by Gen. Sir John French, declared that if sent to disarm these Ulster Volunteers who were uttering treason against Britain, they would disobey orders.

This "Curragh Camp Mutiny," as it was called, resulted in bringing thousands of recruits into the ranks of the Irish Volunteers. These Volunteers stood for the constitutional idea, that any measure passed by the Parliament of Great Britain and Ireland, representing the will of the British and Irish nations, must become law and operative.

Furthermore, they held that there should be no partition of Ireland, that no part of Ulster should be erected into a non-Irish state, but that there should be one Irish state only and with a single executive.

#### **The "Bachelor's Walk" Massacre**

ANOTHER crisis came in June, 1914. The Ulster Volunteers had smuggled a cargo of

arms into Larne, a northern seaport, and the British Government made no attempt at interference. But when, a month later, the Irish Volunteers in the South landed a cargo of rifles at Howth, and were conveying the arms to Dublin by automobile transport, a force of British soldiers demanded the arms but were refused, nor did the soldiers attempt to seize them.

As the soldiers were marching through the streets of Dublin they were hooted by hoodlums, and some stones were thrown at them at a place called "Bachelor's Walk." The troops opened fire on the crowd, killing several men and women.

This massacre aroused passionate resentment throughout Ireland, and accounted for the subsequent loss of accord between the Irish people and their Parliamentary representatives, the determination of the Irish Volunteers to hold their arms at all costs and the production of a state of alarm and exasperation amongst the people.

#### **The Tories Again Show Their Hands**

IRELAND was therefore swept into the World War with a memory of citizens killed by British soldiers and a sense of unfair discrimination between Nationalist and Ulster Volunteers.

Yet when John Redmond, leader of the Irish Parliamentary forces, made a speech in the House of Commons, proffering Ireland's full support to the Allies, the nation applauded his act. It was promised and believed that England would at least render tardy justice to Ireland.

But to the dismay of the Irish Nationalists, the anti-national propaganda was kept up in England. Lord Arthur Balfour, a Scot, insistently demanded that the Home Rule Bill be dropped at once.

A. Bonar Law, another Scot, made vehement speeches against the Home Rule Bill.

John Redmond, meanwhile, had offered the services of the Irish Volunteers to the British Government as a defence force on condition that they were equipped and kept within the country. But the English Tories, while willing to arm the Ulster Volunteers, refused permission to the Irish Volunteers. Mr. Redmond then asked that all Irish regi-



ments fighting England's battles be allowed to display their national colors, but this request was also refused.

### Home Rule Bill Held Up

ON September 20, 1914, the British Parliament enacted the Irish Home Rule Bill, but the measure was not to be put into effect until an amending bill had been passed. The Tories had proposed that the Ulster Unionists collaborate in the framing of the bill of amendments. John Redmond at once began a tour through Ireland urging the Volunteers to enlist. They reminded him that their chief concern was the putting in effect a Home Rule measure, and until that had been done their place was in Ireland and not in Europe fighting to save tyrannous Britain.

A split occurred in the ranks of the Volunteers. The great majority, standing behind Mr. Redmond, became known as the National Volunteers. Some 10,000 or more rallied around Prof. MacNeill, calling themselves the Irish Volunteers. Apart from these divided forces there was a Citizen's Army, with its own leaders. Thus there were three centers of militant opposition.

### Coalition Cabinet Formed

A NEW crisis presently occurred. The government that had passed the Home Rule measure was voted out of office and a coalition cabinet took its place, with Lord Arthur Balfour, Sir Edward Carson and A. Bonar Law, all three of them abettors of treason in the recent Ulster uprising, at the helm of state.

The Irish Volunteers now felt that the cause of Irish liberty had been betrayed, for Balfour had been a lifelong opponent of Home Rule, while Bonar Law had declared in a speech at Dublin in November, 1913: "I have said on behalf of the party that if the Government attempts to coerce Ulster before they have received the sanction of the electors, Ulster will do well to resist them and we will support resistance to the end." Sir Edward Carson, the Chief of the General Staff of the forces opposed to Home Rule, had taken an oath to resist the establishment of a Home Rule Government, and Irish Nationalists felt that he would not have

taken office unless he had obtained some assurance that the Home Rule Bill would not be made operative in his time.

### Conscription and Wholesale Arrests

IRELAND was now in a state of great alarm. Parliament had passed a conscription bill applicable to England and efforts were being made to extend the provisions of the act to cover Irish enlistments. Wholesale arrests for trivial offences were being made. The emigration of Irish people to America was forbidden. The burden of taxation had continuously increased and was well nigh insupportable. It was rumored that the food supply of Ireland was to be seized and sent to Europe, leaving the Irish to face the horrors of famine. In this crisis, the National Volunteers went over in droves to the Irish Volunteers, resolved to defend their homes with their lives. Public meetings were held all over Ireland to protest against overtaxation and the deportation of arrested men. On April 19th, a document was read to the Dublin Corporation in which it appeared that the leaders of the Irish Volunteers, Citizen Army, Sinn Fein Council and Gaelic League, together with other persons, were to be placed under arrest and certain buildings occupied on an order from the military commander. Fearing the suppression of their long struggle for independence, the Irish patriots decided upon an uprising. A parade was arranged that would be the prelude to an insurrection.

### Vote Against Insurrection

THERE were left to the Irish patriots three courses of action: they had first, the option of disbanding voluntarily and giving up their arms, thereby facing the certainty of being conscripted into the British Army; secondly, they could submit to being disarmed by order of the British Government with a like result; or, finally, they could fight for freedom on their own soil.

Only three weeks before, at a secret meeting of the Revolutionists held in Dublin, a resolution in favor of immediate insurrection was defeated by a single vote, cast by the chairman, Prof. Edmond MacNeill.

But since that meeting, the situation in Ireland had reached a crisis. Under the De-



fense of the Realms Act, Irishmen were being deported in great numbers without being allowed to offer a defense, while other men and women were arrested and kept in jail without trial. Meanwhile, positive information had reached the Revolutionists of the intention of the British Government to disarm the Irish Volunteers, while permitting Redmond's National Volunteers and Carson's traitorous Ulster Volunteers to retain their arms.

### Warning Against Conscription

THE Revolutionists thereupon issued a proclamation, warning the Government that the Volunteers "cannot submit to be disarmed, and that the raiding for arms and the attempted arming of men, therefore, in the natural course of things, can only be met by resistance and bloodshed." The Government met this situation by seizing a number of liberal Irish newspapers. Coincidentally, John Redmond, in a speech in Galway, affirmed that unless Ireland enlisted at least 1,000 men weekly, the Government would repudiate its Home Rule agreement.

At the same time a proposal was made that Ireland should be taxed to pay one-sixth of the expenses of the War. A storm of protests greeted this proposal from all parts of Ireland. Even the Dublin Corporation adopted a resolution declaring that the Council "viewed with alarm the proposed enormous increase in taxation as contrary to both the Act of Union and the Home Rule Act."

### German Ship, Bringing 20,000 Rifles, is Sunk

THE Revolutionists meanwhile, following the lead of the Ulsterites, had been negotiating with Germany for a supply of arms. The vessel *Aud* was chartered for the purpose, and was loaded with 20,000 rifles, 1,000,000 rounds of ammunition and 15 machine guns. Flying a neutral flag and disguised as a merchant vessel, the *Aud* left Germany on April 12th, bound for Ireland. Accompanying the *Aud* was a German submarine, in which Sir Roger Casement, Capt. Robert Monteith and Private Daniel Bailey had taken passage. The submarine, however, put in at Heligoland for repairs, which kept her there several days, while the *Aud*

continued on her way through the British blockade.

On the third day a British destroyer hove in sight and fired a shot at the *Aud* to compel her to heave to, but night had fallen and the German boat escaped in the darkness. A day later, the German boat passed a British submarine but went by unchallenged.

On the evening of April 19th, the *Aud* arrived off the Kerry coast of Ireland, her destination, and awaited the coming of dawn. Early the next morning, a British cruiser suddenly appeared and fired a shell over the *Aud*. Seeing that capture was inevitable, and preferring to sink his vessel, the commander raised the German flag to the masthead and ordered the vessel blown up. With a thunderous rumble, followed by a sheet of flame, the *Aud* sank with all her crew, carrying with her the hopes of the Irish Revolutionists.

### Sir Roger Casement's Arrest

LATE the same night the submarine carrying Sir Roger Casement and his two companions was lying submerged a mile off the Kerry coast. On Friday, April 21st, having approached as close to shore as she could, a collapsible boat was let down from her side and Sir Roger's party rowed ashore. The landing was observed by a fisherman named John McCarthy, who sent word to the police. Meanwhile Sir Roger and his companions had proceeded inland three miles to a cottage, where they were met by a committee of Revolutionists. To them Casement intrusted a message to Professor Edmond MacNeill, the Revolutionary leader, advising him that no help need be expected from Germany and urging him, for the sake of Ireland, to prevent any uprising at this time. Casement was arrested an hour later.

### The Call to Arms

THE Irish Volunteers, meantime, upon learning that arrangements had been made to disarm them, had resolved upon an uprising to take place on Easter Monday. The call had already been issued before Casement's arrest. In general, the plans called for simultaneous uprisings throughout Ire-



land. In Dublin, where the British troops were quartered, it was expected there would be difficulties encountered, but in most of the country districts, which were defended only by small bands of soldiers, the seizure of the towns was confidently expected. After capturing the country towns, the Revolutionists were expected to march to Dublin and oppose their united forces to the British Army.

### **The Fatal Countermand**

THE carefully laid plans of the Revolutionists were upset by the action of Professor Edmond MacNeill of Dublin University, a leader of the Volunteers from the beginning and the pilot who had steered the organization through some very stormy seas.

Upon receipt of Sir Roger Casement's message, begging him to prevent an uprising, Professor MacNeill resolved to countermand the orders issued from headquarters calling the Volunteers to arms on Easter Monday. He knew that all plans had been made for revolution, that everything was in readiness and that the Volunteers were to declare an Irish Republic within 48 hours. To be effective, an order calling off the Easter "maneuvers" had been inserted in the newspapers of the following day. A hurried call was issued to members of the Volunteer Committee and late that evening a conference was held in the house of Professor MacNeill.

At the same time another conference was called of those who had drawn up the Irish Declaration of Independence, and who were determined to fight at all hazards, even with their bare hands. The conference at MacNeill's house broke up early Saturday morning without reaching a decision.

Nevertheless, the last edition of the Dublin Evening Herald of Saturday contained a notice, signed "MacNeill, Chief of Staff," countermanding the orders for the "maneuvers." At the same time, to make assurance doubly sure, telegraphic messages were sent broadcast to every parish priest in Ireland, asking them to make similar announcements in their pulpits.

This was the fatal act that broke the back of the Irish Rebellion. As we shall see later, when the Dublin uprising occurred, the "maneuvers" were not being held in the

country at large and the suppression of the incipient revolt was made easily possible.

### **Irish Republic Proclaimed**

THE Irish Republic was proclaimed at the base of Nelson's Pillar, Dublin, on Easter Monday, April 24, 1916. The preamble read: "We declare the right of the people of Ireland to the ownership of Ireland, and to the unfettered control of Irish destinies, to be sovereign and indefeasible. The long usurpation of that right by a foreign people and government has not extinguished the right, nor can it be extinguished except by the destruction of the Irish people. In every generation the Irish people have asserted their right to national freedom and sovereignty. Six times during the past 300 years they have asserted in arms.

"Standing on that fundamental right, and again asserting it in arms in the face of the world, we hereby proclaim the Irish Republic as a sovereign independent state, and we pledge our lives and the lives of our comrades-in-arms to the cause of its freedom, of its welfare, and of its exaltation among the nations. Signed on behalf of the Provisional Government, Thomas J. Clarke, John McDermott, Thomas MacDonagh, P. H. Pearse, Edmond Kent, James Connolly, Joseph Plunkett."

Pearse was elected President of the Republic and Commandant-General of its forces; Connolly was chosen to command the forces in Dublin.

### **Opening Scenes of the Rebellion in Dublin**

EARLY on the morning of April 24, 1914, Augustine Birrel, Chief Secretary for Ireland, gave his orders for the disarming of the Irish Volunteers and the Citizen's Army, but leaving the still traitorous Ulster Volunteers in possession of their arms. The Irish Revolutionists in Dublin also had received orders to assemble for "inspection and parade" at 10 A. M. on that day.

Shortly before noon a company of the Citizen's Army swung along O'Connell Street, entered and seized the Post Office, hauled down the British flag, and raised the tricolor of Ireland. A moment later, a column of British Lancers, their horses at full



gallop, and their rifles ready for immediate use, appeared far up the street. The rebels threw a body of men across the street as a first line of defense and a score of rifle barrels appeared over the parapet of the Post Office roof.

When still some distance away, the Lancers fired a volley, killing one of the rebels. An answering volley from the rebel line sent a half dozen Lancers plunging headlong from their saddles to the ground. Without waiting for the command, the Lancers wheeled and galloped back to the Castle, leaving their dead and wounded behind them.

Meanwhile, barricades had been thrown up within the Post Office, while on the roof the defenses of the building were perfected. President Pearse of the newly proclaimed Irish Republic, accompanied by a number of his officers, then addressed the throngs that surged around the building, telling why a Republic had been proclaimed, and urging his hearers to join in the struggle for independence. Many volunteers came forward.

A trolley car was turning the corner and stopped at the entrance to North Earl Street. It was toppled over by a bomb, forming a substantial barricade to this approach to the Post Office. All this time people were walking up and down the street in the usual manner, but taking the keenest interest in the progress of the rebellion. The police were nowhere to be seen, having been ordered off the streets earlier in the day by the Castle authorities.

### The Clash at Stephen's Green

SIMULTANEOUSLY with the attack on the Post Office, the rebels had made similar attacks at other points in accordance with their plan of campaign. Stephen's Green, a strategic point, was taken, and the ten gates opening from it were closed. A double line of trenches was at once dug within the inclosure. The pedestrians in that vicinity were warned to disperse, and did so.

Incoming and outgoing trolley cars were halted at the street corners, their passengers and crews expelled, and the cars toppled over on their sides by means of bombs to form barricades. An hour later an automobile, laden with supplies for the rebels, was

fired upon by four English soldiers in Nassau Street.

The rebel marksmen on the car fired a volley in return, wounding two of the soldiers. The other two soldiers escaped.

This incident occurred while the street was still crowded with people, all of whom ran terrified to the nearest shelter. A little later a trolley car hove in sight, filled with English soldiers. It was greeted with a salute of rifle bullets, the soldiers dropping for safety to the floor of the car, and soon passing on out of sight.

The rebels also seized Jacob's biscuit factory, using the bags of flour stored there to barricade the windows. Haricourt Street Railroad Station also was seized; then the rebels took Portobello Bridge over the Grand Canal, and Clanbrassil Street Bridge, these two positions cutting the English militia off from the rest of Dublin.

### Castle Taken by Woman and Boy Scouts

A LITTLE before noon, while the British garrison in Dublin Castle was awaiting the arrival of other soldiers from the Curragh, ten miles away, the Countess Markievicz, Irish wife of a Polish nobleman, leading a band of Irish Boy Scouts, marched up to the outer gate of the Castle.

The sentry pointed his rifle at the invaders. Without a moment's hesitation, the Countess shot him dead.

Then, with a cheer, the Boy Scouts followed their intrepid leader into the lower quadrangle, occupied by the barracks of the Dublin Metropolitan police and of several companies of British soldiers quartered there.

The sound of the pistol shot brought out a score of the military who, seeing that an attack was in progress, retreated within the Armory and the Police Barracks, but the Boy Scouts carried the Barracks on the run before the occupants had time to close the doors, and all inside surrendered.

From the adjacent Armory, however, there was fired a fusillade of shots, killing several of the scouts.

A moment later, one of the Boy Scouts shattered the lock of the Armory door with a bullet, and led by Countess Markievicz in



person, the Scouts charged for the broken door. A scattering volley met the charge, resulting in two casualties.

Just at that moment the Lancers, who had previously run away from the Post Office, reappeared, their horses covered with foam.

The Countess, realizing that her little force was unable to cope with the situation, ordered the Boy Scouts to fall back toward the gateway. Keeping up a running fire, they made their retreat toward the entrance. There they met reinforcements, under Commander John Connolly, and again they charged into the Castle.

This time the Lancers turned tail, dashing out of the Castle through the Ship Street entrance. Several Britishers and a few rebels were killed in this fight. The barracks were again occupied and a rifle fire was kept upon the Armory. Soon the Castle was virtually in possession of the rebels.

The Countess Markievicz with her Boy Scouts then marched toward Stephen's Green to take possession of the Royal College of Surgeons. The fame of her exploit at the Castle had preceded her, and she and her company were greeted with cheers as they marched along the west side.

The rebels next took over and occupied the office of the Evening Mail newspaper and the Empire Theater.

#### **Commander Connolly Shot at City Hall**

CAPT. John Connolly led his company to the City Hall, which he seized. He went directly to the flagstaff, pulling down the municipal flag and running up the Republican flag in its stead. As he was tying the last knot, a sudden volley rang out from the quadrangle of the Castle, killing him instantly. Connolly was an actor, closely connected with the Abbey Theater Company and the National Players.

#### **Trinity College Fighters**

TRINITY College, a bulwark of the English in Ireland, had established an Officers' Training Corps, which formed a rallying point for units of the British forces. They successfully defended the Dublin Bank and the College, driving the rebels up Dame Street.

Meanwhile, Capt. Edmond de Valera, destined later to be chosen Provisional Pres-

ident of the Irish Republic, had seized Westland Row Station and sent forward a detachment of 100 men to hold Boland's Mills, where the Republican flag was hoisted at 1 o'clock. A regiment of British soldiers made two attacks upon this position, but were repulsed. By Monday evening the rebels had taken possession of a line of defenses in the southern part of the city which stretched from the Canal to the Castle, and from the Castle to Ringsend.

Around the Post Office, the rebels had patrolled the entire length of O'Connell Street to the Parnell Monument, and had seized the newspaper offices, Liberty Hall, Beresford Place, the Amiens Street Station, the Customs House, the Four Courts, and other points of vantage.

#### **Magazine Fort Taken by Surprise**

ONE of the most daring episodes of the first day was the taking of the Magazine Fort in Phoenix Park. This Fort was so placed as to command every building in Dublin. At noon, on Easter Monday, a company of rebels approached the Fort from two sides.

Three of the rebels advanced through the open door, depriving the sentry of his rifle. The body of Volunteers then rushed into the Fort and within two minutes, were in full possession. The attack was a complete surprise.

The garrison were disarmed and imprisoned in one of their own dormitories before they had time to assimilate the idea that there was really a Revolution in being. The rebels then collected all the small arms and ammunition stored therein, and marched away exultantly.

#### **British Rush 20,000 Soldiers to the Scene**

IT so happened that, when the Rebellion was begun, General Field, commander of the troops in Ireland, was on a leave in England; Colonel Kennard, the garrison commander at Dublin Castle, was out of town, and a number of the other officers were in attendance at the races at Leopardstown.

The news of the Rebellion was received at first with incredulity, but upon confirmation of the first report steps were taken to cope with the situation. Before 5 o'clock that



afternoon 1600 cavalymen from the Curragh were dispatched to the scene, with 1000 infantry, a battery from the Reserve Artillery Brigade at Athtone, the Fourth Dublin Fusiliers from Templemore, and a composite battalion from Belfast. It is estimated that the Government had 20,000 men at its disposal by Tuesday morning, whereas, the rebels in Dublin mustered 1809 rifles at most.

All Monday evening the sound of firing could be heard as various bodies of troops came in contact with the insurgent outposts. Martial law was proclaimed in Dublin on Tuesday.

### Custom House Taken by the British

AT midnight, on Monday, the British troops drove the rebels out of the Custom House and into Liberty Hall. A few hours later, the British held the Magazine, Phoenix Park, the upper courtyard of the Castle, the Royal Hospital, the Barracks, the principal railway at stations, the Dublin Telephone Exchange, the electric power station, and Trinity College. The rebels held Sackville Street, the General Post Office, the Four Courts, the Jacob's Biscuit Factory, the South Dublin Union, St. Stephen's Green, all the approaches to the Castle except the Ship Entrance, and many houses throughout the city.

### The Second Day's Fighting

ON April 25th, the second day of the Rebellion, Brig.-Gen. W. H. M. Lowe arrived with 5000 troops. By establishing a line of posts from Kingsbridge Station to Trinity College, he divided the rebel operations to the north and south.

The holding of these buildings not only separated the rebel center round the General Post Office, from that round St. Stephen's Green; it established a valuable base for the collection of reinforcements as they arrived, and prevented the rebels from entering the Bank of Ireland, directly opposite to and commanded by the rebel buildings.

A cordon was established by the British troops around the northern part of the city, from Park Gate to the North Well.

As the rebels were directing a heavy fire upon the Castle from the Corporation Build-

ings and the Daily Express office, these positions were assaulted by the Government troops.

The main forces of the rebels now having been located in and around Sackville Street, the Four Courts and adjoining buildings, it was decided to enclose that area north of the Liffey River by a cordon of fire and steel so as to localize the efforts of the rebels.

While fierce and bloody tragedy reigned in one locality, the populace of Dublin showed their unconcern in other localities near by. Women sat in the doorways, men lounged at the street corners, and the children played fearlessly in the side streets, while their ears were dinned with the explosion of shells and the rattle of musketry.

### The Rebellion Outside Dublin

DESPITE the proclamation of Professor MacNeill, countermanding the order for rebellion, there were several uprisings in the outlying districts. In County Dublin, the insurgents captured the villages of Swords, Lusk, and Donabate. Troops were sent to repel the attack, but only when they had been reinforced by the Staffordshire Regiment on Thursday morning, and helped by the guns of warships, did they succeed.

Further north, in Drogheda and Dundalk, several collisions occurred between the rebels and the Government troops. At Drogheda the National Volunteers, supporting John Redmond, assisted the military in subduing the rebels.

The rebels in County Louth seized Barmeth Castle, holding it for several days. There was bitter fighting, too, at Ardee.

In County Meath, a force of insurgents defeated a body of police, capturing their rifles and ammunition.

In Ulster, a flying squadron of 3000 men from Belfast made a search for concealed weapons, seizing a number of persons suspected of sympathy with the rebels, and 3000 rounds of ammunition.

In Cork, rebellion was prevented through the persuasion of Bishop Cohalan, who beseeched the Volunteers not to join the Rebellion. Acting upon his advice, the Volunteers surrendered their arms upon agreed



terms which were shamefully violated by the British officials.

In Kerry, the rebels made a small demonstration, but in Galway and Wexford they held out for several days. Had it not been for the heavy fire from warships in the harbor after the military had been put to flight, the rebels might have captured Galway.

In County Wexford, the rebels seized Enniscorthy, holding it for several days and finally surrendering to a large force sent from Dublin in an armored train.

### **Gunboat Shells Liberty Hall Needlessly**

THE real Battle of Dublin began on Wednesday morning, April 26th, the third day of the Rebellion. British troops had been arriving hourly in great numbers during the preceding night and a naval gunboat, the *Helga*, had pushed up the Liffey River, opposite the Custom House, ready to co-operate with the infantry forces. A circle of steel now encompassed the rebels.

At 7 o'clock Wednesday morning the guns of the *Helga* began to bombard Liberty Hall, a rebel stronghold. After 100 or more shells had been aimed at the target the British Infantry charged across Beresford Place, and into the Hall, only to learn that their assault had been needless. The rebels, during the preceding night, had tunneled their way out of the building, taking everything of military value with them, and were now partaking of a hearty breakfast in the Post Office while the British were occupying the deserted ruins of Liberty Hall.

### **Bombardment of Houses and Stores**

THE guns of the *Helga* next played on the buildings along O'Connell Street and adjacent houses in the rear of the city. Several buildings were soon in flames and red ruin faced Dublin. Meanwhile the cordon was being drawn tighter around the rebels.

### **The Bloody Battle of Mount Street**

THE bloodiest encounter of the Rebellion occurred on Wednesday during the engagement known as the Battle of Mount Street. Two battalions of the Sherwood Foresters had been ordered to advance and recapture Trinity College at all costs. The rebels at

this time occupied strategic positions in scattered school buildings and houses. One battalion of Government troops, advancing toward Ringsend, prepared to assault the position held by a company of rebels under command of De Valera. The rebel flag was at once run up over the school buildings where the rebels had intrenched themselves, and a warning shot was fired over the heads of the approaching soldiers.

The Battalion dashed forward but was met by an enfilading fire which mowed down line after line. The remainder of the Battalion broke and fled, ignoring the curses and exhortations of their officers.

Two hours later the Sherwoods again advanced to the attack, with the assistance of bombing parties led by Captain Jeffares. Under cover of bomb and rifle fire, the British charged up to the end of the bridgehead.

From all directions the rebels poured a hail of bullets into the lines. Wave after wave of the Battalion was swept out of existence. A wall of dead and dying was piled up along the bridgehead, and it was the awful task of the bombing party to blast their way through this wall of mangled flesh and bone in their efforts to get at the rebels.

After six hours of desperate fighting, the Britishers won the position, with the loss of hundreds of men. Again, to their chagrin, as at Liberty Hall, they found the rebels had all escaped by an underground passage. So severe were the British losses that they did not care to push on to Trinity College despite positive orders to that effect. It was not until midnight that, reinforced by the arrival of the South Staffordshire Regiment, they occupied the coveted position.

### **Dublin a Blazing Inferno**

DUBLIN that night was a raging furnace. Vivid sheets of red and scarlet flame, dense clouds of thick smoke, indicated the price the Rebellion had exacted. All through the night, guns were bombing from the south side of the Liffey, from the gunboat *Helga*, and from Trinity College.

O'Connell Street was an inferno. With buildings blazing on either side of the street and heavy smoke rolling above, with bullets falling like hail, death stalked abroad and



commanded every inch of this section. The whole center of Dublin was ablaze; it seemed as if the city would be totally destroyed with thousands of its inhabitants.

In the heart of the inferno, throughout that dreadful night, in the blazing streets and amidst a tempest of shells and bullets, the rebels held their ground without wavering.

As the hours wore on through that doomful night, the intensity of the battle increased. Into a hundred and one minor points which the rebels had captured, the shells were poured. In O'Connell Street the fires were most appalling, the firing heaviest, the fighting intensest. A crossfire of bullets constantly swept the thoroughfare from both ends of the street.

### Women and Girls in the Firing Line

THE Irish Rebellion was remarkable for the heroic part taken in it by Irish women and girls. On Easter Sunday, the day first appointed for the "maneuvers," the women in the movement were mobilized and instructed to bring rations for a certain period.

These women, who performed their duties with a cool and reckless courage unsurpassed by any man, were in the firing line from the first to the last day of the Rebellion. They comprised women of all ranks, from titled ladies to shop assistants, and they worked on terms of equality with the men. Some of these women patriots acted as snipers, and both in the Post Office and in the Imperial Hotel, there were women on guard with rifles, relieving exhausted Volunteers.

The girls proved themselves heroic messengers, carrying dispatches under fire to all points of the firing line. One young lady, a well-known writer, whose relations held appointments under the Crown, volunteered to take a dispatch for Commander Connolly under heavy machine-gun fire. Shaking hands with the commander, she stepped coolly out amid a perfect cross rain of bullets from Trinity College and from the Rotunda side of O'Connell Street. Other girls were engaged in Red Cross work; still some others cooked, catered, carried supplies. All the women could throw hand grenades; they understood the use of

bombs—in fact, they seemed to understand as much of the business of warfare as their men folks.

### Fall of the Rebel "Forts"

ALL day Thursday and Friday the rattle and roar of big guns made the center of the city a roaring inferno. The streets were swept by machine guns. Whole rows of houses had been blown up, apparently with the object of giving the British forces a clear field for a play of artillery and field guns. Fire was the greatest ally of the British, enabling the troops to draw closer and closer to the insurgents.

There was no general battle between the military and the rebels; sniping and house-to-house fighting was the rule, with high explosives ever and anon battering down the walls upon the heads of the defenders, and machine guns sweeping them into oblivion as they endeavored to escape.

On Thursday night the British heavily bombarded the "fort" at Hopkins store, which the rebels held in force. The place soon became untenable and orders were issued to retire to the Post Office. Few of those who essayed the journey achieved it, for as they emerged, the machine guns came into deadly play. With this heavy bombardment, the whole block of buildings from Hopkins' northward began to take fire. The flames spread rapidly, driving the insurgents from the houses toward the Post Office across the street.

Friday morning the British raked the Post Office with their artillery. From within came the sharp replies of rifle bullets, accompanied by the patter of a machine gun on the roof. But the unequal contest could not last; by evening, explosive shells had set the building afire; by daybreak of Saturday the Post Office and the buildings near it were gutted, and the insurgents had been driven northward. It was advisable now to sue for the best possible terms of surrender. After a meeting of the Provisional Government of the Republic, a woman messenger was sent to Brig.-Gen. Lowe to ask for terms.

The insurgent force at Jacob's factory, numbering 200, held out till Sunday. One



of the most pathetic incidents of the insurrection is connected with the defense of the "fort." It seems that the factory was one of the chief sources of employment for the very poor of Dublin and they were in anguish lest it be destroyed. They crowded around the building in terror lest their only means of employment should be taken from them. Their presence there saved the building from destruction, for of course the soldiery could not fire upon these noncombatants. The building was finally surrendered through the good offices of a Carmelite friar.

### Rebels Surrender Unconditionally

AT last, on Saturday, April 29th, the rebels decided that further resistance would entail needless slaughter, and they surrendered unconditionally to Brig.-Gen. Lowe. But though the military gave the order to cease fire on Saturday afternoon, the streets of Dublin did not become quite safe until Monday, as sniping was carried on by the rebels, who, in their coverts, had not received word of the surrender. Some preferred to meet death rather than surrender.

On the day of the surrender, the British forces numbered about 60,000, while the rebels at most numbered 1,100. Two hundred buildings, valued at \$12,500,000, were destroyed by fire. The casualties were 600

dead and 1400 wounded for both sides, the British losses being in excess of the rebel casualties.

### Rebel Leaders Executed

A LARGE number of the rebels were arrested, deported, and confined in jails without being brought to trial. Court martials were held by Sir John Maxwell, beginning May 2d. On the following day Provisional President Patrick Pearse of the Irish Republic, Thomas MacDonagh, and Thomas J. Clark were shot. Other leaders were executed in due order. Sentence of death was passed upon both Countess Markievicz and Henry O'Hauroman, but this was commuted to penal servitude for life. Professor MacNeill also was sentenced to penal servitude for life. As the result of a week's court-martial, 16 men were put to death, six sentenced to penal servitude for life, 20 others were sentenced to terms of imprisonment with hard labor, extending from six months to two years.

### Sir Roger Casement Executed

SIR ROGER CASEMENT, an Ulster Protestant, who had acted for the rebels in Germany, was hanged in Pentonville prison on August 3, 1916. In his last days he became a convert to the Catholic faith, and received the last rites of the church on the scaffold.

## WESTERN THEATER, NORTH SEA, MAY 31

### Greatest Naval Battle of the Ages Fought Off Coast of Jutland

25 Warships Sunk in Indecisive Conflict Between British and German Armadas

British Fleet, Outmaneuvered, and Scattered, Breaks Off the Battle Late at Night

SECTION 10—1916

#### British Grand Fleet, 144 Warships

Admiral Sir John Jellicoe, Commanding

First Dreadnought Squadron — Vice-Admiral Burney, Rear Admiral Gaunt

Second Dreadnought Squadron — Vice-Admiral Jerram, Rear Admiral Leveson

Third Dreadnought Squadron — Vice-Admiral Sturdee, Rear Admiral Duff

Battle Cruiser Division — Vice-Admiral Beatty

Battle Squadron — Rear Admiral Evan-Thomas

Cruiser Squadron — Rear Admiral Arbuthnot

Cruiser Squadron — Rear Admiral Hood

25 Light Cruisers, 78 Destroyers, Submarines

#### German High-Seas Fleet, 126 Warships

Admiral Von Scheer, Commanding

First Squadron — Vice-Admiral Schmidt, Rear Admiral Engelhardt

Second Squadron — Rear Admiral Mauve, Rear Admiral Lichtenfels

Third Squadron — Rear Admiral Behnke, Rear Admiral Nordmann

Battle Cruiser Division — Vice-Admiral Hipper

11 Light Cruisers, 88 Destroyers, Submarines

THE German High Seas Fleet, venturing forth for the first time from the obscurity of its harbor base at Wilhelms-haven, where it had lain inactive ever since

the outbreak of the War, sought out and gave battle to the British Grand Fleet in the eastern waters of the North Sea, off the coast of Jutland, on May 31, 1916. Beginning with



the chance encounter and running fight between advance cruiser squadrons on scout duty off the Skagger Rack, the battle expanded gradually into a general engagement of the two most formidable fleets afloat, with 270 ships of all classes participating in what is adjudged to have been the greatest naval conflict of all time, and the intensity of which is attested in the recorded loss of twenty-five warships and 10,000 lives.

Though indecisive in actual tactical result, in that neither fleet could justly claim to have vanquished the other or to have realized its full objective, yet if the comparative conduct of the two fleets in battle be justly appraised, estimating at their true value the German turning maneuvers which so mystified and even terrified the British High Admiral, and keeping in mind the superior German marksmanship, it must be conceded that in this first real duel of the dreadnoughts the German contender approached the closer to the verge of victory.

At grips with the mightiest armada in existence, whose superiority in metal was as two to one and whose excelling speed of ships gave it additional advantage, the inferior German fleet none the less outmaneuvered and outfought the mismanaged British fleet, inflicting upon it losses both in ships and in men approximately twice as severe as those she herself sustained, and at length, when darkness had closed on the scene, inspiring the British Admiral with so vast a fear for the safety of his capital ships as to cause him abruptly to break off the battle, and withdraw with all his superdreadnoughts some eighty miles to the south, abandoning his scattered cruiser squadrons to their own resources and thus enabling the German fleet to steal back unmolested to its base.

### **The Setting for the Jutland Battle**

LET us first visualize the setting for this great battle. The ships of the British Grand Fleet, in pursuance of the general policy of periodical sweeps through the North Sea, had left their safeguarded base off the east coast of Scotland, on May 30th, in two divisions. The lesser division, consisting of six battle cruisers, under Admiral Beatty, supported

by four dreadnoughts, under Admiral Evan-Thomas, was steaming southward some seventy miles in advance of the main body of the British Fleet, commanded by Admiral Jellicoe, which comprised a squadron of three battle cruisers under Rear Admiral Hood, a division of four armored cruisers under Rear Admiral Arbuthnot, 24 powerful dreadnoughts in three squadrons, commanded by Vice-Admirals Burney, Jerram, and Sturdee, together with 25 light cruisers and 78 destroyers—144 vessels with a fleet speed of 20 knots.

The German Admiral, Von Scheer, whose armada consisted of 22 dreadnoughts, 16 cruisers, and 88 destroyers, with a fleet speed of only 17 knots, had conceived the plan of leading the lesser division of the British Fleet into an ambush where it might be destroyed by the main body of the German Fleet. Pursuant to this plan, a squadron of five fleet cruisers, under Admiral Hipper, acting as a decoy, proceeded northward along the coast of Denmark, with the main division of the German Fleet trailing 25 miles behind.

Admiral Beatty's lesser division of the British Fleet, after proceeding south as far as the 56th parallel, had turned northward according to orders. The division was no longer intact, a distance of six miles now separating Beatty's six fast cruisers from Evan-Thomas' four slower battleships. At 2.20 p. m. on May 31st, the smoke of the German ships was detected. Beatty at once shaped his course to the southeast, hoping to cut off the enemy from his retreat along the Jutland coast, at the same time notifying Admiral Jellicoe of the presence of the German ships. The German decoy squadron also turned south, intending to lead the British into the trap prepared for them. At 3.48 the action commenced at a range of ten miles, both sides opening fire simultaneously. Evan-Thomas' dreadnoughts now joined in the fight, firing from a range of twelve miles. Though the British ships were the speedier and their guns by far outranged those of the enemy, still it was the British that suffered most in this running fight. Within twenty minutes the British cruisers *Indefatigable* and *Queen Mary* were sunk with all their



crews; and the British destroyers Nestor and Nomad were also destroyed.

Suddenly, at 4.40 p. m., the German High Seas Fleet appeared from the northeast in three divisions, forming a junction with von Hipper's decoy squadron. Realizing now that he had been led into a trap, Admiral Beatty swung his four cruisers around and started north at full speed, leaving Evan-Thomas' four dreadnoughts to bear the brunt of the action with the German Fleet. Beatty hoped to turn the tables on the enemy by leading the Germans into the jaws of Admiral Jellicoe's Grand Fleet, which was steaming south at terrific speed.

A running fight ensued for two hours as the two fleets proceeded northward. During this stage of the battle the Germans suffered their severest losses. The cruisers Lutzon and Pommerm were sunk; and the battleships Konig, Seydlitz and Derfflinger were so battered that they could barely keep afloat.

Meantime, Admiral Jellicoe had detached a squadron of three very fast cruisers from his main fleet and sent them, under command of Admiral Hood, to the assistance of Beatty. Hardly had they formed a junction with Beatty's squadron before the Invincible, Hood's flagship, was blown up with appalling suddenness, disappearing in a burst of smoke and flame.

A worse fate befell Rear Admiral Arbuthnot's squadron of armored cruisers which arrived at 6.40. As Admiral Beatty's squadron drew aside to make way for him, Admiral Arbuthnot steered his squadron directly in

the path of the German dreadnoughts, receiving the broadside fire of the entire German fleet. Of his four vessels three were sunk with their crews. Admiral Thomas also lost one of his battleships when the Warspite jammed her helm and was taken back to the British base.

The British Grand Fleet arrived in six columns shortly after six o'clock. A heavy mist had fallen, obscuring even near objects. Admiral Jellicoe at once deployed to the east, with the double purpose of avoiding the enemy's torpedo boats and of cutting the enemy off from his base. The movement failed of its purpose. The German admiral, after setting up a smoke screen to obscure his movements, launched a torpedo attack which took a heavy toll. A terrific battle of destroyers ensued in the fog, resulting in the sinking of thirteen vessels, of which eight were British and five German destroyers.

The German Admiral, by adroit maneuvers, kept his capital ships constantly out of reach of the superior British Fleet. Failing to find the German Fleet, and fearing that his own dreadnoughts were menaced by the German destroyers, Admiral Jellicoe at 9 p. m. withdrew from the battle, steaming 80 miles to the south, opening a path for the escape of the German fleet.

The British losses in the battle were fourteen vessels, including six capital ships with a tonnage of 111,980, and 6600 casualties. The Germans lost eleven vessels, with a tonnage of 60,180, and their casualties were 3,076.

#### WESTERN THEATER, APRIL - JUNE

### Third Battle of Ypres Opens With a Terrific Artillery Duel

Gallant Canadians and Intrepid Irishmen Hold On Against Great Odds

SECTION 11-1916

British Forces, 20,000

Gen. Sir Douglas Haig, Commander

German Forces, 30,000

Duke of Wurttemberg

**T**HE opening battles on the Western Front, in the spring of 1916, were fought over a limited area near Ypres in Flanders, Belgium. These engagements were only the prelude to the great Franco-British offensive planned for July.

The first clash occurred on April 27th, when one of the Irish brigades, holding the

chalk-pit salient south of Hulluch, vigorously bombarded the Hohenzollern Redoubt and drove the Germans out of their craters.

The Germans retaliated, two days later, by attacking the British line at several points between Ypres and Souchez. At Hulluch and Loos, two German gas attacks, followed by infantry rushes, were launched. Far from

being demoralized by the poison gas, the Irish spirit was fiercely aroused and they poured a heavy rifle-fire into the German soldiers as they advanced. Not one German soldier penetrated the Irish line, but hundreds fell dead before the deadly gun-fire. A third gas attack was attempted, but it failed to reach the Irish lines.

British troops, on the night of May 15th, stormed Vimy Ridge, penetrating in part the German forward line. Two weeks later, on May 21st, the Germans shelled the British out of the captured position and pierced the British line, to a depth of 300 yards on a 1500 yard front. The British subsequently attempted to regain the Ridge, but without success.

Canadian troops again showed their mettle in that violent artillery duel known as the Third Battle of Ypres. Without warning, on the morning of June 2d, the German guns laid down a heavy smoke barrage, completely obscuring the firmament. Then, for four hours, the British sector was deluged with high explosive shells which pulverized the trenches and opened enormous craters. For added measure the Germans exploded many mines, which took a heavy toll of death. By darting from one devastated section to another, the brave Canadians somehow carried on in that pit of death while mines were ex-

ploding and grim craters were yawning before them. Just at noon, the Wurttemberg regiments pushed through the British defenses in Sanctuary Wood to a depth of 700 yards in the direction of Zillebeke.

On the following day, being reinforced, the Canadians counter-attacked, driving the Germans back a quarter of a mile. A lull set in till the 6th, when the Germans launched another attack, seizing the town of Hooq and Sanctuary Wood at a cost of thousands of lives. Heavy German bombardments of the British line ensued for a week. Then, on June 13th, the Canadians counter-attacked near Hooq, recovering much ground.

On June 22d, the Germans sprang a large mine in the neighborhood of Gwenchy, blowing the British trenches skyward and opening a crater 120 feet wide. Still, when the German infantry advanced a regiment of Welshmen closed on their flanks and drove them back, either into the crater or to their own trenches.

In the closing days of June the situation changed. The great Allied offensive on the Somme was about to begin. As a preparation for that offensive the British batteries bombarded the whole German area near Ypres, destroying the enemy's trench defenses, blowing up ammunition depots and cutting off their lines of communication.

WESTERN THEATER, JULY 1 — NOV. 13

## 1,375,000 Soldiers Fall In the First Battle of the Somme

England's First Citizens' Army Led to Slaughter — British "Tanks" Used for First Time at Courcellette — Germans Saved from Utter Defeat by Torrential Rains

SECTION 12 — 1916

### Allied Forces, 1,500,000

Gen. Ferdinand Foch, Commander-in-Chief  
British Army, 700,000  
Gen. Sir Douglas Haig, Commander  
Gen. Sir Henry Rawlins  
Gen. Horne  
Gen. Sir Herbert Gough  
Gen. Butler  
Gen. Allenby  
French Army, 800,000  
Gen. Fayolle  
Gen. Micheler

### German Forces, 1,300,000

Gen. Falkenhayn, Chief-of-Staff  
Northern Group—Duke of Wurttemberg  
Central Group—Crown Prince of Bavaria  
Southern Group—German Crown Prince  
Gen. von Buelow  
Gen. Gallwitz

**E** NGLAND'S First Citizen Army, newly arrived in France, in co-operation with a French Army, received its baptism of fire in that pitiless five-months' struggle in Picardy known as the First Battle of the

Somme. For sheer waste of men, blundering tactics and the inefficiency of the lesser officers commanding, this battle holds an unique place among the more tragic encounters of the World War.



The Battle of the Somme, which opened on July 1st, had for its principal object the reduction of the German salient at Noyon, whose apex projected westward to within 50 miles of Paris. Its secondary object was to relieve the pressure upon the French at Verdun by compelling the Germans to transfer a considerable force from that theater of war to the Somme. The battle was fought on a 30-mile front, bounded by the Rivers Ancre and Somme, the British holding 20 and the French 10 miles of the line. The immediate objective of the British was Bapaume; that of the French, Peronne. The Allied forces numbered 1,500,000 men and the Germans 1,300,000.

After the range of the German trenches had been found by the Allied airships, there was launched on June 28th, a most terrific artillery bombardment, which continued incessantly for four days and nights, rising to a hurricane pitch of fury. It was only partially successful, for the Germans had built themselves perfect protection from shell-fire in the form of large bomb-proof dugouts, deep underground, each dugout capable of sheltering hundreds of soldiers. Here they could rest secure, and when the bombardment had ceased, haul out their machine guns and await the advance of the enemy.

#### **50,000 British Perish in a Single Day**

AT daylight, on July 1st, the artillery laid a barrage behind the German line, and the British and French went "over the top" along the 30-mile front, expecting to find the German trenches in ruins and the Hun Army demoralized.

Never was there a greater delusion and never did such swift disaster fall upon an army as that sustained by the British left wing from Gommecourt to Fricourt.

All unaware of the German Army hidden in deep dugouts, the British left wing on a twelve-mile front went gallantly forward, wave after wave, until they had passed Thiepval.

Suddenly, from a thousand dugouts, the German soldiers emerged, taking the Britishers in the rear with the fire of their machine guns and cutting them down like grass.

Some British regiments were caught between two fires, cannon assailing them in front and machine-gun fire from the rear. They fell by thousands.

Fully 50,000 Britishers perished on that fatal day. At dusk, when the barrage fire ceased, the survivors crept back to the British lines.

#### **British Right Wing Take 2,500 Prisoners**

THE right wing of the British advance, meanwhile, had escaped the fate of the left. Advancing on a four-mile front, south of Fricourt, they had penetrated into four parallel German trenches and captured the villages of Mametz and Montauban. The Germans fell back seven miles to La Boisselle, where they reformed, leaving 2,500 prisoners and numbers of machine guns with the victorious Britishers. La Boisselle was carried on July 5th and five days later Contalmaison was captured.

General Haig, on July 14th, ordered a general advance against the second line of German trenches, on a 12-mile front from La Boisselle to Delville Wood. The Germans yielded three miles of their line, losing 10,000 prisoners. A squadron of British cavalry, under General Allenby, participated in this engagement for the first time since the armies had occupied fixed positions. A week later, the French extended their partial six-mile advance along their entire front.

#### **French Veterans Advance Six Miles**

THE veteran French troops, meanwhile, under Gen. Fayolle, with highly trained artillerymen, swept the Germans before them on a ten-mile front south of the Somme, taking 12,000 prisoners in ten days, capturing a score of villages and gaining all their objectives.

When within sight of Peronne and Combles, having then advanced six miles, they halted to enable the British right wing to overtake them.

#### **The Great Battle at Pozieres Ridge**

FOR five weeks, from July 14th to August 18th, the German third line of trenches along the slopes of the Pozieres Ridge was stormed.

Step by step the British advanced, taking Ovillers-la-Boiselle, Pozieres and a part of the Delville Wood, but the Huns still hung to the higher ground between Thiepval and Fleurs, on a front of seven miles.

Finally, by hurling 500,000 men against the ridge, the Allies took Thiepval, Martinspuich and Courcellette and pushed the Germans back to the low ground around Ancre Brook.

On the east side of the ridge, another Allied Army took Delville Wood, Fleurs, Combles and approached Mont St. Quentin, the key to Peronne.

The German line had been breached in several places and broken on the front from Ancre to the Somme. The Huns were now fighting in quickly dug trenches, barricaded villages, shell holes and mine craters. They had suffered enormous losses under the constant pounding they had received, and the Allied losses were scarcely inferior.

### First Great Aeroplane Battle

DURING this battle of Pozieres Ridge, the first great aerial battle was fought between the British, French and German aeroplanes. The British had gained the supremacy of the air, chiefly by mobilizing their planes. The Germans, who had hitherto used their planes individually for scout work or bombing purposes, now assembled several squadrons and contested the air field with the British and French.

Early in September, 1916, occurred the first great air battle of record, when 42 planes belonging to the three contestants were destroyed in a spectacular combat over the ridge.

### British "Tanks" First Appear at Courcellette

THE greatest military innovation of the War—the British armored chariots, familiarly known as "Tanks"—made its first appearance September 14th on the Somme battle-field, and was first employed in the engagement at Courcellette. This invention, ascribed to Colonel Swinton of the British Army, was an adaptation to military purposes of the familiar caterpillar tractor, invented by an American and long used in the United States. Moving clumsily, but with

irresistible force, it could span the trenches and mine-craters, shatter trees like pipe-stems, trample down the most intricate barbed wire entanglements, crush down the walls of houses, and pierce the strongest lines of defence. Practically impregnable to ordinary gun fire, it was a movable fort, within which the gunners might direct a close range fire at the enemy.

At Courcellette, where 24 of these tanks first were put to effective use, many of the Germans fled in terror at sight of the mechanical monsters, while others surrendered. With the aid of these tanks, the Canadians and British forced the Germans back two miles on a front of six miles. A wedge was then pushed in the German line between Peronne and Bapaume and several thousand prisoners were captured.

Combles was evacuated on the 26th. The tanks had but a limited use in 1916, as the near approach of the winter season, with its mud and overflows, soon put an end to operations on the Somme front.

### The Close of the Somme Battle

AFTER the seizure of Thiepval by the British, in a battle marked by an intense artillery barrage, the lesser defenses of the Germans fell one by one during the month of October, but the German line remained intact.

The final engagement of the battle of the Somme began November 13th, when the British assaulted Beaumont-Hamel on the west bank of the Ancre, expelling the Germans from a strong position and taking 5,000 prisoners, besides numbers of guns. Winter had now set in, the rain was falling in torrents and the campaign along the Somme abruptly closed.

### The Enormous Losses at the Somme

EXCEPTING Verdun, and possibly one of the great Russian offensives, the first battle of the Somme was unequalled in point of duration, numbers engaged and the extent of the casualties. The battle covered a period of five months. Over 3,000,000 men faced each other in that titanic struggle. The casualties were unparalleled. The Brit-



ish and French allies together lost 675,000 men and the Germans, 700,000. The Allies, moreover, had taken 80,000 German prisoners.

The Allies had accomplished their double purpose. Though their set objectives at Bapaume and Peronne had not been attained, they nevertheless had smashed the supposedly invulnerable German line and relieved the German pressure on Verdun. Advancing seven miles beyond the German trenches, they had recovered 200 square miles of French territory. Above all, the new British Army, from a body of raw volunteers, had developed into an army of veterans able to cope with the German war machine on equal terms at least.

### The Somme Battle Field a Desert

THAT part of Picardy in which the battle of the Somme was staged, once a vale of beautiful vistas, lovely villages and prosperous farms, was left a desert. The destruc-

tion in Picardy excelled anything hitherto known to warfare, even that of Belgium and Poland. Throughout the battle area, ten miles wide by twenty miles long, all was devastation. The face of Nature had been seared and pockmarked by the deluge of shells and bombs. All vegetation had been destroyed. No woods remained. Villages were obliterated. The ground itself, swept by fire and gasses, was poisoned beyond recovery. Yet that same field was to be the scene of two more terrific battles in 1917 and 1918.

### Falkenhayn Is Retired

THE Germans, saved from utter defeat by the torrential rains, at once reorganized their armies on the Western front. Gen. Eric von Falkenhayn fell from grace and was superseded as Supreme Commander by Gen. von Hindenberg, who chose his former Chief of Staff, Gen. von Ludendorf, as his Quartermaster General.

EASTERN THEATER, AUG. 27—DEC. 6

## Roumania, Betrayed by Russian Bureaucrats, Is Crushed

Combined Armies of Germans, Austrians, Bulgarians and Turks, Seize Bucharest and Expel the Army

SECTION 13—1916

Roumanian Army, 600,000

Gen. Averescu  
Gen. Aslan

Russian Army, 50,000

Gen. Sakharov  
Gen. Zaionchovsky

Austro-German Army, 750,000

Gen. von Falkenhayn  
Gen. Mackensen  
Gen. von Staabs

Bulgarian Army, 300,000

Gen. von Delmensingen

THE Roumanian people rather inclined toward the side of the Allies from the beginning of the War, but they were prevented from following their inclinations by reason of the treacherous attitude of King Carol, a Hohenzollern by birth, who strove in vain to commit his nation to Germany's cause. The King died a few weeks after the Great War began, and his nephew Ferdinand ascended the throne on October 11, 1914.

Ferdinand's sympathies were plainly with the Allies, but before enlisting his army, he required a pledge from Russia that the provinces of Transylvania, Bukowina and Barat in Hungary, which were then peopled

by 3,000,000 Roumanians, should revert to Roumania in event of Austria's defeat in the War. He also exacted as his reward that part of Bessarabia in Russia which was occupied chiefly by Roumanians. These demands were the subject of lengthy negotiations, Russia being unwilling to accede all the terms.

Later, in 1915, when Russia met with disaster in the Carpathians, and victory seemed to be in the grasp of the Huns, Roumania preferred to adopt a policy of neutrality. Nevertheless, King Ferdinand was nothing loathe to accept a loan of several million dollars from England, which he devoted to the uses of his army, already partly mobilized.

### **Austria Tries to Bribe Roumania**

So matters stood until July 8, 1915, when Austria made overtures to Roumania. In the first Austrian proposal, Roumania was promised all of Bukowina south of the Sereth River; the establishment of a Roumanian university in Brasso; large admissions of Roumanians into the public service of Hungary, and greater liberty of administration to the Roumanian churches in Austria, if she would continue her friendly neutrality.

The second proposal specified that Roumania should put five army corps and two cavalry divisions at the disposal of the Austrian General Staff to operate against Russia. In return, Roumania should receive all of Bukowina as far as the Pruth River, all the territory along the north bank of the Danube up to the "Iron Gate," complete autonomy for the Roumanians in Transylvania, and as much territory in Bessarabia as the Roumanians should succeed in wresting from the Russians.

King Ferdinand refused to commit himself. But later, when Prince Hohenlohe of Austria asked consent to transport war munitions through Roumania to Turkey, he refused the concession. He did, however, close a bargain with Germany to supply that nation with provisions and oil. In fact, during the period of Roumania's neutrality she had profited greatly from the sale of grain, meat and oil to all the belligerent nations.

### **Russian Treachery Towards Roumania**

WHEN victory was perching on the banners of the Allies in 1916, King Ferdinand thought the time propitious for Roumania's entrance into the War. The victorious Russian offensive was then in progress; Austria had been driven out of Bukowina after losing half of Galicia; the Italian Army had sent the Austrians reeling back from Gorizia; the German campaign at Verdun had failed, and the French and English had damaged the German line on the Western front.

But King Ferdinand was really coerced into entering the war. The pro-German bureaucracy in control of Russia's Government, at the instigation of Premier Sturmer, had issued an ultimatum to Roumania, demanding that she join the Allies or else

abandon all hope of gaining territorial advantages at the close of the war. Roumania had been led to expect strong Russian aid, an army of 500,000 at least, if she enlisted in the War. These with her own 600,000 troops would give her a force sufficient to defeat Austria and Bulgaria combined.

King Ferdinand never once surmised that Sturmer and other Russian bureaucrats intended Roumania's betrayal and destruction, as a preliminary to Russia's base acceptance of Germany's recent peace terms. Nor did he know that the forces of anarchy and treachery were already in virtual control of Russia and had decreed the doom of the Russian Army by preventing the manufacture of munitions in sufficient quantities to insure a victory of Russian arms over the Teutons. Inspired only by the vision of a greater Roumania, and the redemption of his subjects from the iron rule of Hungary, King Ferdinand declared war on Austria-Hungary and Germany, August 27, 1916.

### **Roumanian Army Invades Hungary**

ROUMANIA'S military forces, numbering 600,000 men, were quickly set in motion. They were divided into four armies under the supreme command of General Averescu. Three of these armies were to cross the Carpathian Mountains into Transylvania, a Hungarian province, on the north; the fourth was to guard the Danube frontier in the South. The Carpathians extend three hundred miles along the northern boundary of Roumania. They are crossed by several passes leading into Hungary.

The plan of Gen. Averescu was to send one army over the Vulcan Pass and capture Hermannstadt; a second army by the Predeal Pass to seize Kronstadt, while the third army would advance by three separate passes further north and unite with General Lechitsky's Russian Army, then operating in Bukowina.

### **Kronstadt and Hermannstadt Captured**

WITH her declaration of war, Roumania dispatched three armies across the Carpathians into Transylvania. Descending into the Hungarian Plain, they took many villages and prisoners, meeting with weak resistance.



The two heights of Orsova, each 1,000 feet in air, were stormed and captured on September 1st, the Hungarians being forced across the Czerna River.

A Roumanian Army 40,000 strong, under command of General Zaionchovsky, had just arrived at Bucharest by way of the Black Sea and there united with a brigade of Serbians. Together they crossed the Danube and then advanced into the province of Dobrudja, their left wing, on the Black Sea coast being protected by ships of the Russian fleet.

Meanwhile, Bucharest had been shelled with bombs dropped by Austrian aeroplanes and zeppelins, without causing much damage. An Austrian monitor had also shelled several towns along the Danube, while the Roumanians were bombing the Bulgarian port of Rustchuk.

### Two German Armies to the Rescue

CONTINUING their advance into Hungary, the Roumanians captured the two Austrian strongholds of Hermannstadt and Kronstadt. In their distress the Austrians called for aid from Germany. Two large German Armies, one commanded by Gen. von Falkenhayn, a former Chief of Staff, the other by Gen. Mackensen, a mighty strategist who had compelled the Russian retreat during the previous winter, were despatched to the scene.

Falkenhayn was to operate from the north, driving the Roumanians back across the Carpathians, while Mackensen was to assault the Roumanians from the south with the aid of Bulgarian, German and Turkish forces operating along the line of the Danube. They hoped to crush the Roumanians between them as in a vice.

### Mackensen Captures Tutrakan

WITH an army of 400,000 Bulgarians, Germans and Turks, General Mackensen on September 2d, moved swiftly into Dobrudja, the Roumanian province lying between the delta of the Danube and the Black Sea, and advanced toward the fortified city of Tutrakan, which guards the 12-mile viaduct bridge across the Danube, over which runs the main railroad line connecting the capital at Bucharest with the seaport at Gorstana. His object was to forestall the advance southward

of any Russian army to the aid of the Roumanians. At the same time, he ordered the main Bulgarian Armies to attack both flanks of Gen. Sarraill's Salonika Army, thus preventing any forward movement by Sarraill from the south, and releasing great numbers of Bulgarian troops and guns for action against Roumania.

Having, by this strategy, isolated the Roumanian Armies, Mackensen's forces advanced in three columns into the Dobrudja. The right wing, in eight days, seized all the seaports as far as Mangalia. The Central column in seven days pushed forward to Silistria, occupying that town on September 9th.

Mackensen's main army, on September 4th, seized Dobic and two days later bombarded the outer fortifications of Tutrakan, a fortified town defended by a combined Roumanian and Russian force commanded by Gen. Aslan. After a dozen assaults, following a concentrated artillery attack, Mackensen entered Tutrakan, capturing 15,000 prisoners and 100 guns.

The Roumanian Army retreated northward to Lipnitza. Here Mackensen attacked them on September 12th, but after an all-night battle the Roumanians repulsed Mackensen's forces, recovering eight guns and many prisoners.

### Mackensen Routed at Rasova

REINFORCEMENTS were already on the way to the Roumanian-Russian Army. Gen. Averescu, who had conducted so brilliant a campaign in Hungary, recrossed the Carpathians with a force of Russo-Roumanians and took charge of the campaign in the Dobrudja.

Forming a junction with Gen. Aslan's army on September 16th, he established a new front of ten miles, extending from Rasova to Tuzla. On the next day he suddenly attacked Mackensen's army. A furious battle ensued for three days.

Again and again Mackensen hurled his Bulgarians and Turks against the Russo-Roumanian lines, his chief point of attack being at Rasova, on the Danube. Had he gained the bridgehead at this point, he might have flanked the Roumanians, cutting them off from their communications.



At the crucial moment in the battle, Russian reinforcements arrived, and Mackensen was forced to retreat to a new line extending from Oltina on the Danube to Tuzla on the Black Sea. During their retreat, the Bulgarians set fire to all the villages they passed through.

### **Germans Retake Hermannstadt and Kronstadt**

MEANWHILE, the Roumanian forces across the Carpathians, in Hungary, had seized nearly a third of the province of Transylvania, together with 10,000 prisoners. The army had been weakened, however, by the transfer of Gen. Averescu's corps to Dobrudja. Now they were threatened by the approach of the huge German Army under Gen. Falkenhayn.

Falkenhayn struck savagely at the First Roumanian Army defending Hermannstadt on September 26th. The Roumanians, though greatly outnumbered, resisted gallantly for three days and then retreated in two divisions toward the Vulcan and Red Tower Passes of the Carpathians. The division which entered the Red Tower Pass found the way blocked by the Bavarians, who by a quick flanking movement had occupied the pass in the rear.

In the violent battle which followed, the Roumanians lost 3,000 men and 13 guns. The remainder of the division won its way through to Fogras, uniting with another Roumanian force which had vainly endeavored to succor them.

The other division fell back upon Kronstadt, where the Second Roumanian Army was beginning its retreat through Predeal Pass. The Third Roumanian Army, being now isolated, quickly retreated across the Moldavian boundary, leaving all Transylvania again in the possession of the Germans and Austrians. The failure of the Russian armies to come to the assistance of the Roumanians had resulted in this disaster.

### **Mackensen Takes Constanza**

THE scene now shifts again to the Dobrudja, in the South, where Mackensen's army had been forced to retreat on September 20th. Following this retreat, a Turko-Bulgarian division had been struck a severe blow

south of Tuzla. A general assault on Mackensen's line resulted in the capture of many prisoners and 13 guns.

On the morning of October 2d, a Roumanian division, planning a surprise attack on Mackensen's rear, laid a pontoon bridge across the Danube River, between Silistria and Tutrakan. After crossing the Danube, the Roumanians seized several villages, but they quickly retreated across the river when an Austrian monitor began shelling the bridge.

In mid-October, being then strongly reinforced, Gen. Mackensen began a new offensive, his objective being the Cernavoda-Constanza Railway. Before this new advance the Russo-Roumanian forces were compelled to retire in the Center and on the right wing. On October 21st Mackensen captured the heights of Toprosari and Mulsiova, and the city of Tulsa. The next day he occupied the seaport of Constanza, the Roumanians removing the stores there under the fire of the Russian warships in the Black Sea.

Aided by his heavy artillery, Mackensen smashed through the Roumanian Center with such force that the whole line westward to the Danube gave way. In rapid succession he captured Rasova, Madgidia and on October 25th, he crowned his offensive by the seizure of Cernavoda on the Danube. The Roumanians, after crossing the great bridge at this point, destroyed it, leaving Mackensen in possession of the railroad.

### **City of Constanza Burned to the Ground**

MACKENSEN'S triumph was short lived, however. The Russian General, Sakharov, had been placed in command of the Allied forces in the Dobrudja. On November 9th, he attacked Mackensen's line, forcing it to retreat. During their retreat the Bulgarians destroyed several villages.

Intent upon regaining the Cernavoda bridge, Gen. Sakharov forced Mackensen still farther back until his destination was almost reached, and then he halted. Meanwhile, the Russian ships bombarded and set fire to Constanza, which was burned to the ground. Quiet now settled upon the Danube front until the last victorious offensive by Mackensen began.



### Falkenhayn Crosses the Carpathians

LET us now return to the scene of warfare in Transylvania on the northern frontier. Although Gen. Falkenhayn had driven the Roumanians out of Hungary, he had been baffled for weeks in his endeavor to cross the Carpathians into Roumania. Repeatedly his armies had been repulsed at the different passes. But in the end Falkenhayn forced the Vulcan Pass and the Roumanians were pushed back across the foothills.

Making a brave stand at Tirgu-Jiulig, overlooking the Wallachian Plain, the Roumanians for three days sustained the attacks of the huge German Army, but on November 17th the Roumanian Center was broken and the German Cavalry, which had been held in reserve, raced through the gap and down through the valley to the railroad 30 miles distant, cutting off the Roumanian troops guarding the Iron Pass. These troops, finding themselves flanked, hastily evacuated Orsova and escaped to the mountains. Eventually they surrendered themselves on the Alt, after an ineffectual attempt to rejoin the main Roumanian forces.

The main body of the Roumanian Army meanwhile had withdrawn to positions along the Alt River which crosses the Wallachian Plain. Mackensen's left wing had by this time moved northward and formed a junction with Falkenhayn. The united armies began a vast encircling movement around the remnant of Averescu's Roumanian Army.

Averescu strove desperately to rally his disorganized forces behind the Alt River, but the German-Bulgarian circle contracted with ever-increasing pressure. Falkenhayn's other forces were now pouring down from the north through the Carpathian Passes,

getting in rear of the Roumanians. Mackensen's Bulgarian hordes were swarming up from the south. Cut off from their capital, 90 miles away, and with both their flanks crumpling, the Roumanians abandoned the Alt line and fell back to the last line of defense before Bucharest on the Arges River. On the same day, the Roumanian Government moved from Bucharest to Jassy, near the Russian frontier.

### Battle of the Arges River

ON December 3d, was fought the battle of the Arges River, which decided the fate of Roumania. For an entire day, though outnumbered three to one, the Roumanians held back the hordes of Bulgarians, Turks, Germans, Austrians and Hungarians that encompassed them in on three sides. Then they gradually gave way and withdrew eastward to the Sereth-Putna line.

Before retreating, they destroyed the famous oil wells at Ploechti, and the wheat fields as well. In this ill-fated campaign of 100 days the Roumanians lost 200,000 men.

### Bucharest Evacuated

MEANWHILE, on December 6th, the civilian population had evacuated the capital, Bucharest, wishing to save their chief city from bombardment by Mackensen's heavy howitzers. The garrison also had withdrawn to unite with the main army on the Sereth line.

Mackensen's campaign had been wonderfully successful. Within four months after the declaration of war he had destroyed half the Roumanian Army and conquered the provinces of Dobrudja and Wallachia. Early in January, 1917, the campaign in Roumania was renewed.

WESTERN THEATER. SEPT.

## United States Denounces British Blockade as Illegal, Ineffective

British Seize 33 American Vessels Laden with Food—Four Cargoes Confiscated

SECTION 14—1916

THE seizure by Great Britain of many American merchant vessels, laden with meat and other cargoes, while on the way to neutral ports, was the sub-

ject of brisk diplomatic exchanges during 1915 and 1916.

Great Britain defended the seizure of American vessels on the ground that much

of the food shipped from this country direct to neutral ports in Europe had been transhipped subsequently from those neutral countries into Germany. In order to determine what parts of these cargoes were contraband of war the British officials deemed it necessary to seize the American vessels and conduct prize proceedings under British law.

The United States Government declined to accept the view that the seizure and detention of American ships and cargoes was justifiable under the principles of international law. Our Government also questioned the legality of the decisions of those British tribunals which determined whether such seizures were prizes or not. Moreover, the United States Government held that evidence of contraband goods should be obtained by search at sea and that neither the vessel nor the cargo should be taken to a British port unless incriminating circumstances should warrant such action.

Great Britain attempted to justify her action in bringing the vessels to British ports in order to determine their contraband character by reciting the difficulty of searching vessels on the high seas.

The United States Government retorted that such difficulties were no more complex than those prevailing in previous wars, when the practice of obtaining evidence in port to determine whether a vessel should be held for prize court proceedings was not followed.

The United States further contended that British exports to neutral countries had materially increased since the War began, and that Great Britain therefore shared with America in creating a condition upon which she founded her right to seize American ships and cargoes.

Finally, the United States contended that the law of nations forbade the blockade of neutral ports; hence the seizure of cargoes destined to neutral parts must be illegal and the British prize courts could have no jurisdiction over neutral vessels so seized or detained.

Great Britain would not promise any abatement of the conditions of the blockade and, in fact, the blockade was rendered more stringent by its extension to include all neutral ports.

### Chicago Meat Packers' Case

BEFORE the American protest had been made, the British had seized 33 vessels laden with meat products, having an estimated value of \$17,500,000, of which number 29 had been held without disposal by the British prize courts.

Four cargoes, of a value of \$2,500,000, after being held for ten months, had been confiscated on September 13, 1915, and declared forfeited to the Crown. The Chicago beef packers demanded reparation. In reply, the British Government declared that the cargoes were condemned because the food products shipped by America to Denmark and other neutral nations were in excess of the normal consumption of these nations, the presumption being that they were really destined for Germany and eventually would find their way into the enemy's hands.

England also contended that evidence existed to prove that the shipments from America to Denmark were made through German agents and that their consignment to a neutral port was a mere mask to cover their final shipment to Germany.

So the matter rested until its settlement in 1918.



ALL EUROPE, JAN. — DEC.

## Germany Launches New Submarine Campaign Against Allies

Hospital Ships and Merchant Ships Torpedoed Without Warning

Sinking of the *Sussex*, *La Provence*, *Cymric*, *Britannic*

Lord Kitchener Goes Down to Death With the *Hampshire*

SECTION 15—1916

THE year 1916 saw the launching of Germany's ruthless submarine campaign. Early in February, 70,000 German naval reservists had been brought to Kiel and Heligoland, to man the undersea-boats that were expected to deal the death blow to Britain's Navy.

The German edict went into effect February 29th, placing armed merchant vessels in the same category with auxiliary cruisers and giving Germany an excuse for sending defenceless vessels to the bottom without warning.

### Merchant Vessels Sunk Without Warning

THE first violation of Germany's pledge to America, that she would not sink without warning any unarmed merchant vessels, occurred on October 29th, when the British steamship *Marina*, whose crew comprised several American sailors, was torpedoed without warning when off the coast of Scotland. Our government failed to call Germany to task for this outrage.

Germany again showed disregard for her pledged word, and disdain for America's power, when her submarines on November 8th sank the American steamship *Columbian* off the coast of Spain. The crew, however, were permitted to take to boats before the ship was torpedoed.

Four other unarmed merchant vessels were sunk without warning. They were the *Fenay Bridge*, the *Englishman*, and the *Manchester Engineer*.

### Sinking of the *Sussex*

THE lives of many Americans were imperiled when the channel steamer *Sussex*, plying between Folkestone and Dieppe, was hit by a torpedo on March 24th, and some 50 of the 386 passengers aboard lost their lives. An explosion in the engine room followed the torpedo attack, causing panic aboard ship among the women and children.

Two boats were overturned and a number of frightened women jumped into the sea. Some of the victims were killed outright by the impact of the torpedo. The vessel fortunately remained afloat and her wireless calls brought other ships to the rescue. Of the thirty Americans on board, five or six sustained painful injuries.

### *La Provence* Sunk with 3,000 Soldiers

THE supreme naval tragedy of the year was the sinking of the French liner *La Provence*, by a torpedo in the Mediterranean Sea on February 26th. She had sailed from Marseilles for Salonika with 3,500 soldiers and a crew of 500. Of these, 3,000 were drowned.

### Hospital Ships Sunk

A TURKISH warship torpedoed the Russian Hospital Ship *Portugal* in the Black Sea on March 30th, sending 101 wounded soldiers and 14 nuns to their death. A second Russian Hospital Ship, the *Vperiode*, was torpedoed in the Black Sea, July 9th, with a loss of seven lives.

### "U-53" Sinks Five Vessels Off Nantucket

THE German submarine, "U-53," appeared off Newport, R. I., October 7th, and after the commander had landed and sent a message to Ambassador Bernstorff, the boat left the port. On the next day, when off Nantucket, this submersible raider sank five vessels—three British, one Dutch, and one Norwegian. On one of the British vessels, the *Stephano*, a passenger liner plying between New York and New Foundland, there were several Americans. Luckily the attack on these vessels had been observed by the commanders and crews of several nearby American destroyers, who rescued all the victims.

### The Execution of Capt. Fryatt

THE British liner *Brussels*, plying between England and Holland, was captured on June 23d by two German submarines and taken to

Zeebrugge as a prize of war. The captain, Charles Fryatt, was identified as the commander of the British vessel that had attempted to ram a German submarine, when ordered to come to off Maas lightship on March 20th. Although justified in so doing, Capt. Fryatt was found guilty by a German courtmartial of a "crime against humanity" and put to death.

### Lord Kitchener Goes Down with the Hampshire

EARL KITCHENER, Minister for War in the British Cabinet, was drowned off the north coast of Scotland on the night of June 7th, when the cruiser Hampshire, on which he was voyaging to Russia, struck a mine and sank. Four boats were lowered from the doomed ship, but all were swamped in the wild sea. Twenty minutes after striking the mine the Hampshire went down with 300 of the crew.

### Battleships and Transports Sunk

ON January 10th, the English battleship King Edward VII was blown up by a mine, without loss of life. The British cruiser Arethusa also struck a mine off the coast of

England, on February 14th, and sank with 10 of her crew.

The English battleship Russell was sunk in the Mediterranean on April 28th, with the loss of 124 officers and men.

Laden with munitions the White Star liner Cymric was torpedoed and sunk, May 9th, near the British coast with a loss of five killed.

An Austrian transport was sent to the bottom in the Adriatic, May 10th, by a French submarine.

Four German steamers were sunk in the Baltic Sea by British and Russian submarines during May, 1916.

On the night of May 30th, an Italian destroyer, running into the harbor of Trieste, sank a large Austrian transport filled with soldiers, all of whom were drowned.

The Italian transport, Prince Umberto, was sunk in the Adriatic on June 9th, with a loss of 500 lives.

In retaliation for the sinking of neutral Portuguese vessels, the Portuguese Government seized 38 German vessels lying at anchor in her harbors, and refused Germany's demand for their release.

ALL EUROPE, JAN. — DEC.

## 42 Zeppelin Raids on English Towns Kill 426 and Injure 864

English and French Retaliate By Bombing German Cities Far Inland

SECTION 16 — 1916

THE Germans in 1916 hoped to lay both London and Paris in ashes, and win the War, with the aid of their giant dirigible balloons, known as Zeppelins, but as a war weapon the Zeppelins proved a disappointment, because of the effective air defenses set up by the British and the French. Their chief use was in raiding unprotected towns and striking terror among the civilian populations.

The English finally put a quietus on the Zeppelins by inventing an arrow-gun, tipped with an explosive bullet, that penetrated the balloons and ignited them. To avoid these guns the Zeppelins were forced to fly so high that careful aiming was impossible, the result being that most of the bombs that were released fell in open fields or into the sea.

Out of 53 Zeppelins put into commission since 1914, 35 had been totally destroyed at the close of 1916, five others had been damaged, and only 13 remained in service. Thenceforward the Zeppelins were used chiefly for observation purposes in the North Sea area and for training purposes.

Still the Zeppelins wrought much damage to property, besides taking a large toll in human life, before the means were found to combat them successfully. During the year 1916, there were 42 Zeppelin raids in England alone, resulting in the deaths of 426 persons, mostly women and children, and injury to 864 others. Almost as many raids took place in France.

On January 23d, a Zeppelin attacked Kent, killing six men, women and children. On



February 6th, two German airplanes dropped bombs on Ramsgate.

A series of Zeppelin raids occurred, between March 31st and April 5th, along the entire Eastern coast of England, the main object of which was to discover the whereabouts of the main British battleship fleet. These raids resulted in 12 deaths and 33 injuries.

A pitched battle between Zeppelins, battle cruisers and submarines on the German side, and destroyers, land batteries, aeroplanes and seaplanes on the British side, took place on April 26th, near Lowestoft. Three British planes were severely damaged in this fight.

A squadron of German planes bombed London on June 14th, killing 97 persons and injuring 437, including 120 women and children.

Twenty German planes bombed London on July 7th, killing 37 and injuring 141.

Six Zeppelins raided the east coast of England, on August 9th, killing 23.

Eight persons were killed and 36 injured in a Zeppelin raid on England, August 25th.

Thirteen Zeppelins invaded England, September 2d, but only three reached London, where two persons were killed and 11 injured. One Zeppelin fell like a flaming torch and the crew were burned to death.

Twelve Zeppelins reached the outskirts of London, September 23d, killing 38 and injuring 125.

Six airships attacked English coast towns, September 25th, killing 36 and injuring 27.

Ten Zeppelins attacked London and the eastern coast, October 1st, but only one death resulted. One Zeppelin caught fire and its crew of 19 were burned alive.

Two Zeppelins, while raiding Yorkshire, on November 27th, were brought down and both their crews perished.

EASTERN THEATER, JUNE—DEC.

## Arabs Throw Off Turkish Yoke; Establish Kingdom of Hedjaz

Sherif Hussein Becomes King and Drives Turks Out of Mecca and Medina

SECTION 17—1916

Arab Forces, 40,000

Sherif Hussein  
Emir Abdullah  
Emir Feisal  
Emir Zeid  
Emir Shalan  
Emir Idrissi

Turkish Forces, 10,000

Khaleb Pasha

WHILE the British troops were engaged with the Turks in Mesopotamia and Palestine, the Arabs seized the opportunity to throw off the hated Turkish yoke. Simultaneous uprisings took place in the Hedjaz district of Arabia. The leader in this revolt was Hussein-ibn-Ali, Grand Sherif of Mecca, and the most powerful prince of Western and Central Arabia. As hereditary keeper of the Holy Places and head of the tribe of the Prophet, he was regarded with reverence by the Arabs.

Hussein, on June 5th, proclaimed the independence of Arabia at Mecca. The populace greeted the announcement with cheers,

but the Turkish garrison rejected his summons to surrender, opening fire on the Great Mosque with heavy artillery. Rallying the loyal Arabs to his standard, Hussein overcame the resistance of the Turkish garrison, compelling their surrender on June 13th, and taking 1100 prisoners.

Hussein-ibn-Ali, after the seizure of Mecca, divided his forces—horse, camel, and foot—into four columns. One party remained to guard Mecca; a second, under Emir Feisal, advanced toward Medina; a third, under Emir Abdullah, proceeded south toward Taif, and the fourth, under Emir Zeid, went westward to Jedda. The fires of

revolt spread northward among the Arabs all the way to Damascus.

Emir Nuri Shalan and the Said Idrissi of Asia joined forces with Hussein. In quick succession, the rebels seized the port of Kufidah, on the Red Sea, and Yambo, the port of Medina. Medina itself was besieged and a large section of the railway near El Ala was torn up, delaying the arrival of Turkish reinforcements from Damascus.

A pitched battle between the Turks and Arabs was fought in the plain south of Medina in August, the Turks losing 2,000 and the Arabs 500. Retreating to Medina, the Turkish soldiers wreaked vengeance on the inhabitants, many of whom they crucified, hanged or otherwise tortured.

In September, the Arabs captured the Turkish headquarters at Taif, compelling the surrender of Khaleb Pasha, the Commander-in-Chief. At the close of the year the Turks had been driven out of every part of the Hedjaz excepting a strip of territory adjacent to the railway leading from Mecca to Eastern Palestine and Damascus. Meanwhile, the Arabs co-operated with the British Egyptian Expeditionary Force and continued to do so till the end of the War.

The Kingdom of Hedjaz was proclaimed with Hussein as its King. It was promptly recognized by the Entente Powers. Thus the birthplace of the Islamic faith was recovered after centuries of subordination to the Turks.

WESTERN THEATER, DEC. 12—19

## Germany Makes Her First "Peace Proposal" to Allied Nations

Allies Restate Their War Aims Upon Invitation of President Wilson

SECTION 16—1916

IN the closing days of 1916, bedeviled Germany donned the livery of Heaven, and, affecting a "deep moral and religious sense of duty toward humanity," proposed to the Allies to enter into peace negotiations. The German note was one of exultation over the "gigantic advantages Germany and her allies have gained over adversaries superior in number and war material." It carried the warning to the Allies that "Every German heart will burn in sacred wrath against our enemies if they decline to end the War," and concluding with an appeal to the Almighty to judge between Germany and civilization.

This proposal was made at a supposedly adventitious moment, on December 12th, six days after Roumania had been conquered, and when apparently the Germans were proving themselves invincible on land.

The astute statesmen and military leaders of Europe, however, were not to be deceived. They knew that Germany had shot her bolt. Although she had overspread Europe and held much of Belgium and France; though her agents had accomplished the betrayal of Russia; though Serbia and Roumania had been destroyed—nevertheless, Germany had

nearly reached the limit of her man-power and her ultimate defeat was certain.

Europe and America both were convinced that Germany, fearful for the future, was seeking to win by diplomacy what she could not hope to attain by war. Furthermore, it had probably entered the minds of the German statesmen that a peace proposal might dissuade America from throwing her strength into the struggle. Still, it was felt that the German proposal could not be wholly ignored.

### President Wilson's First Peace Effort

President Wilson, in his role of mediator, immediately passed on the German peace feelers to the Entente Governments without comment. On December 18, 1916, with the view of testing the principles of the Allied Powers, the President addressed a note to the several Chancellories, frankly asking them to make unequivocal statements of their war aims. When made public on December 20th, President Wilson's note caused much alarm in business circles, being accompanied by a sharp break in the stock market. This excitement was intensified by an explanatory statement given out by Secretary of State Lansing, to this effect:



"The sending of this note will indicate the possibility of our being forced into the War. That possibility ought to serve as a restraining and sobering force, safeguarding American rights. It may also serve to force an earlier conclusion of the War. Neither the President nor myself regards this note as a peace note; it is merely an effort to get the belligerents to define the end for which they are fighting."

This statement was modified, later in the day, by a supplementary explanation that war was not imminent. Still, the whole effect of the note was depressing.

### Roosevelt's Criticism

THAT part of the President's note, in which he had described as identical the objects sought to be attained both by the Germanic and the Allied Powers, drew forth much criticism. Theodore Roosevelt voiced the thoughts of many citizens when he said:

"If the note was designed merely to promote an early conclusion of peace, it was untimely, irritating, and dangerous. If, on the other hand, as Mr. Lansing first interpreted it, it was a threat of war, and foreshadowed the end of American neutrality, it was not only dangerous, but profoundly mischievous, if not profoundly immoral and misleading."

### Germany Applauds the Note

IN Germany, the President's note was applauded as supporting the German peace proposals, but among the Allied nations it was bitterly criticized. The Allied nations, in their joint reply, refused to accept an exchange of views until Germany should state clearly her war aims. At the same time, the Allied Powers made denial of two statements appearing in the German note; namely, that Germany had not provoked the War and that she was now victorious.

On December 26th, Germany and Austria replied to the President's note, again suggesting an exchange of views with the Allies and again neglecting to state their own war aims.

### Aims of the Allied Powers

THE Allies, finally, stated their war aims. These included "the restoration of Belgium, Serbia, Montenegro and the indemnities due them, the evacuation of the invaded terri-

tories of France, of Russia, and of Roumania, with just reparation; the reorganization of Europe, guaranteed by a stable regime, and founded as much upon respect of nationalities and full security and liberty of economic development, which all nations great or small possess, as upon territorial conventions and international agreements suitable to guarantee territorial and maritime frontiers against unjustified attacks; the restitution of provinces or territories wrested in the past from the Allies by force or against the will of their populations; the liberations of Italians, of Slavs, of Roumanians, and of Czecho-Slovaks from foreign domination; the enfranchisement of populations subject to the bloody tyranny of the Turks; the expulsion from Europe of the Ottoman Empire, decidedly alien to Western civilization."

Nevertheless, Germany had gained a certain prestige by this peace maneuver, having convinced the gullible pacifists of all nations that she really desired a just peace and was not the monster which universal imagery had pictured her.

We shall see, in the story of 1917, how she continued her peace offensive and how she was finally unmasked by America.

### Henry Ford's "Peace Ship" Sails

WHILE the peace parleys were proceeding, Henry Ford, the famous automobile manufacturer, chartered the Scandinavian liner, Oscar II, and with 100 well-assorted "peace pilgrims" as his guests, sailed on December 3d for the port of Christiania, Norway, intending thence to proceed to The Hague and there set up "an unofficial court for peace proposals," composed of delegates from neutral nations. "Out of the trenches by Christmas" was the hopeful slogan of Mr. Ford's peace party. Mr. Ford's quixotic hopes were blasted when the United States Government, mindful of its obligations of neutrality, notified the several European nations that the Ford Expedition did not have the sanction of this nation. The peace party remained abroad for several weeks, an object of ridicule in the eyes of two continents, and then returned home, sadder but wiser mortals.

# FOURTH YEAR OF THE WAR 1917

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## AMERICA ENTERS HUMANITY'S WAR

10,000,000 Young Americans Enrolled for Freedom's Army  
Congress Votes Stupendous Sum of \$21,000,000,000 for War Expenses  
Two Huge Liberty Loans Greatly Oversubscribed by Patriotic Americans  
Tremendous Undertakings in Shipyards, Arsenals, Cantonments and Industries  
200,000 American Troops Rushed to France, with Millions More in Training

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Germany Outrages Humanity by Sinking All Ships Without Warning  
By Foulest Means, Germany Seeks to Gain a Victory Before Americans Arrive  
Socialists' Revolution Overturns Russian Empire—Czar Abdicates Throne  
Italy Suffers Disastrous Defeat at Caporetta, Due to Socialists' Treachery  
German Armies in France Retreat 25 Miles to the Hindenberg Line  
British Armies Liberate the Holy Land and Occupy Jerusalem  
King Constantine of Greece Abdicates in Favor of His Son  
Germany Conspires to Embroil America in War with Mexico and Japan  
Peace Proposals by Germany and by Pope Benedict XV Are Rejected

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### Survey of Events in the Year 1917

**T**HE doom of Kaiserism was decreed in 1917 when the United States Government, its patience at last exhausted, summoned the manhood of the nation to the colors, pledging all our resources of men and wealth in defense of ordered liberty throughout the world.

Dire catastrophe had befallen Europe just prior to America's entry in the War. The mighty Empire of Russia had collapsed, in consequence of a widespread Socialist Revolution; but the wine of freedom had stupefied the suddenly liberated peasants and artisans, and they had proved easy dupes for the pro-German Bolsheviks among them, who quickly usurped the reins of government and inaugurated a reign of terror. The elimination of Russia as a factor in the War enabled Germany to transfer to the Western front a million or more veteran soldiers whom she used effectively on the Italian, French and Belgian battle-fronts.



With the aid of her Bolshevist emissaries, and by employing all the arts of duplicity, Germany succeeded in corrupting a section of the hitherto invincible Italian Army. Disaster to Italian arms resulted.

With Russia, Roumania and Serbia destroyed in the East, and Italy wavering in the West, the dream of world dominion once again obsessed the mind of the Kaiser. His military and naval chiefs, however, did not share his delusions. They had foreseen the ultimate defeat of Germany as far back as 1914, when the Legions of France had humbled their pride in the Battle of the Marne. They had viewed with apprehension the steady growth of the English Army on the Western front. They had not yet recovered from the humiliation of being driven back to the new Hindenberg line a few months before.

Most of all, the German war chiefs feared the virile young Republic in the West, America, which was destined to espouse the common cause of humanity. Once the militant forces of America were assembled on European soil, the death-knell would be sounded to Germany's hopes of world dominion. The slim chance remained of striking a quick vital blow at both France and England before America could enter the War.

With 1,000,000 soldiers fresh from the Eastern battle front available for immediate use, Germany might crumple up and destroy the French resistance beyond repair. With her augmented fleet of submarines, she might also destroy the commerce of the sea and starve England into submission.

A moral obstacle stood in the way of the destruction of England's commerce—Germany's solemn promise to America that she would sink no more merchant vessels without warning. A violation of that promise might provoke America to wrath, even into a declaration of war.

The German High Command, however, conjectured that perhaps the seas might be swept clear of ships before America could organize an effective army and transport it to France. They deemed the risk worth taking, in view of the advantages that might accrue to them, since a German victory might mean the acquisition by Germany of the Russian Empire, the restoration of Germany's African colonies, control of the Balkans, ownership of Palestine, Arabia, Egypt, Persia and finally India.

It was agreed that in this submarine warfare, Germany would be untrammelled with any scruples, would ignore all the laws of God and man, would achieve her victory at any cost. Germany, therefore, in defiance of the majesty and might of our Republic, ruthlessly sank the unarmed vessels of all nations without warning and in so doing invited her own destruction.

The wrath of America, so slow to provocation, was at length aroused. War was declared; the man power, the wealth, the resources of America were mobilized.

Before six months had passed, an army of 200,000 American soldiers was landed on French soil, and millions more were in training at various concentration camps. American destroyers were hunting down the German submarines and American shipyards were producing ships faster than Germany could sink them.

We now know that the principal prize of war which filled the vision of the German rulers was the vast domain of Russia. They hoped for an easy victory over the Russian Army, followed by the downfall of the Romanoff dynasty and the annexation of all Russia to the German Empire. Failing to conquer Russia by force of arms, they plotted her destruction by treachery. With the aid of German Jewish Socialists, they incited the Russian radicals and the Socialist faction in the Russian Army to seize the Czar's person, overthrow the Russian Parliament, and usurp the reins of government.

At first the moderate Socialists were in control, but soon the radical Bolsheviks, led by German Jewish emissaries, many of them out of America, gained the ascendancy. Kerensky was deposed from the leadership, and Lenine and Trotzky became dictators of Christian Russia.

The first concern of the Jewish Bolsheviks was to attempt the destruction of the Christian Church in Russia; their next was to arrange a fictitious "peace" with Germany, in which the interests of Russia were shamefully betrayed. Lenine boasted that his "revolution" was financed by German bankers. A reign of terror ensued; thousands of worthy Russians were massacred; property was confiscated; industry paralyzed.

Harsh as had been the autocratic rule of the Czars, it was mild in comparison with that of the Bolshevik regime. The deluded peasantry and the artisans of Russia were either starved into submission, or massacred without compassion if they rebelled. Famine, plagues, anarchy and chaos loomed large on the Russian horizon before the end of the year 1917.

The conquest of the Holy Land, and the expulsion of the Turks from Jerusalem by an English Army in command of Gen. Allenby was an outstanding achievement in 1917. By a happy coincidence, the entry of the English Army into Jerusalem was made just before Christmas Day. The holy sites and temples which the Turks had desecrated for 673 years were thus restored to Christendom.



Germany's diplomatic efforts to effect a "peace of conquest" in 1917 proved abortive. Pope Benedict XV also advanced a plan for bringing the belligerents together, but it proved unacceptable to the Allies, whose chief spokesman was President Wilson.

To offset the disaster to Italian arms, due to Socialistic plottings, the Allies on the Western front drove the Germans out of the trenches they had occupied for three years, compelling a retirement to the new Siegfried or Hindenberg line. The events of the War in 1917 are herewith presented in their chronological order and in much detail.

ALL SEAS—FEB. 1

## Germany Begins Her Unrestricted Submarine Warfare

United States Adopts a Policy of "Armed Neutrality," Germans Sink 7,000 Vessels

SECTION 2—1917

GERMANY, with feverish speed, had been multiplying her fleets of submarines, with the secret intention of destroying the ships of all nations that sailed the seas. Especially the Huns hoped to isolate England from her sources of food supply and starve her into submission.

On January 31st, Count von Bernstorff, the German Ambassador to the United States, notified this Government that on the following day, February 1st, Germany would inaugurate a new policy of unrestricted submarine warfare.

A zone had been drawn around the British Isles, also along the coast of France, and the shores of the Mediterranean Sea. One channel, leading through the Dardanelles to Constantinople, had been excepted.

All enemy ships of any character that entered this zone, whether merchant marine, passenger, or battleships, and all neutral vessels suspected of carrying contraband goods, were to be sunk without warning.

There was to be no distinction made between the ships of enemy nations and those of neutrals. No assurance was given that innocent passengers and seamen on board these vessels would be rescued.

Germany had reverted to the practice of black piracy, putting to the blush the classic operations of the Algerian and Spanish buccaneers.

## United States Breaks with Germany

PRESIDENT WILSON, who had shown the Huns every consideration since the sinking of the Lusitania and the Sussex, at once took the suitable action which resulted in America's participation in the War.

In a message to Congress, received on February 26th, the President proposed a policy of "armed neutrality," asking authority of Congress to arm American ships for defense, while expressing the hope that "it would not be necessary to put forces anywhere into action."

Twelve United States Senators, by their votes, prevented the passage of an act of authorization before Congress was prorogued on March 4th. The President thereupon called a special session of Congress to meet on April 2d. At this session of Congress it was agreed that all American merchant vessels should be armed under the authority of the general powers vested in the President.

Before Congress met in April, Germany threw down the gauntlet to all mankind, and there was no further hesitancy in adopting a declaration of war on April 6th.

Great Britain, in the meantime, in order to cope with the new submarine peril, had laid new mine fields in the North Sea, and established a new zone of danger for vessels of all nations.



### Pres. Wilson Refuses to Interne Submarines

THE Allied nations now appealed to all neutral nations, including the United States, to forbid belligerent submarine vessels, "whatever the purpose to which they are put," from making use of neutral ports, roadsteads and waters, and in the event of such belligerent vessels visiting neutral ports, to interne them.

President Wilson replied that the Allied Governments "had not set forth any circumstances, nor is the Government of the United States at present aware of any circumstances, concerning the use of war or merchant submarines which would render the existing rules of international law inapplicable to them," adding that "in so far as the treatment of either war or merchant submarines in American waters is concerned, the Government of the United States reserves its liberty of action in all respects and will treat such vessels as, in its opinion, becomes the action of a power which may be said to have taken the first steps toward establishing the principles of neutrality." Finally, the President held that it was the duty of belligerents to protect their own coasts from enemy submarines.

### 183 Vessels Sunk in a Month

IN the first month of unrestricted submarine warfare, 183 ships were sunk; of these 110 were British, 51 were neutrals, 20 were Allied ships, and two were American. From February 25th, to July 22d, Great Britain lost 745 vessels, with a combined tonnage of 2,650,000. Between August 5, 1917, and January 27, 1918, Great Britain lost 480 vessels, representing 6,435,000 tons burden. The losses of neutrals were heavy.

### First American Vessels Sunk

On January 1st, the Cunard liner *Ivernia* was torpedoed in the Mediterranean Sea while conveying troops. Four officers and 146 men, as well as 33 members of the crew, were lost.

The American steamer *Housatonic* was sunk on February 3d, near the Scilly Islands, without loss of life.

The White Star liner *Afric* was sunk by a submarine on February 13th.

The sailing schooner *Lyman M. Law* was torpedoed off the coast of Sardinia, in the Mediterranean, on February 12th, without loss of life.

The steamer *Vigilancia* went down with a loss of 15 men on March 6th.

The steamer *City of Memphis* was torpedoed on March 18th.

The steamer *Illinois* was sunk March 18th.

The steamer *Healdton*, bound from Philadelphia to Rotterdam, was sunk without warning on the North Sea, on March 21st, with a loss of 21 members of her crew, seven of whom were Americans.

The American armed ship *Aztec* was sunk in the submarine zone on April 2d, with 28 of her crew.

The American steamer *Missourian* went down on April 4th, in the Mediterranean.

The *Seward* was sunk on April 7th, in the Mediterranean.

The schooner *Percy Birdsall* was torpedoed on April 24th, the crew being saved.

The schooner *Woodward Abrahams* was sent to the bottom on April 26th.

The oil tanker *Vacuum* was sunk off the north coast of Ireland on April 28th, 17 of her crew dying of exposure in the lifeboats.

On May 2d, the steamer *Rockingham* was sunk, two of her crew being lost.

In May, six other American armed boats were sunk—the *Hilonian*, *Harpagus*, *Dirigo*, *Frances M.*, *Barbara*, and *Margaret B. Rouss*.

Between June 12th and July 16th, these eight American vessels were sunk: The *Hansau*, *Haverford*, *Bay State*, *Moreni*, *Petrolite*, *Massapequa*, *Orleans*, and *Grace*.

On September 7th the Atlantic transport liner *Minnehaha* was sunk off the Irish coast.

On October 16th the American transport *Antilles*, westbound from France, was sunk by a submarine and 67 lives were lost.

The patrol boat *Alcede*, formerly a steam yacht, was torpedoed and sunk on November 5th.

On November 19th the United States destroyer *Chancey* was sunk in a collision, 21 lives being lost.

On December 6th the United States destroyer *Jacob Jones* was sunk by a U-boat and 60 lives were lost.



WESTERN THEATER, FEB. 1—APR. 6

## German Armies Retreat 25 Miles to New Hindenberg Line

As They Withdraw, the Vandals Wantonly Destroy 2,000 Villages, Towns and Cities

SECTION 3—1917

Allied Forces, 2,500,000

Gen. Robert Nivelle, Commander-in-Chief

British Armies—Gen. Sir Douglas Haig, Commander

French Armies—Gen. d'Esperey, Commander

German Forces, 2,500,000

Gen. von Hindenberg, Commander

Gen. von Ludendorff, Chief of Staff

**G**ERMANY was compelled to relax her grip on the throat of France, in the spring of 1917, only to acquire a fresh and firmer hold.

It was in March, just on the eve of a formidable offensive planned by the French and British forces, when the German armies suddenly evacuated their ghastly, crumbling trench positions on the Ancre-Somme front and retreated eastward, at depths varying from five to twenty-five miles, until they had gained the security of the new fortified zone, known variously as the Siegfried or Hindenberg line, which curved southeast from Arras 100 miles to Soissons.

As they retreated, the vandals wantonly destroyed everything in their path, reducing to ashes 2,000 villages, towns, and cities in Central France, and leaving in their wake no roof, or tree, or shrub.

This evacuation restored to France 1,000 square miles of territory, once rich in verdure and teeming with life, but now a blackened desolate waste, with only the myriad pillars of smoke to indicate where populous and prosperous towns once had stood. Its immediate military effect was to shorten the Western battle line by 40 miles. Inasmuch as 300,000 cover troops were thus released from the old sectors, the striking force of both armies in the restricted area of battle was by so much improved.

Ever since the Battle of the Somme was brought to its indecisive close by the torrential floods of November, the Allies had been planning on a colossal scale for the resumption of their offensive in the spring. Throughout the winter, a million soldier-artisans had been employed in laying the groundwork for the coming assault, which it was confidently believed would result in the dis-

persion of the Kaiser's armies. Hundreds of miles of railroad extension had been laid to facilitate the movement of troops and supplies behind the line. Immense munition depots had been erected. Plank roads had been laid across the muddled terrain. The assemblage of artillery was greater than had been attempted hitherto on the Western front, the British alone having 4,000 field guns in position along their frontier.

### A Garrison of Gibbering Lunatics

THESE elaborate preparations were destined to come to naught. The Germans, well aware of the magnitude of the Allied offensive, and realizing that their own line could not long withstand the pounding of the Allied guns, decided to forestall the Allied attack by adroitly retreating to the Hindenberg line, where they expected to "regain the aggressive initiative." With characteristic egotism, they described their retirement as a "Retreat to Victory." It was, nevertheless, a compulsory retreat and in effect an acknowledgement of defeat in the Somme Battle.

The Germans were compelled, for other than strategic reasons, to vacate the position in the Somme-Ancre sectors which they had held for three years. Their whole battle front was become a charnel house too horrible for human nerves to withstand. The ceaseless pounding of the British guns had churned up the ground in the German defense zone from five to sixty feet in depth. These pits were now filled with mud, and in the bottomless depths of these mud holes, hundreds of German soldiers had been swallowed alive. Wherever the eye could reach throughout that devastated region, no sprig of grass, no sign of tree, no weed even, met the vision.



Toward the butte of Warlencourt, one reached "Hell's own acres," where the water covering the slime in the crater beds had become reddened with blood. Bodies littered the region for miles around in all imaginable conditions and position; arms sticking full length out of mud; terrible faces grimacing at the trenches; legs, feet, and half bodies protruding everywhere.

Day after day, the dead had been simply tossed out of the German trenches into the open and as often blown back again in fragments by the explosion of the British shells.

All the German communication trenches had been smashed by the British guns as fast as dug. Food and ammunition supplies had to be carried at night in the open across the shell-swept, pitted field, and since the British shells never ceased falling in the battle area, the needed supplies rarely reached the German trenches.

What with the fear of slow starvation or sudden death in the muddied pits, and with the gruesome spectacle of the dead forever before their eyes, the German soldiers had all but lost their reason when the time came to withdraw. They were become as a "garrison of gibbering lunatics." Their retirement was rather a retreat to sanity than a "retreat to victory."

#### German Retirement Begins

EARLY in February, the Germans had quietly evacuated one important sector on the Ancre front, all unknown to the British, whose guns for a week or more continued to bombard the empty German trenches. Hence, the subsequent British Infantry advance was destined to converge on emptiness.

Soon the whole sector was in motion and by February 21st the British had captured the villages of Beaucourt, Beaumont, Baillecourt, Grand Court, and the outskirts of Serre.

On February 24th, under cover of a curtain of mist, the Germans began a partial retirement in the sector between Gommecourt and Le Transloy. Pressing close on their heels, the British on the same day swept into possession of Serre, Miraumont, Pys, and Petit Miraumont. Two days later, the British regained Warlencourt and Irles.

All that remained of these towns were huge heaps of pulverized stone and brick.

The northern pivot of the German retreat was taken on February 28th, when the British entered Gommecourt.

#### British Enter Bapaume and Peronne

EARLY in March, the general retirement of the German Armies set in along the great salient from Lille and Arras to Rheims. Troops now fought in the open, for the first time in two years, and cavalry was used on a large scale. On March 17th, the British and French troops forced a German retirement in three places on a front of 45 miles.

After stiff fighting with the German rear-guard, the British entered Bapaume and the French occupied both Roye and Lassigny.

By March 18th, the Allied Armies had advanced ten miles and "liberated" the hideous ruins of 70 villages and towns. Peronne, Chaulny, and Nesle were soon occupied by the British, while the French took Noyon, the largest of all the strategic centers to fall.

#### German Vandalism in France

THE Germans spared nothing in the path of their retreat. Every village throughout the countryside was destroyed with systematic and detailed destruction. In Bapaume and Peronne, they had blown up or burned all the houses which were untouched by shell fire, but in scores of villages they laid waste the cottages, the little farms and the orchards of the poor peasants.

In the cities they blew out the fronts of houses, and with picks and axes smashed mirrors, furniture, and picture frames. In the country, not only were the farmhouses destroyed, but fruit trees throughout the whole zone were either cut down or so mutilated that they would perish. Agricultural implements which could not be removed were broken up with sledge hammers or burned. Spokes of cartwheels and other vehicles were sawed off.

Thousands of French civilians succumbed to exposure and slow starvation, the greatest mortality resulting from a barbarous system of "inspection" which the Germans employed. Having first concentrated the French civilians in great camps, the Ger-



mans then ordered the peasants to present themselves at a given date for final identification. Although the temperature ranged from zero to 9 below zero, everyone—the sick carried on stretchers, the exhausted and the infirm borne on the shoulders of their less helpless friends—was forced to enter an open square and wait there in the freezing cold winter weather for six hours, until some superior German officer had arrived to take charge. At Chaulny, where 6,000 women and children and aged men underwent such an ordeal, hundreds died from pneumonia or pleurisy. The same was true of other concentration centers.

### **The Looting of French Cities**

IN some towns, weeks before the German retreat began, the population was massed in cottages, 20 or 30 persons being crowded in a single room, without heat and almost without food. As the looting proceeded, thousands of moving vans carried off to Germany furniture and valuables belonging to the thrifty people of France. Not a cow, or horse, or pig, or chicken, was overlooked by these thievish vandals. Every living animal had been killed, eaten or carried off by the Germans.

The impression of a stricken and scourged land was deepened by the endless miles of flooded country in the Valleys of the Oise and Ailette, where the waters of canals had been used to flood the land and to create great desolate areas, waveless and dead.

### **Women and Girls Carried Off Captives**

FROM Noyon, every woman and girl between the ages of 13 and 30 had been carried off into German captivity nine days before the retreat began. The survivors, crowded in cellars, had many hideous tales to tell. None of the French civil population had been given meat of any kind to eat for 17 months; all the captives had been restricted to a diet of black bread and rice. In consequence of this harsh dietary, thousands had died of starvation, the mortality among children being appalling. Children had been required to sleep in their unwashed clothes, without mattresses, pillows or coverings, all through that bitter cold winter. No words

can describe the filthiness of these children when found by their compatriots.

The vandalism of the Prussians exceeded that of their ancestors, the Vandals, Huns, Tartars, and Mongols. Thousands of pretty and prosperous villages had been destroyed for the barbaric joy of destroying. Even the vandalic destruction witnessed in Belgium was less dreadful than that in France. In the fields, as in the towns, there was systematic ruin. Near the debris of each wrecked farmhouse, there was the inevitable record of ruined utensils, choked up wells and of orchards with prostrate fruit trees.

Sacrilegious acts were of frequent occurrence. Graves in numerous cemeteries were evacuated of their dead and not infrequently a tomb had been violated, a coffin opened, then emptied of its remains and filled with filth.

German "high authorities," in their attempt to forestall neutral criticism, described these acts of vandalism as "a war measure dictated by military necessity!" This from a nation which, as a signatory at the Hague Convention, had given a "guaranty against abuse of person or property!"

### **Germans Reach the Hindenberg Line**

THE German retreat ended on April 5th, when the new Hindenberg line was reached. In evacuating the Somme Basin, the Germans had destroyed 2,000 towns, cities and villages. In order to hinder the Allied pursuit, they had uprooted every stretch of railroad, demolished every stone wall, leveled every building, razed every tree in their path. A thaw had set in, converting the roads into rivers of mud and hampering the Allied operations. It was especially difficult to bring forward the Allied field guns, but this feat, though delayed, was finally accomplished.

The so-called Hindenberg line, to which the Germans had retreated, was a fortified zone, 12 miles deep, consisting of parallel trench lines, covered with vast meshes of barbed wire and lined with immense concrete gun positions so spaced as to permit of deadly cross-fire upon attacking troops.

Behind the main line there were support or "switch" lines, in which entire groups



of armies might hide while enemy armies were attacking the front line.

The pivots of this line were Vimy Ridge, near Arras, in the North, and the Craonne Plateau, just above Soissons, in the south-east. The Douai Plain, through which it extends in its 120-mile course, is cut with many canals and rivers, which in themselves constituted a difficult barrier for an attacking army to overcome, affording especial protection against tanks. Of these waterways, the

most important were the Canal du Nord and the Scheldt. In addition, the Oise River was transformed into an impassible lake. Besides the water obstacles, there were the Havincourt Woods and Bourlon Woods, overlooking Cambrai and the St. Gobain Forest. Against all these barriers in front of their series of concrete trenches, the Germans expected the Allied attacks would spend themselves in vain. How the Allies assaulted the line is told on Page 302.

..... UNITED STATES, FEBRUARY—APRIL .....

## Germany To Sink All Ships Without Warning

President Wilson At Once Severs Diplomatic Relations—Pacifists Seek to Prevent War  
Ambassador Bernstorff Given His Passports—Sinking of the Laconia the Last Straw

..... SECTION 4—1917 .....

**I**MPERIAL Germany signed her death warrant on the last day of January, 1917, when she announced the withdrawal of her solemn pledge to the United States Government to refrain from sinking any more merchant ships or passenger vessels without warning, coupled with her declaration of intent to resume, on February 1st, her ruthless submarine warfare against the unarmed vessels of all nations.

German presumption even went so far as to propose that only one American passenger vessel each week should be permitted to enter the war zone. In a word, Germany intended to exclude all American shipping from the free seas. Only by Hun concession would any maritime intercourse be permitted between America and Europe.

Even this brazen decree, which flouted the sovereignty of our Republic, was not held to be sufficient cause for war. It was only when Germany lent reality to her threat by sinking several unarmed American vessels, that public opinion in America crystallized in a declaration of war.

### America's First Warning to Germany

GERMANY had been duly warned by President Wilson that she would be held to "strict accountability" for her criminal acts of submarine piracy, but the colossal conceit of the German rulers had led them to believe that

America either dared not enter the War or else, in the event of her participation therein, she would prove a negligible factor.

When previously held to account for the deliberate sinking of defenceless ships entailing the loss of American lives, Germany had resorted to cunning disclaimers of liability or to evasive apologies. But after the Sussex had been torpedoed, on March 24th, with the resultant loss of precious American lives, President Wilson wrung from the dastard Huns a pledge that in future such vessels, both within and without the area indicated as a naval war zone, would not be sunk without warning or without the proper safeguarding of passengers and crews, unless the doomed ships should attempt to escape or offer resistance.

This solemn covenant was accepted in good faith by President Wilson, but we now know that the Huns had no intention of keeping their pledges. On the contrary, if it suited their sinister purposes, they would have violated all the laws of God and of nations. Moreover, the misguided German agents in America had assured Kaiser Wilhelm that President Wilson could not hope for re-election and that his successor in the Presidency might prove more amenable to German suggestions.

The American pacifists, too, seemed to be gaining ground and there was a group of



pro-German servants in the halls of Congress who could be relied upon to oppose any hasty declaration of war. Above all, Germany expected to win the War through her ruthless submarine policy long before America could train an effective army for service on the Western front.

Germany, therefore, repudiated her solemn pledges, and needlessly affronted America, by limiting the sailings of America's merchant marine to one vessel a week from New York to Falmouth, with the extra concession of an occasional American vessel sailing through the Mediterranean Sea to Athens.

### Diplomatic Relations Ruptured

AMERICA was so aroused by the audacity of the German decree that the national voice grew distinctly belligerent. President Wilson deliberated three days before taking official action. Then, on February 3d, he sent a ringing note to Congress, declaring that no other alternative, consistent with the dignity and honor of the United States, remained but to hand the German Ambassador, Count von Bernstorff, his passports and recall Ambassador Gerard from Berlin. Still there remained in the President's mind the same misplaced faith in the brutalized German people, for he added:

"I cannot bring myself to believe that they will, indeed, pay no regard to the ancient friendship between their people and our own, or to the solemn obligations which have been exchanged between them, and destroy American ships and take the lives of American citizens in the willful prosecution of the ruthless naval program they have announced their intention to adopt. Only actual overt acts on their part can make me believe it even now. If this inveterate confidence on my part in the sobriety and prudent foresight of their purpose should unhappily prove unfounded, if American ships and American lives should in fact be sacrificed by their naval commanders in needless contravention of the just and reasonable understanding of international law and the obvious dictates of humanity, I shall take the liberty of coming again before the Congress to ask that authority be given me to use any means that may be necessary for the protection of our

seamen and our people in the prosecution of their peaceful and legitimate errands on the high seas. I can do nothing less. I take it for granted that all neutral governments will take the same course.

"We do not desire any hostile conflict with the Imperial German Government. We are the sincere friends of the German people and earnestly desire to remain at peace with the government which speaks for them. We shall not believe it, and we purpose nothing more than the reasonable defense of the undoubted right of our people. We wish to serve no selfish ends; we seek merely to stand true alike in thought and in actions to the immemorial principles of our people which I have sought to express in my address to the Senate only two weeks ago—seek merely to vindicate our right to liberty and justice and an unmolested life. Those are the bases of peace, not war. God grant that we may not be challenged to defend them by acts of willful injustice on the part of the Government of Germany."

Ambassador von Bernstorff, accordingly, was given his passports on February 3, 1917, and on the same day President Wilson announced the complete severance of relations with Germany.

### Sinking of Lucania and Other Overt Acts

THE Huns, while continuing to sink defenceless American vessels, still moved with a degree of caution after the severance of diplomatic relations. True, they had sunk the American freighter *Housatonic*, off the Scilly Isles, on February 3d, but first they had given warning of their intention, permitting the crew to take to life boats which they towed 90 miles toward land. It was explained that the *Housatonic* was warned because she had left the home port before the date set for the new submarine policy to go into effect. Thenceforward, no concessions were to be made to other boats.

A day or two later the British merchantman *Evestone* was sunk without warning and the crew were shelled as they took to the boats. An American seaman on the *Evestone* was killed by the gunfire; President Wilson, however, did not regard this outrage as a sufficient cause for war.



### The California Torpedoed

AMERICA'S anger flared up again when the Anchor line steamship California, with 230 passengers aboard, was sunk without warning off the Irish coast, 41 lives being lost. Although no American casualties resulted, the incident left a bad impression on the American mind, since the German submarine crew made no effort to save the lives of the doomed passengers.

Thirty American cattlemen were on board the Japanese Prince when it was sunk, but all were saved. Seven American seamen barely saved their lives when the sailing vessel Lyman M. Law, laden with lumber from Maine to Italy, was sunk without warning off the coast of Sardinia.

### Sinking of Lucania a Cause for War

THE series of overt acts against American vessels culminated in the destruction, without warning, of the Cunard liner Lucania, which was torpedoed in the Irish Sea at 10.30 p. m., February 25, 1917. Three American passengers, including a mother and her daughter, were drowned, and the survivors were adrift all night in the rough sea before being rescued.

### Swiss Minister as the Tool of Germany

ONE week after Count von Bernstorff was handed his passports, Dr. Paul Ritter, the Swiss Minister, to whom the protection of German interests in America had been intrusted, made overtures for the resumption of diplomatic relations with Germany. Under instructions from President Wilson, Secretary Lansing notified Dr. Ritter "that the Government of the United States would gladly discuss with the German Government any questions it might propose for discussion were it to withdraw its proclamation of January 31st in which, suddenly and without previous intimation of any kind, it canceled the assurances which it had given this Government on May 4, 1916, but that it does not feel that it can enter into any discussion with the German Government concerning the policy of submarine warfare against neutrals which it is now pursuing unless and until the German Government renews its assurances of May 4th and acts upon them." No interchanges took place on the subject.

### American Pacifists Take a Hand

THE German Government subsequently denied that these overtures by Dr. Ritter were made with their approval, declaring that no recession of the submarine policy had been thought of or proposed.

Later it was alleged that Dr. Ritter had acted solely upon the persuasion of a coterie of American pacifists, including William Jennings Bryan, the former Secretary of State, who had hoped, in this way, to avert the threatened hostilities. Part of the pacifists' program was to intercede with Germany in the hope of abating the German submarine policy. This meddling with Governmental affairs on the part of the pacifists was considered both illegal and offensive, but they were neither prosecuted nor censured.

### Arming American Freight Vessels

ON THE day following the sinking of the Lucania, Feb. 26, 1917, President Wilson addressed Congress, in joint session, asking authority to use the armed forces of the United States to protect American rights on the high seas. He desired, not an actual declaration of war, but to establish a state of "armed neutrality." He in fact averred that Germany had not yet committed the overt act which would provoke to war. Our commerce, he said, has suffered, was suffering rather in apprehension than in fact, rather because so many of our ships were timidly keeping to their home ports than because American ships had been sunk. Nevertheless, he thought it would be foolish to deny that the situation was fraught with the gravest possibilities and dangers. Hence, he sought from Congress "full and immediate assurance of the authority which I may need at any moment to exercise."

While the President was addressing Congress, news of the sinking of the Lucania the day before was received. The President at once decided that the destruction of this passenger vessel, in the dead of night and in rough seas, without warning and with the consequent loss of American lives, constituted a clear cut violation of the pledge given to this country by Germany after the sinking of the Lusitania and the Sussex.



UNITED STATES AND MEXICO—FEB.

## Germany Seeks to Embroil Us in War with Mexico and Japan

Congress Called In Extra Session—Armed-Ship Bill Passes Senate—Group of

“Wilful Senators” Oppose Plan of Protecting American Vessels

SECTION 5—1917

**P**UBLIC sentiment in America being by this time thoroughly aroused, the nation looked to Congress for immediate action. Before the Armed-Ship Bill was reported in Congress on Feb. 28th, by the Foreign Affairs Committee, the nation was profoundly stirred by the publication of evidence proving that Germany not only had made overtures to Mexico with the purpose of forming an alliance in the event of war with the United States, but also had sought to intrigue Japan in the plot.

The evidence was disclosed in the form of a communication, addressed by Foreign Secretary Zimmerman to the German Minister von Eckhardt at Mexico City, which had been intercepted by the American Secret Service.

After informing von Eckhardt of Germany's decision to carry out the policy of unrestricted submarine warfare, Zimmerman explained that Germany hoped, nevertheless, to persuade the United States of America to remain neutral. If this plan should miscarry, Germany proposed that Mexico unite with her in war against the United States, promising Mexico financial support, and suggesting that Mexico reconquer and hold her lost territory in New Mexico, Texas and Arizona.

In the event that the United States should declare war against Germany, the President of Mexico, on his own initiative, was urged to communicate with Japan, suggesting adherence at once to this plan. At the same time he was asked to mediate between Germany and Japan.

The note closed with the characteristic prediction that “the employment of ruthless submarine warfare now promises to compel England to make peace in a few months.”

### Armed-Ship Bill Blocked in the Senate

GERMANY'S treachery needing no further proof, and the Mexican plot being equivalent

to a declaration of war, the Armed-Ship Bill reported by the Foreign Affairs Committee was passed in the lower house of Congress on March 1st, by a vote of 403 to 13, going then to the Senate, where it was substituted for the Senate Committee's bill, conferring larger powers on the President.

The House had expected the Senate to pass a bill of its own as a substitute and it was the intention of the House leaders to accept the Senate's measure upon its reference to them for passage.

### Senators La Follette and Stone Show Hands

UNFORTUNATELY, a group of filibusters, opposed to America's participation in the War, succeeded in blocking the bill.

On March 1st, when the Armed-Ship Bill was read in the Senate, Senator La Follette of Wisconsin objected to its immediate consideration and, under the rule of unanimous consent, he refused to permit the bill to proceed except on the condition that no attempt would be made to pass it before the next day.

Senator Stone of Missouri joined with La Follette in opposing the bill. He proposed an amendment excluding all munition ships from the privilege of armed protection.

A small group of Western Senators also opposed the bill, balking every effort to limit the debate or set a time for the vote.

Congress had to adjourn not later than March 4, 1917, and these filibusters, by parliamentary tactics, succeeded in preventing a vote being taken on the measure before adjournment.

Seventy-five loyal Senators, however, informally put themselves on record in support of the measure, signing a manifesto favoring the passage of the bill. They further declared that the Senate favored the legislation 75 to 12 and would pass it if a vote could be obtained, but this was impossible

at the moment because of the filibuster methods of the Western Senators, who had the right of unlimited debate under the Senate rules.

### **The "Wilful Group" of Senators**

THE Armed-Ship Bill went down to defeat because of the obstructions offered by this group of willful men:—Senators La Follette of Wisconsin, Norris of Nebraska, Cummins of Iowa, Stone of Missouri, Gronna of North Dakota, Kirby of Arkansas, Vardaman of Mississippi, O'Gorman of New York, Works of California, Jones of Washington, Clapp of Minnesota, Lane of Oregon—seven Republicans and five Democrats.

### **Cloture Rule Agreed Upon**

PRESIDENT WILSON denounced the action of these Senators in passionate language, urging that the rules of the Senate be altered so as to supply the means of Congressional action. Pursuant to his request, when the new Senate of the 65th Congress met in extraordinary session at noon, on March 6th, both parties took steps to frame a revision of the rules for the prevention of filibustering.

A cloture rule was agreed upon, empowering the Senate to bring debate on any measure to an end by a two-thirds vote and limiting all speeches to one hour each. Before any cloture rule might be put in force, moreover, sixteen Senators must first make the request in the form of a signed motion presented two days previously.

This rule passed the Senate on March 8th. The Senators who opposed the bill were castigated by the press and public opinion throughout America, but were highly complimented by the German press.

### **Armed Neutrality Enforced**

PRESIDENT WILSON was not to be thwarted in his purpose to give protection to Ameri-

can merchant vessels and their crews. Under authority of an old act, passed in 1819, permitting ships to carry arms as a defense against piratical attacks, he announced that every merchant ship so desiring would be provided with guns and the naval gunners to operate them. All the Allied and neutral nations were thereupon notified that America had adopted a policy of "armed neutrality."

### **Congress Called in Extra Session**

PRESIDENT WILSON, on March 9th, had fixed on April 16th as the date for the new Congress to convene in extra session, the previous Congress having been unable to pass certain appropriations imperatively needed for the Army, owing to the Senate filibuster. German submarine activities, however, compelled an earlier assembly of Congress.

On March 12th, the unarmed steamer *Algonquin*, with a crew of 27, of whom ten were Americans, was shelled and sunk without warning, though no lives were lost. On March 16th, the *Vigilancia* was sunk, with 15 of her crew, including five Americans. The next day, the *City of Memphis*, returning to the United States in ballast, was first shelled and then torpedoed off the Irish coast. Her crew of 57, escaping in five boats, were picked up by a steamer. On March 18th, the *Illinois*, also a ballast, was torpedoed.

It was now apparent, even to the pacifists, that the policy of armed neutrality on the part of the United States did not suffice. At a meeting of the Cabinet, on March 20, 1917, it was decided that Congress should be called at an earlier day than the time appointed and that a declaration of war against Germany should then be made.

On the next day, President Wilson issued a proclamation calling upon Congress to assemble on April 2d, "to receive a communication concerning grave matters of national policy."



EASTERN THEATER, MAR. 15—JULY 20

## Revolution In Russia Compels the Abdication of Czar Nicholas

Kerensky Becomes Dictator—Czar and Family Imprisoned—Church Property Confiscated—Murder of Rasputin, the Mystic—German Peace Proposal Declined

SECTION 6—1917

**T**HE Ides of March, 1917—an ominous day in the ancient Roman Kalends—saw ushered in a sequence of events tremendous in their import and harbingers all of a world's rebirth.

It was the month that witnessed the overthrow of the autocratic Russian Empire by an oppressed people; that saw the end of Turkish rule in Syria, Palestine, Persia and Mesopotamia; that marked the beginning of Hindenberg's retreat in France; that heard the open declaration by the Chancellor of Germany that the people henceforth must be consulted in affairs of government, and, most momentous of all, heard the President of the United States issue a call for a special session of Congress to declare war against the common foe of humanity.

The sudden dissolution of the Russian Empire; the overthrow of Czardom; the quick seizure of the reins of government by moderate Socialists; the spoliation of the Christian church in Russia; the betrayal of the Revolution by paid German agents, and the final fatal plunge into the red abyss of anarchy and Bolshevism—all these results were phases of a revolution planned in Germany, and whose ultimate object was to overturn the Christian temples in Russia, establish the reign of Antichrist, and reduce the emancipated serfs to a condition of soviet slavery.

Before reciting in detail the narrative of the Russian Counter Revolution, which was cradled in Germany and directed chiefly by unregenerate Jews, it may not be amiss briefly to refer to the previous efforts of the Russian peoples to emancipate themselves from the tyranny of Czardom.

### Russia's Long Reign of Terror

THE spirit of democracy first asserted itself in Russia at the close of the Crimean War, when the Czar was forced to concede five great measures of reform to the people. These were: the emancipation of the serfs;

the institution of the county councils, or zemstvos; trial by jury; regulation of the public press; and the reorganization of the Army. The reactionary element in Russia, however, regained the ascendancy in 1878, and a reign of terror was inaugurated. Thousands of patriots were banished to Siberia or put to death, for political offenses chiefly. These monstrous acts provoked the assassination of Czar Alexander II on March 13, 1881.

### Revival of Nihilism

ALEXANDER III then ascended the throne and the beginning of his reign was signalized by the massacre of Jewish revolutionaries. A revival of Nihilism followed, with its inevitable sequel of terrorism and bloodshed.

In 1905, after the Russo-Japanese War, when it became known that the defeat of the Russian Army was chiefly due to the treachery of the military clique in misappropriating the funds set aside for the purchase of munitions of war, a reign of bloodshed set in. Strikes, riots and the assassination of officials were of almost daily occurrence.

### Russians Granted a Parliament at Last

IN order to pacify his outraged people, the Czar was constrained to grant them a representative form of government. A Duma, or Parliament, was organized, but the members thereof were not permitted to participate very closely in the affairs of state. Representatives to the Duma were frequently thrown into prison because of their advocacy of measures of reform which displeased the Government. Nevertheless, the Revolution progressed. During this period, the Grand Duke Sergius, an uncle of the Czar, and von Plehve, Minister of the Interior, were assassinated by revolutionaries.

### The Revolution of 1905

ON Jan. 21, 1905, thousands of Petrograd artisans, led by a Russian priest, named Father Capron, marched in peaceful proces-



sion to the Winter Palace to present in person to the "Little Father," Czar Alexander, their petition for constitutional guarantees and for relief from many oppressions. Instead of hearkening to the prayer of the oppressed people, the minions of the Czar ordered the police to fire upon the unarmed petitioners, killing hundreds of them. This massacre served further to inflame the anger of the masses. A general strike was organized, but before it was carried out the Czar promised the people a constitution. As usual he forgot his promise.

The Revolution spread rapidly in Warsaw, Lodz and other industrial centers, gaining a strong footing in the Army and Navy as well. At the port of Odessa, the crew of a Russian battleship mutinied. Seizing the boat, they bombarded the city killing more than 1,000 inhabitants.

Mutiny was rampant in the Army, also, troops murdering their officers and uniting with the revolutionists.

The Government finally succeeded, through the brutal instrumentality of the Minister, Stolypin, in suppressing the Revolution. As a slight concession, the oppressed peasants were given the right to acquire the land which they had hitherto tilled for the benefit of the patrician classes; all were made equal before the law; electoral reforms were promulgated, and certain restrictions concerning the choice of residence on the part of peasants were removed.

These concessions were practically nullified, two years later, after the Revolution had subsided. Additional measures of reaction were adopted in 1909 and oppression once again was the lot of the Russian peasantry.

### Russia in Upheaval When War Broke Out

THE rumblings of Revolution became audible once again in 1913, when an epidemic of strikes broke out in Petrograd, Moscow and other industrial centers. A Congress of Workingmen, meeting at Kiev, in October, passed a resolution censuring the Government. To placate the people, Czar Nicholas removed the abnoxious Premier Stolypin and appointed Goremykin in his stead. Assurances were given that Goremykin would be

more amenable to suggestions from the Duma. The Duma, however, continued hostile to the general policy of the Government and friendly to the people. On May Day, 1914, just three months before the outbreak of the World War, 130,000 Petrograd workers went on strike. The turbulence grew during June and July and the Government attempted to suppress it by force. Cossack troops were ordered to disperse the crowds. The workers, from behind barricades thrown up in the city streets, resisted the soldiery. Again and again the Cossacks charged the workmen, but they failed to disperse them. Russia was on the brink of civil war when the greater conflict suddenly broke out in Serbia and Belgium.

### Tide of Patriotism Sweeps Russia

IN THE twinkling of an eye, the Russian people forgot their grievances against the Czar's government on that August day when Germany declared war on "Little Mother Russia." A tide of patriotism swept the empire. Peasant and proletarian, royalty and bourgeoisie, all joined hands in defense of the Fatherland. Even the Socialists, with the exception of the extreme radical wing, rallied to the cause of the Slav as against the hated Teuton. Thousands of revolutionists who had fled from Russia returned to offer their services to the Czar, suppressing for the moment their animosity toward autocracy at home in the face of the greater danger which threatened the cause of liberty throughout Europe.

Though outwardly the Russians were acting as one, still under the surface there were dark forces at work plotting the betrayal of Russia.

### The German Czarina, and Her Plotters

AT THE head of this clique of pro-Germans was the Czarina, herself a full-blooded German. Associated with the Czarina, there was a group of Russian noblemen, all of German origin and descendants of those courtiers and officials who had come to Russia many years before in the entourage of the German brides of several Czars. Apart from their inherited love for German autocracy, they feared also that Germany's over-



throw by the democracy of Europe would be followed by the destruction of Russia's autocracy. Rather than see the whole fabric of royalty and aristocracy disappear, they secretly plotted to betray Russia into Emperor William's hands.

### Minister of War a Traitor

THESE royal plotters were efficiently aided by the Russian Minister of War, Sukhomlinoff. Through his connivance the traitors managed to withhold military supplies, and especially ammunition, from the armies in the field. This lack of ammunition and rifles was the true cause of the reverses sustained by all the Russian Armies in the opening months of the War. A wave of indignation swept through Russia when it became known that Russian soldiers, lacking rifles, had been ordered to charge and take German and Austrian batteries with their bare hands, and that many Russian regiments had been supplied with defective shells. Sukhomlinoff was arrested, found guilty of "neglect of duty" and deposed from office.

### Czar Dismisses the Duma

THE progressive groups in the Duma then united in a demand for the more efficient conduct of the War. They also asked that a general amnesty be extended to all political prisoners. Finally they prayed the Czar to appoint a Cabinet more in sympathy with democratic ideas.

Premier Goremykin, a pronounced reactionary, not only refused to discuss the program of the progressives, he even induced the Czar to sign a decree, in September, 1915, dissolving the Duma. The Czar promised, however, to convene the Duma on November 14th.

### Russian People in Rebellion

THE Russian people, infuriated at the new proof of treachery on the part of the Government leaders, and still further incensed at the Czar's refusal to appoint a new ministry, fell into a rebellious mood. Strikes were ordered in many cities. The Government attempted to throttle the strikers by martial law, but the day had passed when such autocratic methods could prevail in Russia. The people clamored for a reorganization of the

Army Staff and for recognition in the Government.

No heed being paid to their petitions, and the delinquency of the Government having been proved, the people decided to take over the management of affairs themselves. War committees were formed in many industrial towns to handle the food supplies and take care of the wounded. The Government, in alarm, made certain "concessions." Premier Goremykin was deposed and Boris Sturmer, a German Jew by descent, was appointed his successor.

### Premier Sturmer's Treachery

STURMER represented that powerful faction of the Russian nobility which was ever anxious to conciliate Germany. He inspired those articles appearing in a section of the Russian press, which openly criticized Russia's allies and demanded a separate peace arrangement with the Kaiser. It was alleged that he sent his agents into Switzerland to confer with German representatives on the question of separate peace terms.

After forbidding the revolutionary societies in Russia to hold meetings of protest, Sturmer installed the police in charge of the radical headquarters. Next he caused the removal of M. Sazonoff, the Minister of Foreign Affairs, who had gained the complete confidence of the Allies, himself taking over the portfolio.

The plot thickened when the notorious Alexander D. Protopopoff was appointed as Minister of the Interior. He it was who sought to provoke the radicals to launch a premature uprising, in order to give the Government a pretext for making a separate peace with Germany.

Police agents, disguised as laborers, were sent into the industrial plants to incite the workingmen to revolt. The factories and munition shops, too, were placarded with appeals calling upon the workingmen to inaugurate strikes and organize demonstrations.

### Sturmer Compelled to Resign

SOCIALISTS were urged to rise against their masters and unite with their German "brothers" in founding an "ideal co-operative com-



monwealth." This appeal was promptly denounced as bogus by the true Socialist leaders.

Sturmer's disrepute grew by reason of his mishandling of the food supply. Large stores of provisions were permitted to spoil in the warehouses while the poor residents of the cities were on the verge of starvation. The infamous Sturmer even permitted a group of conscienceless "profiteers" to control the food supplies, sharing with them the huge profits extorted from the people. Denounced in the Duma by Prof. Paul Miliukov, Premier Sturmer was compelled to resign.

Miliukov not only challenged Sturmer's political acts, he proved that Sturmer had accepted bribes from the food speculators and had offered for gold to shield certain Jewish usurers then under indictment. Sturmer took steps to dissolve the Duma, but when on his way to the front to secure the Czar's signature, he was given his dismissal.

### **Protopopoff's Black Acts**

ALEXANDER TREPOV, who succeeded Sturmer as Premier, retained Protopopoff as Minister of the Interior. Protopopoff publicly villified the leaders of the revolutionary forces and even plotted the assassination of Prof. Miliukov. Being in control of the police, he recruited members of the notorious Black Hundred, training them in machine-gun practice against the day when he might bring to pass his premature "uprising" of the masses.

### **Rasputin, the Magnetic Healer**

THERE was living in the palace at Petrograd at this time a peasant named Gregory Novikh, who had achieved some celebrity as a magnetic healer and mystic. He had, it seems, restored the young heir Alexis to health after the child had been pronounced beyond hope of recovery by the court physicians. In gratitude for the service, the Czarina had retained him at court in a semi-medical capacity.

Novikh at once became the target for slander in the most venomous court circle of Europe, outside Vienna. The epithet "Rasputin," meaning a ne'er-do-well, was fastened upon him. He was described as an illiterate,

bibulous monk, of licentious habits, although he never was a monk.

He was said to exert a sinister occult influence over the Czarina, who was a patroness of the occult societies and a firm believer in spiritism.

He was accused of having administered a drug to the Czarevitch before curing him, although this could not possibly have been the case, since the illness of the Czar's son and heir had antedated by weeks the arrival of the healer in Petrograd.

He was said to have used his extraordinary magnetic powers in gaining an ascendancy over the women of the court for various illicit purposes, but the slander was not sustained by a scintilla of evidence.

He was accused of being the tool, first of one and then another leading statesman of Russia, including Count Witte.

He was accused of influencing the Czar's official acts, through the ascendancy he had gained over the Czarina.

Finally, this "illiterate monk," of "unclean habits" and "lowly origin" was pictured as the "real ruler of Russia" and a "secret agent of Germany."

But inasmuch as these libels and slanders were unconfirmed, and are known to have been set in motion by the actual pro-German conspirators in Russia, including the unspeakable court clique and the Jewish Bolsheviks, who started the counter Revolution, with German gold in their pockets, the truth concerning "Rasputin" still awaits the sober scrutiny of impartial historians.

In rebuttal of the many libels uttered against Gregory Novikh, it is simple justice to say that persons high in authority in the court of Petrograd have denied emphatically that "Rasputin" exercised any political sway whatever over the Imperial family; that Czar Nicholas did not know him even by sight, and that the "credulous" Czarina's interest in him was such as she might have bestowed upon any magnetic healer or physician.

Furthermore, it is agreed both by friend and foe of the slandered mystic that up until the outbreak of the World War, "Rasputin" absolutely refrained from participation in political or state affairs. Yet his powerful enemies succeeded in having him expelled



from court on a trumped up charge, and it was only when the heir to the throne and the Czarina both were taken deathly ill that he was summoned back to cure them, which he did.

If the truth concerning Rasputin's expulsion from the Russian court should ever come to light, it will make perfectly clear the reason why the Czar's wife and heir were both suddenly stricken with a mysterious illness some weeks after Rasputin's enemies had banished him. The Nihilist accusers of "Rasputin," both male and female, and those numberless knaves among the "aristocracy" of Petrograd were known to be adepts in the subtle arts of poisoning and violent assassination. They were, moreover, freethinkers and atheists who had a contempt for all things sacred and therefore for men like Rasputin, who professed the Christian faith.

#### Assassination of "Rasputin"

ON the night of December 29th, Prince Yusupov, whose wife was a cousin of the Czar, invited "Rasputin" to dine with him at his palace, bringing him there in his own car. Vladimir Purishkevitch, a notorious leader of the Black Hundred and at that time sitting in the Duma as a "radical," acted as chauffeur.

In a car trailing that of the Prince sat two former Ministers of the Interior, Grand Duke Dimitri Pavlovitch and A. M. Khvostov.

This cowardly quartet, upon arrival at the Prince's house, treacherously shot Rasputin in the back, killing him and afterward sinking his body through a hole cut in the ice of the Neva River. All these criminals went unwhipped of justice for their dastardly crime.

The Czar, then at his headquarters with the Army, hurried home. The body of the murdered mystic was recovered from the river and given Christian burial, the Czar and Protopopoff being among the pallbearers.

#### Conspirators Removed from Office

TREPOV, who had exulted over the murder of "Rasputin," was removed from office, as

were the Ministers of War and Marine. It was said their successors were pro-German and "reactionary" in their sentiments. Protopopoff now began to close the police net around the extreme Socialist agitators, soon to become notorious under the name of "Bolsheviks." His enemies accused him of arresting labor leaders who were agitating against strikes while leaving unmolested his own hirelings, who were preaching strikes and revolution.

Many towns in Russia were now facing actual famine. In response to the clamor of the people, the Duma was convened on February 27th, to consider the economic situation. Instead of suggesting measures of relief, however, the Minister of Agriculture contented himself with assuring the Duma that "all was well." Professor Miliukov accused the Government of deliberately disorganizing the supply of food and war materials. The bureaucracy, he declared, was waging war against the people in order to maintain itself in power. He warned the treacherous reactionaries that the patience of the people was nearly exhausted and that unless relief should speedily come, the people would take their fate in their own control.

Alexander Kerensky, the lawyer-Socialist, whose mother was a Jewess, also warned the Government that an upheaval was imminent. "Its lightning already illumines the horizon," he shouted.

That day 300,000 workingmen went on strike in Petrograd. Their leaders issued an appeal exhorting them to return to work, but they refused. Enormous crowds filled the streets day by day.

On March 8th, mobs surrounded and looted some of the bakers' shops. Groups of Cossacks fraternized with the strikers. Two strikers were arrested, but the Cossacks at once freed them from the police. On March 9th, the street railways ceased running on account of a strike of the workmen. The streets were choked with excited people, clamoring for food, while soldiers patrolled the thoroughfares and squads of police mounted machine-guns on the housetops, covering the street corners. Clearly an outbreak was imminent.



### **Czar Dissolves the Duma**

IN this emergency, President Rodzianko, President of the Duma, telegraphed to the Czar this message:

"Situation serious. Anarchy reigns in Capital. Government is paralyzed. Transport food and fuel supplies are utterly disorganized. General discontent is growing. Disorderly firing is going on in the streets. Various companies of soldiers are shooting at each other. It is absolutely necessary to invest someone who enjoys the confidence of the people, with power to form a new Government. No time must be lost and delay may be fatal. I pray to God that, in this hour, responsibility may not fall on the wearer of the Crown."

### **Duma Ignores the Czar's Order**

ACTING by authority of the Czar, the Prime Minister, Prince Golitzin, prorogued the Duma on March 10th. On the following day, the members of the Duma unanimously voted to ignore the decrees of the Czar. President Rodzianko thereupon declared the Duma the sole constitutional authority of Russia.

### **Red Sunday in Petrograd**

SUNDAY, March 11th, saw the Petrograd populace burning with revolutionary zeal. Hundreds of Socialist orators harangued the hungry crowds, reminding them of the bloody War at the front and the corruption and tyranny of their rulers. At 3 o'clock that afternoon, the police from the roofs of buildings trained their machine-guns on the crowds below. A volley was fired, killing or wounding 100 citizens, including women and children. The Pavlovsky Guards were ordered to fire on the crowds. Instead, they fired over the heads of the people. Returning to their barracks the Guards decided to disobey their officers and side with the people. Meanwhile the Duma had sent telegrams to the Czar asking him to appoint a new Cabinet to cope with the situation, but those telegrams were withheld from the Czar and went unanswered.

### **Soldiers Join the Revolution**

MONDAY, March 12th, found the Petrograd populace in an ugly mood. The Sunday mas-

sacre by the police had inflamed them as never before. Members of the Duma, too, were indignant at the attempt of the Government to dissolve the Parliament in such a crisis. Minister Protopopoff still hoped by force to suppress the rising revolt. The Guards having refused to fire upon the crowds, he resorted to a stratagem. Knowing that the police would do his bidding, he caused them to be disguised as soldiers, in order to deceive the people, and then despatch them to the mill districts, where they shot down the workingmen and women in cold blood.

When the trick was discovered, the soldiers and workmen together fell upon the police and a wholesale slaughter followed. Like wildfire the spirit of Revolution spread among the troops stationed around the Duma building and in the Vyborg district. Many soldiers left the ranks to join their relatives among the strikers. The Lithuanian Guards spitted their officers on their bayonets, while the Volhynian Regiment mutinied and went over to the people en masse. All the other regiments in Petrograd, including the Cosacks,—a total of 25,000 troops—followed suit.

### **Arsenal Seized, Jails Emptied**

HEADED by a regiment of mutinous troops, a column of revolutionists, marching to the Arsenal, dispersed the police, killed the commandant, General Matusov, and confiscated all the rifles, small arms, machine-guns and ammunition. Next the Artillery Depot was captured.

Fully armed, the revolutionists then toured the city in automobiles, seeking out the police whom they killed without mercy.

The Fortress of St. Peter and St. Paul, where so many patriots had been imprisoned and tortured, was seized and all political prisoners were liberated. The jails, too, were emptied.

Then the headquarters of the secret police was stormed, its defenders were butchered in cold blood and the building was burned to the ground.

### **A Constitutional Democracy Announced**

AT the height of the uprising a delegation, representing the revolutionary bodies, entered the Duma, the spokesman demanding:



"We have risen and helped the people overturn the autocracy. Down with Czarism! Where do you stand?"

In reply, President Rodzianko explained that the Duma stood for a Constitutional Democracy. This policy seemed to satisfy the soldiers and they at once acknowledged the authority of the Duma.

A committee of twelve, representing all parties in the Duma, was then appointed to co-operate with the revolutionary leaders in the maintenance of order. The name of the Soldiers' Council was changed to the Council of Workingmen's and Soldiers' Deputies and an election was called for that evening.

Order was restored that evening in Petrograd by the revolutionists themselves. Committees representing the Duma and the radicals met in joint session and agreed upon a program.

The next morning two proclamations were issued—one, warning the populace to avoid committing excesses; the other proclaiming a new Government in Russia, based upon universal suffrage.

A special appeal was made to army officers to support the Government. In response to this appeal, many officers and citizens offered their allegiance.

Meanwhile, the crowds assembled in the public squares were addressed by Alexander Kerensky, a brilliant young lawyer representing the moderate Socialists, and Paul Miliukov, a former professor in the University of Chicago, who spoke for the liberal middle class. Both appealed to the citizens to stand shoulder to shoulder in supporting the Revolution. Even the Grand Duke Cyril harangued the crowd from the balcony of his house, declaring himself a revolutionist.

### **Czar's Wife Placed Under Guard**

ON THE same day, the Imperial Guards in the Czar's Palace revolted, and after slaying their officers, empowered a committee to arrest the Czarina whom they found nursing her children, sick with the measles.

"I'm only a poor Sister of Charity," she cried; "do not hurt me or my children."

A guard was placed over the royal personages, while the remainder of the Imperial

troops placed themselves at the disposal of the Duma.

The former Premier, Boris von Sturmer, and the venerable Metropolitan of Petrograd, Bishop Pitirin, were arrested. Protopopoff surrendered to the Duma, while the radicals were engaged in a hunt for him.

### **Army, Navy and People Accept Revolution**

The Duma, meanwhile, had sent telegrams to the commanders of the Army on all the fronts, to the admirals of the Navy and to all the cities and towns throughout the provinces, asking their allegiance to the new Government. Without exception, they agreed to accept the Revolution. Local councils were organized to co-operate with the Provisional Government in Petrograd.

The French and English Governments, at once established diplomatic relations with the Committee of Safety of the Duma.

Meanwhile, all the members of the police force had either been killed, imprisoned or sent to hospitals for injuries. The duties of the police were taken over by the local military, acting under the orders of Prof. Miliukov.

### **A New Ministry Formed**

ON March 15th, the Duma Committee of Safety and the Council of Workingmen's and Soldiers' Deputies, meeting in joint session, agreed upon a new Ministry, as follows: Prime Minister, Prince George Lvov, a royal radical; Minister of Foreign Affairs, Prof. Paul Miliukov; Minister of War and Marine, M. A. I. Gutchkov; Minister of Justice, Alexander Kerensky, lawyer and Socialist; Minister of Agriculture, Andrei Shingarev.

At this meeting it was agreed that the Czar should be deposed and his brother, Grand Duke Michael, proclaimed as Regent. It was voted to hold a popular election for a Constituent Assembly at an early date and to leave the framing of a Constitution in the hands of this Assembly.

### **Czar Nicholas Abdicates His Throne**

CZAR NICHOLAS, who had remained at the general headquarters of Gen. Alexeieff during the Revolution, received an urgent mess-



age from his wife on March 14th, summoning him to Petrograd. Accompanied by Gen. Tsabel and his suite, he took the train for Petrograd. While en route to the Capital, he was informed by Gen. Voyeykov that Gen. Ivanoff was advancing on Petrograd with a column of soldiers to restore order.

Gen. Tsabel, having overheard this conversation, thereupon exhibited a telegram authorizing him to bring the Czar's train direct to the city instead of to Tsarskoe Seloe.

The Czar consented, saying that he would go willingly to his estate in Livadia and spend the balance of his days among his flowers.

As the train was approaching Petrograd, another message was received, stating that the garrison at Tsarskoe Seloe also had revolted.

The Czar, in alarm, ordered a change of direction, saying he preferred going to Moscow, hoping there to find a loyal garrison.

His hopes were ill founded, for presently yet another telegram was received announcing the revolt of the Moscow garrison.

So the royal train was shuttled back and forth, all day long, without a certain destination.

Gen. Ivanoff finally joined the party and urged the Czar to return to the Army. The train was accordingly ordered to proceed to Pskov, the headquarters of Gen. Russky. Upon its arrival there, the Czar was informed that two deputies, representing the Provisional Government, were on the way to demand his abdication.

The deputies, Gutchkov and Shulgin, met the Czar on March 15th, and received his abdication in favor of his brother, the Grand Duke Michael.

Plain Nicholas Romanoff, no longer "Czar of all the Russias," then went to the Army headquarters at Moghilev to bid his staff farewell, but was treated boorishly by all his former lackeys in uniform.

#### **Grand Duke Michael Also Abdicates**

The Regency of Grand Duke Michael displeased the revolutionists; only complete destruction of the monarchical form of government would satisfy them. Yielding to the Socialist will, Grand Duke Michael, on March 16th, after reigning for 24 hours, voluntarily

resigned the Regency, urging all citizens of Russia to obey the Provisional Government until such time as a Constituent Assembly, elected by universal suffrage, should be chosen to enforce the will of the nation. Thus the monarchy came to an end and the Government of Russia was at last in the hands of the Socialists.

#### **Former Czar Nicholas a Prisoner**

GEN. ALEXEIEFF, on March 17th, notified the Government that the soldiers at Moghilev were annoyed by the presence of Czar Nicholas and suggesting his removal from headquarters. Acting upon this hint, four deputies took the Czar prisoner, transferring him to his former palace at Tsarskoe Seloe.

The Czarina and her children, all sick with the measles, were subsequently arrested and confined to a suite of rooms in the palace; all the telephone connections were cut and most of the servants were dismissed. A battalion of soldiers mounted guard over the Palace, all the doors except three being locked and barred.

#### **100,000 Political Prisoners and Exiles Freed**

MEANTIME, the Provisional Government was functioning at Petrograd. Among the notable acts of the Government were; the liberation of 100,000 political prisoners who had been banished to Siberia by order of the Czar; the invitation extended to all exiled patriots to return to Russia, and the promise of independence to Poland.

The return of these prisoners and exiles was made the occasion for tremendous rejoicing. Other acts of justice decreed by the Duma were:

The complete emancipation of the Jews; the restoration of the Finnish Constitution; equal suffrage of women with men; the abolishing of the death penalty; the establishment of religious liberty and the confiscation of the landed possessions of the Czar. The grand dukes and other members of the Imperial family already had given up their estates and pledged their allegiance to the new order.

#### **The Army Reorganized**

MINISTER of War Kerensky had persuaded the Provisional Government to continue the War against Germany and Austria, and to



reject all overtures looking to a separate peace. The Army was reorganized. Grand Duke Nicholas was demoted from his command and the other grand dukes were ordered to remain in Petrograd.

Gen. Alexeieff was made Commander-in-Chief of the reorganized Army; Gen. Russky was given command of the Northern Army; Gen. Brusiloff was put in charge of the Southern Army group; Gen. Lechitsky was given command of the Central Army group, and Gen. Korniloff was placed in charge of the defensive Army of Petrograd.

### **The Church Property Confiscated**

THE Russian Orthodox Church, a state institution, was overturned. The hierarchy were expelled, several of the bishops and priests being put to death, while radicals were advanced to the vacant ecclesiastical offices. The vast landed estates of the church were confiscated and even the abolition of all religion was proposed.

### **Pro-German Socialists in Control**

THE Socialist Republic of Russia was not permitted to develop along constitutional lines. Almost from the beginning of the Revolution, the Socialists had gradually usurped control of affairs, the ultra-radical Socialists being especially determined to span in a single step the gulf that lies between primitive culture on the one hand and an informed Utopia on the other.

An eight-hour working day was established throughout the Socialist Republic, even the peasants forming a Council of the Peasants' Deputies, modeled after the Council of Workmen and Soldiers. This would have proved commendable if, at the same time, the suddenly freed serfs had not demanded impossible wages, five and even ten times the amount of the normal wage. In some cases these extreme wages were paid, followed by the inevitable increase in the cost of all commodities. Soon the demand for manufactured products ceased, because of the prohibitive costs, and manufactories were closed down, throwing many thousands out of employment.

### **Lenine, the German Agent, Appears**

LENINE, the evil genius of the Russian Revolution, first appeared on the scene in

April, 1917, together with 30 pro-German cronies, of the ultra-Socialist type. Born in Central Russia, in 1870, he was educated in Petrograd University, where he first became interested in social problems. With his brother, he was arrested in 1887 for complicity in a plot to wreck the train of Czar Alexander III. The brother was hanged, but Lenine was released for lack of evidence. He became a leader among the workingmen, preaching Socialistic doctrines and writing many books on Socialistic themes which had a wide acceptance. Because of his radical utterances, Lenine was frequently obliged to leave Russia, traveling in Switzerland, Germany, Austria and Italy.

It was afterward proved that Lenine had received millions of dollars in German gold as a bribe for betraying Russia into negotiating a separate peace with Germany.

Lenine did advocate a separate and immediate peace with Germany, urging the Russian socialists not to take up arms against their "brother Germans" when both were "slaves under the same cruel masters, the capitalists of the World." Instead of fighting each against the other, he said, workingmen of all nationalities should unite and attack the capitalists simultaneously.

Though Lenine was even then suspected of treachery to Russia, still he was unmolested, since he had but little influence in the government and because it was believed he could never rise to the direction of affairs in Russia.

### **Separate Peace with Germany Defeated**

THE first clash between the moderates and the extremists had occurred when Prof. Miliukov, as Minister of Foreign Affairs, announced that the occupation of Constantinople and the Dardanelles was essential to the economic prosperity of Russia. The radical Socialists, who followed Lenine's policy, protested that the occupation of one nation's territory by the people of another nation was contrary to the ideals of Socialism.

Their views prevailed the Government putting itself on record in opposition to all indemnities and the desire to conquer any foreign territorials, at the same time declaring the inherent right of all lesser nationalities to determine their separate destinies.



Lenine took advantage of the situation thus created to press his appeal for a separate peace with Germany. The Provisional Government, however, checked this move by declaring that if the German and Austrian Socialists were truly in sympathy with the Russian ideals of democracy and wished to make a just peace with Russia, it was their duty first to overturn their own autocratic governments, as the Russians had overturned theirs. Then, and only then, could the German people expect to make peace with the Russian people. This reasonable demand that the German proletariat should dethrone the Kaiser, did not at all suit Lenine's purpose, for was he not the Kaiser's paid agent? So the matter was dropped for the present.

Another clash occurred on May 1, 1917, when the Provisional Government sent a joint note to the Allies, assuring them that it would maintain a strict regard for its engagement with the Allies of Russia.

Lenine stirred a section of the radicals to revolt against this allegiance and due to his urging serious anti-government demonstrations occurred in Petrograd on May 3d and 4th. Socialist soldiers and workingmen gathered in front of the Government headquarters, carrying banners inscribed, "Down with Miliukov!" "Down with the Provisional Government."

A vote of confidence in the Government was carried the next day by the slim majority of 35 in a total vote of 2500. Still the protests continued, and on May 16th, Miliukov resigned.

### **Kerensky as Minister of War**

A NEW Coalition Government was formed, with Prince Lvov as Premier, Terestchenko as Foreign Minister and Alexander Kerensky as Minister of War. A new declaration of policy was drawn up, assuring a continuance of war with Germany and the calling of a Constituent Assembly. Kerensky then started on a tour of the battle front to restore military discipline.

It seems that the Socialist soldiers, though slavishly obedient to the will of their own soap-box orators, still had refused to obey their old commanders, deeming all military authority autocratic. They could do this

without fear of military punishment, the death penalty having been abolished. Naturally the generals at the front resigned their commissions, but they consented to serve again after Kerensky had promised to restore the death penalty for insubordination in the Army.

### **A "Republic" Set Up in Kronstadt**

ON June 1st, the Workmen's and Soldiers' Council of Deputies of Kronstadt, site of the Naval Arsenal and headquarters of the Russian Fleet, declared that seaport an "Independent Republic."

A young anarchist, by the name of Anatole Lamanov, was made President. He issued a proclamation, calling on all other communities in Russia to declare their independence and unite later in a loose confederation.

The Council in Petrograd at once denounced the Kronstadt movement, sending two deputies to that city to dissuade Lamanov from continuing his plan further. The abortive "Republic" quickly faded from the public view.

### **The American Commissioners Arrive**

FROM America, early in June, two commissions had arrived to assist the new Russian Republic in getting under way. One commission, headed by Elihu Root, a former Secretary of State, and comprising eminent men of every shade of political opinion, was received by the Council of Ministers in the Marinsky Palace on June 15th. Mr. Root, in an eloquent address, assured the Russian Republic of the sympathy of America. Stressing the point that the triumph of German arms would mean the death of liberty throughout the world, he urged the Russians not only to continue the battle for freedom, but to repel any advances made by Germany toward the attainment of a fictitious peace.

Another American commission, composed of expert engineers and traffic managers, meanwhile had been making a thorough study of Russia's transportation problems, and found everything in order except that there was a lack of locomotives and rolling stock.

Later, at Moscow, Elihu Root addressed representatives of the Zemstvos and the local Council of the Workmen and Soldiers. The



Council adopted a resolution, thanking President Wilson for sending the Commissions to Russia. Mr. Root, upon his return to America, expressed his confidence in the stability of the Russian Republic.

#### Kerensky Becomes Prime Minister

IMPORTANT changes in the Cabinet presently occurred. Five members of the Provisional Government, who had dissented from the proposal to set up a new Ukrainian Republic, resigned on July 15th, holding that if the Ukrainians were granted permission to set up a separate republic, other minor nationalities might do the same, and the disintegration of Russia would follow.

Five days later, Prince Lvov resigned as Premier, having differed with his associates on the question of proclaiming the Russian Republic before the Constituent Assembly had been elected by vote of the people. Alexander F. Kerensky, who had been acting as Minister of War, succeeded Lvov as Premier. He was granted plenary powers in suppressing all disorders, and in restoring discipline

in the Army. The Provisional Government was renamed the "Government of National Safety" and it was accorded the fullest measure of support.

#### Death Penalty Restored

AS THE Army had deteriorated through the lack of discipline, following the abolition of the death penalty for desertion, treachery and mutiny, Premier Kerensky announced that the death penalty would be re-established both in civil life and in the Army.

The effect of this policy was magical, the morale of the Army being restored in a marked degree. Fraternization between Russian and German Socialists was forbidden and a vigorous resumption of the Russian offensives was planned.

Gen. Alexeieff resigned as Commander-in-Chief of the Army and was succeeded by Gen. Brusiloff, whose fidelity to the Allied cause was beyond suspicion. A War Cabinet was then formed, comprising the leaders of the Russian Army and Navy technical experts.

UNITED STATES, APRIL 14

### Congress Passes \$7,000,000,000 Bond Bill to Carry on the War

First Liberty Loan of \$2,000,000,000 Oversubscribed by 4,000,000 Wage Earners

SECTION 7-1917

**W**AYS and means for carrying on the War were the immediate concern of Congress. The mobilization of America's wealth; the issue of bonds to finance America's war operations; the extension of unlimited credit to the impoverished Allies; the passage of a War Revenue Bill; control of food supplies; the creation of an Aerial Fleet; an embargo on exports to neutral countries to prevent their reshipment to Germany; an Espionage Bill; a measure of compulsory military service by Selective Draft, to provide an Army of 500,000 men, to be followed by another draft calling out 1,000,000 men—these were the tremendous legislative tasks confronting Congress.

The administration asked authority for a bond issue of \$7,000,000,000. Of this amount \$5,000,000,000 was to be raised by public

subscription and \$2,000,000,000 by Treasury Certificates of indebtedness, the latter to be redeemed in a year by aid of new war taxation. Both bonds and certificates were to bear interest at 3½ per cent annually. It was understood that \$3,000,000,000 of the public bond issue was to be apportioned as a loan to the Allies at the President's discretion.

After two days' debate, the colossal bond issue was authorized by unanimous vote of Congress on April 14th. Three days later the Senate passed the bill by a vote of 84 to 0. All partisanship was laid aside, the hitherto hostile or pacifist factions uniting in support of the Government.

A War Revenue Bill, designed to raise \$2,500,000,000 by extraordinary taxation of incomes and industries was passed on October 2d.



**First Liberty Loan Oversubscribed**

ON May 14th, Secretary of the Treasury William McAdoo announced that the first offering of bonds would consist of a \$2,000,000,000 Liberty Loan, bearing interest at 3½ per cent and open to popular subscription at par in denominations as low as \$50. The twelve Federal Reserve Banks were to act as agents, each in its own district, but subscriptions likewise were to be sought by all banks, trust companies, private bankers and bond houses the country over.

The subscriptions came pouring in at once and on June 15th, when the lists closed, it was found that the Liberty Loan had been

greatly oversubscribed, 4,000,000 persons having subscribed for \$3,035,226,850 of the loan.

**Second Liberty Loan a Great Success**

THE Second Liberty Loan campaign, which opened on October 1, 1917, and closed on October 27th, was more successful even than the first. The total amount offered was \$3,000,000,000, bearing interest at 4 per cent. These bonds were convertible to any subsequent series bearing interest at a higher rate than 4 per cent. There were 9,000,000 subscribers to this loan. The subscriptions totaled \$4,617,532,300. Only \$3,808,716,150 of this amount was allotted.

..... UNITED STATES, MARCH .....

**Secret Mobilization of United States Navy in March**

American Squadron Aids the Allies — 109 German Ships Seized — Naval Camps Constructed — Wholesale Arrests of German Spies in America

..... SECTION 8—1917 .....

**P**RESIDENT WILSON had not waited until the actual Declaration of War before setting Uncle Sam's house in order for the inevitable conflict. On March 26th, the President had issued an order increasing the enlisted strength of the U. S. Marine Corps to 17,400 men, the limit permitted under the law.

On March 29th, 103 Ensigns were graduated from the Annapolis Naval Academy three months in advance of the customary graduation, and on April 6th, when war was declared, the Navy was mobilized.

All the radio stations in the country, commercial or amateur, were at once seized. A wireless message was flashed from the Arlington station, notifying all American ships at foreign stations and the Governors and Military posts of America's insular possession in the Pacific and in the Antilles that a state of war existed.

War zones were established along the whole coast line of the United States and a series of local barred zones extending from the larger harbors in American waters were indicated. All these harbors were barred at night to entering vessels in order to guard against surprise attacks from German submarines.

The Naval Militia of all the states, as well as the Naval Reserves of the Coast Guard Service, were placed at the disposal of the Navy Department. The Naval Militia, numbering 584 officers and 7933 men, were at once assembled and assigned to coast patrol service.

**361 War Vessels Ready for Service**

THERE were 361 war vessels of all classes ready for service, including twelve first-line battleships, 25 second-line battleships, nine armored cruisers, 24 other cruisers, 50 destroyers, 16 coast torpedo vessels, 17 torpedo boats, 44 submarines, 8 tenders to torpedo boats, 28 gunboats, 4 transports, 4 supply ships, 1 hospital ship, 21 fuel ships, 14 converted yachts, 49 tugs, and 28 minor vessels.

**Navy Volunteers Flock to the Colors**

THE enlisted strength of the Navy was 70,000 men, in addition to 8500 members of the Naval Militia. It was estimated that, for the complete mobilization of the Navy, 99,809 regularly enlisted men and 45,870 reserves, were required. Of these, some 27,000 were needed for coast defense, while 12,000 were available for service at the various shore stations. All retired officers of the Navy were summoned for duty. A call for



35,000 men to the Navy brought volunteers in flocks to the colors.

### **1,000 New Vessels Under Way**

A LARGE fleet of mosquito craft was organized to patrol the Atlantic Coast, keeping on the watch for submarines. A Coast Patrol Fleet was organized on March 31st under the command of Capt. Henry B. Wilson. Contracts had been awarded for the construction of 24 destroyers before war was declared, and additional destroyers were now being built.

Before the outbreak of the War, 123 new naval vessels were under construction. Immediately after war was declared, contracts were made for building 949 new vessels. All vessels in American harbors of 2,500 tons or more dead weight were requisitioned. More than 800 craft were taken over and converted into transports, patrol service boats, submarine chasers, mine sweepers, and mine layers.

### **Over 300,000 Enlist in the Navy**

So rapid was the Navy's expansion that, before Jan. 1, 1918, there were 245,207 men enrolled in the Regular Navy, 54,000 in the Reserve Force, 16,500 men and 856 officers in the Naval Volunteer ranks. The Marine Corps had similarly been expanded from a force of 13,266 men to a total strength of 70,527 men and 2,435 officers.

### **109 German Ships Seized**

THE U. S. Government seized 109 German ships, aggregating 629,000 gross tonnage, which were lying in American ports. Of these, 27 were moored in New York Harbor, including the Vaterland, George Washington and Kaiser Wilhelm II. Six were in Boston Harbor, including the Amerika and the Kronprinzessin Cecile. Many German vessels were held in the Philippines and at Hawaii. Seven Austrian vessels also were seized, but subject to payment. In addition, all ships being built on private contract or for neutral nations were commandeered. Other neutral vessels were secured by arrangement. The German officers and crews were interned for the period of the War.

Many of the German ships had been purposely damaged before being turned over

to the Government, but they were quickly repaired, given new names and put to sea under the American flag.

### **Wholesale Arrests of German Spies**

FEDERAL officers had rounded up and sent to Federal prisons many German spies. Some already had been convicted of complicity in German plots and were at liberty on bond pending decision on their appeals; others were under indictment and awaiting trial; many more suspects had long been under strict surveillance.

By proclamation, President Wilson warned all citizens and aliens against the commission of acts of treason, while assuring German civilians and German Reservists domiciled on American soil that they would be free from molestation if they conducted themselves in conformity to the law. Suitable precautions were taken against any uprisings by German sympathizers. During this crucial period the nation was afflicted with spy fever in its most virulent form, and many loyal persons were unjustly accused of pro-German sympathies.

### **Many Naval Camps Established**

NAVAL camps sprung up in a night at various points along the Atlantic and Pacific Coasts, notably at League Island, Newport, Cape May, Charleston, Pensacola, Key West, Mare Island, Puget Sound, Hingham, Norfolk, New Orleans, New York, Great Lakes, Pelham, Hampton Roads and Gulf port. Schools in gunnery and engineering were established, where men were trained not only for the Navy but for the Merchant Marine as well. Especial attention was paid to the training of gunners in submarine attack, greater efficiency resulting.

### **American Destroyer Fleet Crosses Ocean**

FOUR weeks after the Declaration of War, a squadron of American destroyers, under the command of Admiral William S. Sims, reported for service at Queenstown, at once co-operating with the British Fleet in patrolling the submarine zone. While en route to England, one of the destroyers convoyed a large Atlantic liner through the danger zone. With the arrival of the American Fleet the Allied losses by German submarine attack began steadily to diminish.

WESTERN OCEANS, APRIL—DEC.

## America's Torpedo Fleet Conquers Submarine Peril

Admiral Sims' Atlantic Squadron Succeeds When the English Admiralty Admits Defeat

SECTION 9—1917

**I**T was an American Torpedo Fleet, manned by American seamen, and supported by American gunners and American inventive genius, that conquered the German submarine peril in the North Atlantic after England had failed.

For three years before America's entrance into the War, the German submarines had hemmed in the British Isles, destroying British shipping at a rate which threatened its complete extinction. Though boasting a Navy equal in tonnage to any other two navies in the world, the British, nevertheless, were unable to cope successfully with the German submarine peril.

It is an open secret that certain statesmen of Great Britain were on the verge of despair and meditating peace overtures to Germany in that crucial month of May, 1917, when Admiral Sims' Torpedo Fleet came to the rescue and saved the Empire of Great Britain from certain disaster.

"Our backs are to the wall," the leaders of the British Admiralty informed Admiral Sims; "our losses are twice as great as we have dared to publish to the world. We cannot hold out three months longer."

Well, America was able to hold out much longer, and our small but incomparable Navy not only conquered the submarine peril, but saved the British Navy and the British Empire from irreparable and certain disgrace.

The American Flotilla had been secretly dispatched to British waters late in April, 1917, following a conference with British and French naval officers at Washington. It reached the port of Queenstown on May 4th, ready for immediate action. The American Flotilla at first comprised 60 torpedo destroyers. These were augmented by other craft, including 100 very speedy wooden submarine chasers of a length of 110 feet. Private yachts, gunboats, and other small craft were added to the Atlantic Fleet, and before the end of 1917 Admiral Sims was able to an-

nounce that he commanded 250 vessels in the War Zone. The destroyers, by reason of their great speed and stronger construction, were the especial dread of the submarine commanders who evaded them whenever possible. So effective were the destroyers in convoy work, that not a single American transport was sunk on the Eastern voyage during the War.

### Our Naval Losses in 1917

ADMIRAL SIMS' Atlantic Fleet did not, however, go unscathed. On October 16, 1917, the U. S. destroyer Cassin was struck and injured by a torpedo, but it made port safely, after searching in vain for the enemy.

On October 17th, the transport Antilles, while returning to the United States, was torpedoed and sunk. Of those on board, 67 were drowned, including 16 soldiers.

The transport Finland, while homeward bound from a French port in November, was torpedoed, but it returned safely to port. Nine lives were lost.

On November 5th, the patrol boat Alceedo, formerly a steam yacht, and belonging to G. W. C. Drexel of Philadelphia, was torpedoed and sunk. This was the first fighting unit of the United States Navy to be lost since the War began. One officer and 20 men went down with the Alceedo.

On November 19th, the destroyer Chauncey, while on patrol duty in the War Zone, was sunk in collision with an unknown vessel and 21 men were drowned.

On December 6, 1917, the United States destroyer Jacob Jones was torpedoed and sunk with 69 officers and men.

### American Inventive Genius Mobilized

AMERICAN inventive genius was mobilized to devise new methods of coping with the submarine menace. The Navy Department organized a consulting board composed of prominent inventors, scientists, and industrial leaders, Thomas A. Edison being of the



personnel. This board of scientists received thousands of suggestions of methods to minimize the danger from submarine attacks. Many of the suggestions proved worthless, but some were found practical. One especially effective weapon, the depth bomb, invented by a Swedish engineer, was in frequent use among the Allied Navies and caused many a submarine to "turn turtle." Several highly important inventions were adopted by the naval consulting board, but for military reasons the nature of these devices was withheld from the general public.

New War Zone Around Azores Islands

BECAUSE of America's naval activity, Germany established a barred zone around the Azores Islands, some 900 miles off the coast of Portugal. The channel to Greece, left open in the Mediterranean Sea, was also closed on the ground that "it had been used by the Venizelos Government, not so much for the supply of the Greek population with foodstuffs as for the transport of arms and ammunition."

List of American Ships Attacked

AMERICAN shipping escaped injury at the hands of the Germans the first eight months of the World War. It was in the spring of 1915 when the first American vessel was attacked and the first American life lost at sea. This immunity from attack ended in the latter part of March, 1915. From that time

on until America's entry into the War there was an ever-lengthening list of American ships attacked and of foreign ships sunk with loss of American lives. The official list of such casualties was prepared for presentation to Congress by Congressman John J. Rogers, as follows:

Name of Vessel	Date	Particulars
Gulflight	May 2, 1915	Torpedoed
Nebraskan	May 25, 1915	Torpedoed
Leelanaw	July 25, 1915	Torpedoed and shelled
Seaconnet	June 16, 1916	Mine or torpedo
Oswego	Aug. 14, 1916	Fired on 10 times
Lano	Oct. 28, 1916	Sunk by submarine
Columbian	Nov. 7, 1916	Sunk by submarine
Colena	Nov. 26, 1916	Fired on
St. Helene's	Dec. 10, 1916	Attacked by submarine
Rebecca Palmer	Dec. 14, 1916	Fired on
Sacramento	Jan. 9, 1917	Fired on
Housatonic	Feb. 3, 1917	Sunk
Lyman M. Law	Feb. 13, 1917	Burned by submarine
Vigilancia	Mar. 16, 1917	Torpedoed
City of Memphis	Mar. 17, 1917	Sunk by gunfire
Illinois	Mar. 17, 1917	Torpedoed
Aztec	Apr. 1, 1917	Torpedoed

UNITED STATES, APRIL—DEC.

America's War Gardens Suffice to Feed the Nations of Europe

Hoover Conserves Food Supplies—War Prohibition Bill—Embargo On Exports  
Wheatless and Meatless Days in America—The Espionage Act  
Council of National Defense

SECTION 10—1917

WITH famished Europe crying aloud for bread, it was the sacred duty of America to supply the food necessary to nourish the Allied nations. Food, ships, soldiers—these were the vital needs of the struggling democracies of Europe in

their hour of tribulation. America responded nobly to their appeal.

The American farmers, stimulated by guarantees of fair prices, planted all their tillable acres; millions of city lots and suburban fields were converted into war gar-

dens; college students, school children, Boy Scouts, business men, artisans, women and girls, all alike enlisted in the work.

Through their combined efforts, the greatest food crop in the world's history was produced in these United States during the year 1917. Only the wheat crop was slightly less than normal. As for corn, three billion bushels were produced. Over 500,000,000 bushels of potatoes were harvested.

The aggregate value of America's 1917 crop was five billion dollars. Enormous though the production proved, still it did not suffice fully to meet the abnormal demands of both America and Europe. It was found necessary to conserve and apportion the food carefully, lest some of the nations should go hungry. America consented to this supreme act of denial, voluntarily giving a large share of her necessary food to the deserving Allied nations.

### **Council of National Defense Formed**

By Act of Congress, a Council of National Defense was formed, consisting of the secretaries of War, Navy, Interior, Agriculture, Commerce and Labor, and an Advisory Commission of seven men was drawn from civil life to have charge of transportation, munitions, food, clothing, raw materials, minerals and metals, labor, engineering, medicine, surgery and sanitation. To aid them in their work numberless boards and committees were organized, all destined to play their special parts in the mobilization of America's resources and industries.

At the request of the Council of National Defense, the presidents of the great railroads met and selected a committee of five men to adjust the operation of all railroad systems to a war basis.

A general medical board of physicians, surgeons, dentists and hygiene and sanitation experts were appointed to mobilize the medical resources of the country.

### **War Gardens Spring Up**

AN Economy Board was organized and on April 15th, the President made an appeal to the people to increase the output of the war materials and the food products. The farmers especially were urged to leave nothing

undone that might tend to increase the yield of their land. The manhood of the nation was invoked to "turn, in hosts, to the land." Middlemen were admonished to forego all unusual profits and hasten food shipments. It was made clear that everyone who cultivated a garden was helping to solve the problem of feeding the nations. Every housewife who practiced strict economy put herself automatically in the ranks of those who served the nation.

The response was instant and notable. Thousands of young men left the colleges and schools, volunteering for work on the farms and in munition plants and factories. Vacant lots in the cities were converted into vegetable gardens with children for cultivators. The aid of the Boy Scouts was enlisted in the work. In a few weeks, millions of "war gardens" were under cultivation in every state from coast to coast. At the same time, housewives were given special instructions in canning and preserving vegetables, fruits and meats.

### **Wheatless Week Movement**

THE movement to conserve the food supply and prevent the wasteful use of food was soon under way. In Massachusetts, a "wheatless week" was announced, during which no white bread was to be served in hotels, restaurants or homes. It was estimated that 25,000 barrels of flour were saved by this enforced abstention in one week. The movement spread, taking on new forms, such as abstinence from the use of meats on certain days, the more sparing use of gasoline and other needed commodities. In the Chicago Pit, all dealings in futures ceased. At this time actual wheat for delivery was selling at \$2.40 to \$2.60 per bushel.

### **Hoover Placed in Control of Food**

UPON the initiative of President Wilson, who urged the need of legislation to conserve and stimulate the country's food production, a bill was passed vesting in a single Food Commissioner full authority to control the export, import, prices, purchase and requisition of all commodities and all food storage.

As Food Commissioner the President appointed Herbert C. Hoover, an American



mining engineer, long resident in England, who had won the admiration and gratitude of the world by his administrations in Belgium, as head of the Relief Committee.

It was Mr. Hoover's duty to make full inquiry into the existing stocks of foodstuff available in this country; to determine the costs of production and distribution; to prevent all unwarranted hoarding of every kind, or control of foodstuffs by persons who were not in any legitimate sense producers, dealers or traders; to requisition for public use all food supplies and equipment necessary for handling them properly; to license wholesome and legitimate food mixtures, and prevent the wasteful use of food. Mr. Hoover administered his trust with singular fidelity and ability, and to the satisfaction of the nation.

#### War Prohibition Bill Passes

WHILE the Food Control Bill was before the House, an amendment was inserted prohibiting the further manufacture of alcoholic liquors during the War and authorizing the President, in his discretion, to commandeer existing stocks of distilled spirits.

On recommendation of President Wilson, who deemed the amendment too drastic, the Senate restricted the prohibition on the manufacture of liquors to such distillates as whiskey, rum, gin and brandy, removing the ban on light wines and beer, and retaining the clause empowering the President to acquire all distilled spirits in bond, should the national exigency call for such action.

As thus amended, the bill was approved by the Senate, 81 to 6. In the House of Representatives, the anti-whiskey provisions in the bill were denounced as unconstitutional, but the bill was finally passed, 365 to 5.

#### The Espionage Act

THE Espionage Bill, ostensibly framed to vest the Government with extraordinary powers in coping with all acts of a treasonable nature, aroused violent opposition on the part of the press because of a provision which forbade the publication of war news. The President urged the Congress to establish a press censorship, but the editors insisted that the press should be placed on its

good behavior. Congress declared in favor of the press and the newspapers were permitted to publish all war news that might not serve to aid the enemy.

This Espionage Act was far-reaching in its effect. Among its other extraordinary provisions, it empowered the President to place an embargo on exports whensoever the public safety and welfare required such an embargo; it provided for the censoring of the mails; the punishment of espionage; the wrongful use of military information; circulation of false reports designed to interfere with military operations; attempts to cause disaffection in the Army and Navy or obstruction of recruiting; the control of vessels on American waters; the seizure of arms and ammunition and prohibition of their exportation under certain conditions; the penalizing of conspiracies designed to harm American foreign relations; punishment for the destruction of property arising from a state of war; and increased restrictions on the use of passports.

#### Embargo on American Exports

A VIRTUAL blockade of Germany from American ports was sought to be attained by a provision in the Espionage Act relating to an Embargo on American exports. It appeared that the British blockade of Germany had been thwarted in a degree by the trade policy of certain neutral nations—particularly Holland, Denmark, Norway and Sweden—in supplying Germany with various commodities, chiefly obtained from the United States and resold to the Germans at fabulous prices. So many Scandinavians had grown rich in this trade with the Germans that the epithet, "Goulash Baron," was in frequent and derisive use.

The purpose of the embargo provision was to prevent the shipment of any American goods to these neutral nations until after the fullest guarantees had been received that these goods should not be transshipped into Germany. The neutral nations were required to prove that they were not acting as go-betweens for Germany before their ships could get clearance from American ports.

There was some absurd opposition to this measure, as when Senator Townshend af-



fectured to see in the Embargo proposal a dark plot to force small neutral nations into the War as America's Allies.

President Wilson explained that the intended check on exports concerned the disposition of American goods only. It was not in reality an Embargo, except on consignments to Germany. He gave assurance that no prohibition of exports would result. On the contrary, American exports in future would be so directed as to go first and by

preference where they were immediately needed and on the other hand would be temporarily withheld where they best could be spared.

Following the passage of the Embargo Act, on July 9, 1917, the President by proclamation created a Board of Exports Control, with Herbert Hoover as director, vested with authority to prevent the shipment of a single bushel of wheat or any other essential war commodity from any American port without the Board's license and approval.

UNITED STATES—APRIL 5

## Congress Declares War on Germany in Behalf of Humanity

Pres. Wilson's Stirring Address—Pacifists Make Trouble—German Plots Exposed

SECTION II—1917

A JOINT session of the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States convened at 8.35 o'clock on the evening of April 2, 1917. The entire personnel of the Government was present. All day long the pacifists had been perniciously active, taking possession of the Capitol steps, up which the President was to go, and seeking to penetrate to the Vice-President's chamber, but they were dispersed by the police.

One of these so-called pacifists attacked Senator Lodge, only to be sent crashing to the pavement by a blow from the Senator's doughty fist.

As a measure of precaution, the approaches to the Capitol were guarded with two troops of cavalry, while secret service agents patrolled the Capitol corridors. Another troop of cavalry acted as escort to the President while he journeyed from the White House to the Capitol.

As the President entered the House Chamber, he was received with tumultuous applause, the senators, representatives and audience all waving miniature American flags.

### President Urges Congress to Declare War

PALE and nervous, President Wilson addressed the Congress, urging the adoption of a resolution declaring that a state of war existed between Germany and the United

States; also proposing that a preliminary Army of 500,000 be raised, and that the United States co-operate with the Allied Powers as a belligerent in every effective way.

Referring to Germany's ruthless submarine warfare, the President said:

"Vessels of every kind, whatever their flag, their character, their cargo, their destination, their errand, have been ruthlessly sent to the bottom without warning and without thought of help or mercy for those on board, the vessels of friendly neutrals along with those of belligerents. Even hospital ships and ships carrying relief to the sorely bereaved and stricken people of Belgium, though the latter were provided with safe conduct through the prescribed areas by the German Government itself, and were distinguished by unmistakable marks of identity, have been sunk with the same reckless lack of compassion or of principle. It is a war against all nations. American ships have been sunk, American lives taken, in ways which it has stirred us very deeply to learn of, but the ships and people of other neutral and friendly nations have been sunk and overwhelmed in the waters in the same way. There has been no discrimination. The challenge is to all mankind. Each nation must decide for itself how it will meet it.

"We are accepting this challenge of hostile purpose because we know that in such a



government, following such methods, we can never have a friend; and that in the presence of its organized power, always lying in wait to accomplish we know what purpose, can be no assured security for the democratic governments of the world. We are now about to accept the gage of battle with this natural foe to liberty, and shall, if necessary, spend the whole force of the nation to check and nullify its pretensions and its power. We are glad, now that we see the facts with no veil of false pretense about them, to fight thus for the ultimate peace of the world and for the liberation of its peoples, the German peoples included; for the rights of nations great and small and the privilege of men everywhere to choose their way of life and obedience.

#### World Must be Made Safe for Democracy

"THE world must be made safe for democracy. Its peace must be planted upon the tested foundations of political liberty. We have no selfish ends to serve. We desire no conquest, no dominion. We seek no indemnities for ourselves, no material compensation for the sacrifices we shall freely make. We are but one of the champions of the rights of mankind. We shall be satisfied when those rights have been made as secure as the faith and the freedom of nations can make them."

#### Congress Declares War Against Germany

A RESOLUTION declaring that a state of war existed between Germany and the United States, and authorizing the President to employ all the resources of America to carry on the War, was reported on April 3d, by the Foreign Affairs Committees of both Houses.

Senator Stone, chairman of the Senate Committee, alone opposed its adoption.

When the resolve was reported to the Senate, Senator Hitchcock asked for unanimous consent to a suspension of the rules for its immediate consideration.

Senator La Follette immediately blocked its passage by demanding the "regular order," which postponed action for an entire day.

Upon reassembling April 4th, the Senators agreed to sit without rest, recess or intermis-

sion, and without considering any other matter, until the War resolution was passed.

After a debate lasting 13 hours, the War resolution was passed by a vote of 82 to 6, those voting in the negative being Senators La Follette of Wisconsin, Gronna of North Dakota, Norris of Nebraska, Stone of Missouri, Lane of Oregon and Vardaman of Mississippi.

On April 5th, the War resolution came before the House. It was vigorously opposed by a group of pacifists led by Representative Kitchin of North Carolina. But on the following day, April 6th, the resolution was passed by the overwhelming vote of 373 to 50.

President Wilson signed the resolution the same day, at the same time outlining the regulations prepared for the conduct of "alien enemies" resident in America.

#### German Plots Bared Before Congress

THE intrigues of German spies, agents, plotters, incendiaries, assassins and dynamitards were disclosed in a long report by the Foreign Affairs Committee—how Capt. von Papen and Capt. Boy-Ed directed the work of these destructive agents; how Dr. Chakrabarty received \$60,000 from the German Embassy for Hindu revolutionary propaganda in this country; how the German Embassy employed Ernest T. Euphrat to carry information between Berlin and Washington under an American passport; how German officers of interned warships violated their parole, six of them escaping in a boat purchased with money supplied by the German Consul at Richmond; how Hans von Wedell maintained an office for the procurement of fraudulent passports for German Reservists; how James J. F. Archibald, a newspaper man, under cover of an American passport and while in the pay of Ambassador von Bernstorff, carried dispatches for Ambassador Dumba and committed other "unneutral acts; how Albert O. Sander and other German agents sent spies to England protected by American passports; how prominent officials of the Hamburg-American line, under the direction of Boy-Ed, attempted to supply German warships at sea; how vessels were sent from San Francisco; how Werner Horn attempted to blow up the international bridge

at Vanceboro, Me., and Albert Kaltschmidt tried to blow up a factory at Walkerville and the Armory at Windsor, Canada, all for German gold proffered by Capt. Franz von Papen.

German agents, too, had been convicted and sentenced for making bombs to be attached to the screws of certain Allied ships leaving New York. Captains von Kleist, Wolfert and Rode, working under direction of von Papen and von Igel, had manufactured incendiary bombs on the Friederich der Grosse and put them on board Allied ships. Capt. Franz Rintelen had come to this country to aid in preventing the exportation of munitions to the Allies. To aid him in provoking strikes in the munition factories he had organized and financed "Labor's National Peace Council."

Consul General Bopp at San Francisco and Vice Consul von Schaick had been convicted of sending agents into Canada to blow up bridges and tunnels, and wreck vessels sailing from Pacific Coast ports with war material for Russia and Japan.

Paul Konig, head of the secret service of the Hamburg-American line, had sent spies to Canada to gather information concerning the Welland Canal and the movement of troops; had bribed a bank employe to give

information concerning shipments to the Allies; had sent spies to Europe with American passports to secure military information, and was involved with von Papen in his bomb plots.

The indignities heaped on American consular officials by German frontier authorities, who had ordered them stripped and searched, were recalled. The detention and maltreatment of the Yarrowdale prisoners; the detention of Ambassador Gerard and the American newspaper correspondents in Germany; and finally the Zimmerman note, revealing the plot to involve the United States in war with Mexico and Japan, were all passed in review. It was an indictment such as never before had been brought before Congress.

#### **Austria and Turkey Declare War**

AMERICAN relations with Germany's Allies—Austria-Hungary, Turkey and Bulgaria—were as yet unchanged, although it was decided not to receive Count Tarnowski, the newly accredited Ambassador to this country from Austria. However, on April 9, 1917, Austria-Hungary severed diplomatic relations with the United States Government, and Turkey broke relations with this Government on April 21st. Bulgaria, at this time, took no action.



WESTERN THEATER, APRIL 6—MAY 15

## Allied Assault on New Hindenberg Line Ends in Costly Failure

Canadian Troops Storm Vimy Ridge—French Take the Craonne Plateau

SECTION 12—1917

### Franco-British Forces, 2,000,000

Gen. Robert Nivelle, Commander-in-Chief  
(Succeeded by Gen. Petain)

### French Forces, 1,000,000

First Army—Gen. Micheler  
Second Army—Gen. d'Esperey  
Fourth Army—Gen. Anthoine  
Fifth Army—Gen. Mazel  
Sixth Army—Gen. Mangin  
Tenth Army—Gen. Duchesne

### British Forces, 1,000,000

Gen. Sir Douglas Haig, Commander  
First Army—Gen. Horne  
Second Army—Gen. Plumer  
Third Army—Gen. Allenby  
Fourth Army—Gen. Rawlinson  
Fifth Army—Gen. Gough

### Canadian Army Corps, 75,000

Lieut.-Gen. Sir Julian Byng  
Divisional Commanders—Major Generals Currie,  
A. C. Macdonell, H. E. Burstall, L. J. Lipsett,  
and David Watson

### German Forces, 2,000,000

Field Marshall von Hindenberg, Commander-in-  
Gen. von Ludendorff, Chief of Staff [Chief  
Gen. von Armin  
Gen. von Boehn  
Gen. Fritz von Below  
Gen. Otto von Below  
Gen. von Marwitz  
Crown Prince Rupprecht  
Crown Prince Frederick

THE adroit escape of the German Armies from the insecurity of the Arras-Somme salient, across a wide desert of their own making, to the cement shelter of the Hindenberg zone, left dangling in air and converging on emptiness all those elaborate preparations for a spring offensive which had occupied the Allied Armies throughout the preceding winter months.

The toilful achievements of a million Allied artisans had been expended in mocking futility. Useless now those thousands of heavy gun emplacements, so carefully positioned, that were to assist in blowing the whole German line into oblivion. Superfluous that maze of railways linking up the various sectors on the old battle front. Needless those miles of plank roads that traversed the churned and muddied terrain. Impotent, too, those prodigious ammunition depots which were to feed thousands of cannon, millions of rifles, in the forthcoming artillery duel. All these colossal works were rendered futile when the Kaiser's armies, forewarned, had escaped from their ghastly trench-traps and reached their distant haven of safety.

### 6000 Allied Cannon Left Impotent

BETWEEN the old battle front and the new, there now yawned a charred and smoky desert, 25 miles deep at its widest span, destitute of roof or tree or shrub, a hideous, trackless, ruined expanse, pitted all over with deep crater holes. On the western edge of this desert, pointing impotently across the deep void, there were 6,000 Allied field guns, which had been cheated of their prey. To move this artillery across the torn terrain and into positions suitable for an assault upon the new Hindenberg line, was a task requiring weeks to accomplish.

As we shall see, the assault was rashly begun before the Allies were prepared for so grave an undertaking. It ended in partial disaster to the Allied cause, but out of this failure sprang a new leadership which was destined to carry the armies of the Allies to triumphant victory. The causes of that disaster are now to be disclosed.

### Nivelle Promoted Over Foch and Petain

BACK in December, 1916, before the Germans had planned their evacuation of the Somme-Ancre front, the supreme command

of all the Allied Armies operating in that area was given temporarily to Gen. Robert Nivelle, a French officer who had won distinction as a corps commander under Gen. Petain at Verdun and been advanced over the heads of his superiors to the chief command of the French Armies when Marshal Joffre was so unjustly stripped of his power.

Though a useful subordinate, Gen. Nivelle seems to have lacked those higher qualities of mind requisite to supreme leadership. He was imprudent, wilful, boastful, amazingly indiscreet, and he chose persistently to spurn the sagacious counsel of his betters. His undeserved promotion over the heads of his superiors—Marshal Joffre, the victor of the Marne, Gen. Petain, the saviour of Verdun, and Gen. Foch, the incomparable strategist—was a lamentable episode of the subterranean political drama of the day.

With yet unfathomed motives, a group of irreligious politicians, Socialists and atheists, who had gained a certain ascendancy in the French Government, plotted the demotion and disgrace of Joffre, Petain and Foch, the ablest strategists that have appeared since the sun of Napoleon set at Waterloo.

Inasmuch as several of these atheist politicians are known to have been traitors to France and in frequent communication with fiscal agents of Germany, it is intimated that they may have decreed the demotion of the three generals in order to remove from the Kaiser's path the men most capable of saving France from annihilation.

Moreover, their atheistical wrath may have been stirred at the sight of Christian generals, so devoutly religious as Foch and Petain, leading the French armies on to victory.

An additional motive for the removal of these generals lay in the circumstance that Foch and Petain never thought to conceal their honest contempt for political intriguers in general and atheist politicians in particular.

Whatever the true motive, the politicians had succeeded in deposing the three great generals and in loading them down with military tasks intended to magnify their disgrace. Nivelle's elevation to the chief com-

mand brought the plot to its culminating point.

In consenting to put the British armies under control of Nivelle, Gen. Sir Douglas Haig, the British Commander, had stipulated that the arrangement would terminate with the completion of the first French offensive in the spring. After that the British armies would return to his undivided command.

### Gen. Nivelle's Indiscretion

ON assuming the supreme command, Gen. Nivelle at once rejected the prudent plans for a spring offensive which had been prepared by Marshal Joffre. At that time, and previous to the German retreat, the pivots of the German line on the Somme front were the Vimy Ridge, near Arras in the North, and the Craonne Plateau, near Soissons in the South, lying about 100 miles apart. These natural strongholds, each eight miles long and 200 feet in height, with their multiplication of concrete works, parallel lines of trenches, innumerable rocky caverns, and a tremendous concentration of artillery, were formidable fortresses. Strongly defended by the Germans, they were apparently impregnable.

Between these two pivot positions, the German line bulged out into a gigantic salient which was in danger of collapsing. Knowing the insecurity of this salient, the Germans were constructing a new system of concrete trenches 25 miles to the rear, connecting Arras with Soissons by a shorter line and known as the Hindenberg zone. It was their intention to evacuate the dangerous Ancre-Somme front and retreat to the shelter of this new line, while retaining their pivot positions at Vimy and Craonne.

Marshal Joffre had thought to manœuvre the Germans off the pivot heights, not by a direct assault on the two fortresses, which might involve great losses to his armies, but by concerted attacks on the weakest points of the salient. Once the wavering German line were broken, the Germans might be driven back in disorder and compelled to relinquish their hold on Vimy and Craonne Plateau.



### Germans Escape from the Trap

NIVELLE, on the contrary, purposed making his main attack, not at the weak points of the salient, but against the powerful pivot positions at Vimy Ridge and Craonne Plateau. His leading generals expostulated in vain against this rash enterprise, predicting sure disaster if the experiment were tried.

So confident was Nivelle in the success of his plan, that he even boasted his armies would take Craonne Plateau in 24 hours and have the German armies on the run back to the Rhine in 72 hours.

For three months, while his offensive was preparing, Nivelle never ceased to advertise what he intended to accomplish. His plans, down to the smallest details, were known to every soldier in the Allied armies, and to every shady politician in France, therefore to the Germans themselves, who took the necessary steps to strengthen their defences on Vimy and Craonne Ridges, while secretly preparing to evacuate the no longer tenable Somme salient in between.

We have already seen, in a previous chapter, how the Germans outwitted Nivelle, just on the eve of his intended offensive, by skillfully withdrawing from this trench trap on the Ancre-Somme front and retreating to the Hindenberg line. By this adroit movement, they not only had exchanged an insecure position for an impregnable one, but by shortening their line, increased by 150,000 cover troops their defensive forces at Vimy Ridge and Craonne Plateau.

As indicating Nivelle's incapacity, it is sufficient to add that on March 4th, while yet the retreat of the Germans was only partial, Gen. d'Esperey had informed him that all signs pointed to the speedy evacuation of Roye, at the same time asking permission to attack. Gen. Nivelle refused permission, saying that a general German retreat was inconceivable, since the enemy had strongly fortified the town of Roye as if intending to remain there. Twenty-four hours later the Germans quietly stole out of Roye! Nivelle tardily gave orders for the pursuit, but it was then too late to circumvent the Germans.

Still blind to the reality of the situation, Nivelle professed to see in the skilful German

retreat a German rout, and he so inspired the common soldiers with his false enthusiasm that for a time they were misled into believing that a decisive victory was near. Not so the generals of the French Army. Almost to a man, they felt that Nivelle was leading the armies to sure destruction, and they did their utmost to persuade him to reconsider his plans.

### The Plan of Battle

APRIL was well advanced before Nivelle was able to resume the offensive. Due to the extreme severity of the winter weather, which had worked havoc among the African troops, the intended French attack on Craonne Plateau had been repeatedly postponed. The French supplies of cannon, munitions and armament were still woefully insufficient. Moreover, with scarcely an exception, the French generals were now in open mutiny. Convinced of the impracticability of Nivelle's offensive plan, and predicting that it would end in slaughter, they advised both him and the French Government against making the attempt, but all in vain.

Nivelle had intended making his chief assault on the Craonne Plateau. By a converging movement, he hoped to cut off and destroy the occupant German forces. When this operation was well under way, the British were to attack Vimy Ridge, primarily to engage the German reserves and prevent their participation in the Craonne battle.

In the event, it was the British armies that opened the great battle, Vimy Ridge being stormed by the Canadian troops in one of the most brilliant operations of the whole War, while the subsequent French attack on Craonne partially failed, as the French generals had universally predicted.

### British Ordered to Take Vimy Ridge

THE French armies being still unprepared for the attack on the Southern pivot at Craonne Plateau, Gen. Nivelle on April 9th, ordered the British armies to attack Vimy Ridge, the Northern pivot of the German line. From the heights of Vimy, 200 feet above the plain, the German guns for upward of two years had bombarded Arras, reducing the city to ruins. The great chalk cliff itself, throughout its length of 12 miles, had



been honeycombed with tunnels and galleries, affording the Germans shelter from the inclemency of the weather and protection from the shell of the enemy artillery. In natural strength and in the extent of its fortifications it surpassed any other position on the Western front.

To impede the concentration of the British troops in front of Vimy and render the plains of the Scheldt impregnable, the Germans had brought up their giant 24 c. m. naval guns, with a range of 15 miles, while the range of their field guns had been increased to 7,000 yards. The British, nevertheless, had been able to concentrate 4,000 pieces of artillery, which were mostly hidden from observation.

### The Battle in the Air at Vimy

A BATTLE in the air, the greatest aerial duel ever fought, preceded the actual assault. Large squadrons of British planes were sent over the enemy lines for the purpose of photographing new German positions and bombarding strategical points behind the front. The German planes accepted the challenge and many thrilling battles ensued high in air. In all the British airmen destroyed 46 German planes and ten balloons, besides taking 1,700 photographs of the German positions for the guidance of the British gunners and dropping eight tons of explosives into the German trenches. They lost to the Germans 28 planes.

## Canadian Troops Storm Vimy Ridge

Canadian Corps (1st British Army), 75,000

Lieut.-Gen. Sir Julian Byng, Commander

1st Division—Major-General Currie

2d Division—Major-General Burstall

3d Division—Major-General Lipsett

4th Division—Major-General Watson

Cavalry Brigade—Brig.-Gen. Seeley

13th British Imperial Brigade

Reserves Troops—36,000

German Forces (Bavarians), 140,000

Crown Prince Rupprecht, Commander

THE storming of Vimy Ridge by the dauntless Canadian Army Corps, commanded by Lieut.-Gen. Sir Julian Byng, was the most brilliant episode of the general attack launched along the Arras front on April 9th, by the First and Third British Armies. The Canadian Corps formed a part of Gen. Sir H. S. Horne's First British Army; it comprised 75,000 fighting troops in all the branches of infantry, cavalry, artillery, cyclists, aircraft and motor transport.

Assisting the Canadians in this operation were two famous British regiments, the Royal West Kents and the King's Own Scottish Borderers, forming the 13th Brigade of the Fifth Imperial Division. Some 36,000 other Canadian troops were held in reserve on the line of communication.

The German forces occupying Vimy Ridge numbered 140,000 veteran troops, mostly Bavarians, commanded by Crown Prince Rupprecht.

Though the German strategists regarded Vimy Ridge as an almost impregnable posi-

tion, yet in anticipation of an attack by the Canadians, they had taken the precaution to strengthen their position above Souchez Village by constructing a number of concrete and steel forts that would resist almost anything except a direct hit by steel. Also, by means of systematic mine explosions, they had broken up their front, scooping out a series of enormous craters, too wide for any attacking force to bridge.

In event of the Canadians attacking, they would be compelled to creep around the sides of these craters and expose themselves to the direct fire of thousands of machine guns cleverly hidden in the German zone. Behind the lines, in numerous concrete and steel forts there were hundreds of heavy guns emplaced, each one having the exact range of some point of enemy approach. Hiding in rock-roofed caverns, that in the long ago had served as a place of refuge and worship for the proscribed Huguenots, there were 40,000 Bavarian soldiers, outnumbering the Canadians two to one.



Three weeks before the day set for the attack, a systematic artillery assault on the German lines was opened in earnest. The British had assembled an enormous number of heavy guns to deliver the blow. New shells were used, armour-piercing and delayed fuse-action shells, which penetrated 20 feet and more into the earth, blowing up deep dug-outs. Day by day, every roadway was searched and every suspected dump shelled. So intense was the British bombardment, that for several days the Germans found it impossible to bring reliefs or food up to their front lines.

During the afternoon and night of April 8th, the Canadian troops moved forward to their front line. The plan of battle had been carefully explained to every soldier. For weeks they had been drilled over dummy trenches, constructed in perfect replica of Vimy Ridge. Each man knew where he had to go and what he had to do. He knew the exact location of the dug-outs that he was expected to bomb. Besides his rifle, his bayonet and 120 cartridges, each soldier was to carry either a pick or shovel, four hand grenades, two sand bags, two airplane flares, a Verrey light, a candle, a box of matches, and two days' rations.

### **The Plan of Attack**

THE attack on Vimy Ridge was planned as a succession of rushes. Four imaginary lines had been drawn, designated as the Black, Red, Blue and Brown. In the wake of a barrage, the first Canadian column was to advance as far as the Black line and then dig in, while "moppers up" were to search the land they had overrun, blowing up German dugouts and disposing of any German found hiding there.

In rapid succession a second column was to go through the Black line and attack the Red line, a third column through the Red line and attack the Blue line, and so on to the final assault on the Brown line. Every step was exactly timed; so many minutes were allowed for capture of the Black line, pause of two hours after the Red line was taken, and a rest of one and a half hours on the Blue line.

In all, eight and a half hours were allowed for the whole operation. After the last German position had been taken, the patrols were to push forward into the valley beyond.

### **British Guns Start Pandemonium**

ON the eve of the battle, a lively blizzard of sleetish snow set in; it was bitter cold and the Canadian soldiers were drenched to the skin as they stood waiting in their trenches. When Easter Sunday dawned, the whole field of battle was one mass of beating rain and snow, driven before the wind. Zero, the hour for the beginning of battle, was 5.30 A. M.

Exactly to the second, 1,000 British guns opened fire, creating a pandemonium never imagined before. The whole front seemed lit up with a sheet of flame. The terrific gun-fire was especially directed against the concealed German battery positions, which had been located during the previous days. Great concrete blocks were hurled aside like children's toys; steel doors were warped and bent, as though a giant had shaken them.

Some of the British guns were firing to cover all points of communication at the rear, and some were maintaining a standing barrage; other guns laid a rolling barrage, which moved forward in average leaps of 100 yards. Under the action of the explosive shells, the entire German front was transformed into a mass of craters and shell holes. So destructive was the British fire that all the German front trenches were eliminated; there remained only broken cupolas and traces of observation posts.

### **Canadians Go Over the Top**

AT the prearranged signal, the Canadian 1st Division left their trenches in the wake of the creeping barrage which their gunners were laying, advancing to attack the southern slopes of Vimy on a front of perhaps a mile. Their final objective was two and a half miles from the British front line. A pall of smoke covered the battle field, concealing many of the deep shell holes, now filled with mud or icy water. Many wounded Canadians, falling into these holes, were drowned in the mud.

German machine guns were positioned everywhere and the Canadian advance pro-



ceeded under heavy fire. The intrepid Canadians set out to envelop and bomb these German nests, but in the effort they lost heavily. Of the 16th Battalion, every officer was either killed or wounded. But nothing could keep the Canadians back. If one company was wiped out, another was sent up to take its place. When all the commissioned officers of a company were struck down sergeants were ready to take command. The Black line was reached and passed. Soon the two brigades were on the Red line. Here the opposition stiffened. Isolated groups of Germans fought with the utmost desperation, but they could not shake off the Canadians.

#### **Capture of Farbus Wood**

WHILE the Second and Third Brigades were consolidating the position they had won on the Red line, the First Brigade was pushing forward toward the Blue line, which was captured at 11 o'clock. Two hours later the First Brigade had taken the Brown line, on the summit of the Ridge, and the Canadians could now look down on the wonderful plain stretched out on the Northern side of the Ridge, with Douai standing out in the distance, 12 miles away.

After the British guns had shelled Farbus Wood, on the Eastern slope of Vimy, the First Brigade descended the hill. Cheering as they ran, the Canadians rushed a line of batteries at the bottom of the wood. The Germans stood resolutely to their guns, firing their last charges point-blank. Before evening the First Division had cleared Farbus Wood and reached the railway beyond.

The Second Division, meanwhile, had met with a mishap. The eight tanks co-operating with this division had failed to penetrate through the deep mud; not one of them even reached the Black line. The 4th and 5th Brigades, nevertheless, attacked the Zwischen Stellung, a strong German trench line west of Les Tilleuls. This was the indicated Black line. Pushing forward over the shell-pitted ground, with the sleet pitilessly beating in the soldiers' faces, and scarcely able to see a few paces ahead, the 19th Canadian Battalion was briefly halted by a very heavy machine-gun fire. Automatically the Canadian flanks stretched out, enveloping the

enemy's machine guns, which were then captured. In this engagement colonels led battalions. The Fourth Brigade quickly occupied the Black line, while the Fifth Brigade pressed forward toward the Red line.

#### **West Kents and Borderers Appear**

Now the famous Thirteenth Imperial Brigade—the Royal West Kents and Scottish Borderers—took a hand in the combat. Making their way through Goulot Wood, they captured 200 prisoners, four machine guns and two eight-inch howitzers. Advancing toward their final objectives, they encountered a German artillery nest, the gunners firing at them at point-blank range. One company of Scottish Borderers at once attacked with rifle grenades and Lewis guns, overcoming the German battery and taking four howitzers and five 77-millimeter guns.

The remainder of the Second Division had met with stubborn resistance. Grenadier, Graben and Dump Trenches were held by the Germans in strong force and with many machine guns. Yet these objectives were successively taken and some Canadian battalions penetrated as far as Thelus Village. Many prisoners were bagged in the old Huguenot caves. The stoutest resistance was encountered on the last line of all where the German gunners held their concrete gun positions well, firing point-blank as the Canadians came over the slope. These positions were taken at the point of the bayonet. By early afternoon the Second Division had taken all its objectives and was pushing out its patrols toward the line of villages beyond. Could these positions be taken, the victory would be complete. Unfortunately, their artillery now failed the Canadians. The heavy guns had got stuck in the mud, miles behind, and were consequently out of range. The Second Division was therefore held up at the railway line east of Farbus Wood.

The Third Division, meanwhile, after much difficulty, had cleared La Folie Wood and by 9 o'clock reached its final objective on the Red line, but its whole left flank was threatened by a well-placed and active foe.

#### **The Fight on "The Pimple"**

THE Fourth Division, on the extreme left, lost heavily in attacking a commanding



hillock known as "The Pimple," where the enemy had constructed a number of concrete and steel machine gun positions, all camouflaged so cleverly that their presence had not been discovered by the British gunners. From this eminence the Germans directed a devastating gunfire.

One Canadian battalion reached its objective, but every officer was killed or wounded; another battalion lost 60 per cent of its men in a very short time. The blizzard seriously hampered the Canadians, preventing that co-ordination of attack essential to success. In the slope of "The Pimple" the enemy had concealed themselves in newly dug tunnels, and after the Canadians had charged up to the summit they emerged and attacked them in the rear.

#### **Entire Battalion Wiped Out**

HOUR after hour the Germans and Canadians fought on, frequently hand-to-hand. Because of the pelting sleet, the Canadians could not keep up with the barrage. Fighting around a nest of craters, they could only grope blindly along. Once, when the 78th Canadian Battalion imagined they had captured their crater positions, and were consolidating, they found that all the terrain, three craters in their rear, was still in enemy hands. Attacked from behind by an overwhelming force, they were shot down to a man. Days afterward the bodies of these heroes were found there.

#### **Canadians at Last Win Vimy Ridge**

THE 72d Battalion was engaged in the center where all the trenches had been wiped out by shell-fire. Losing all sense of direction in the driving blizzard, the Canadian troops fought on until they struck against the German tram-line which traversed the slope in the direction of Souchez Village. In the fight that ensued, they were slaughtered, more than half of the entire command being killed or wounded.

By early afternoon the Fourth Division also was in bad plight. The losses were heavy and there was little to show for them. The men had displayed great gallantry, but the mud, which was very deep at this section of Vimy Ridge, and the unbroken German positions, had proved too strong.

The Canadians, nevertheless, were resolved to win, and win they did. Reforming in the afternoon, they renewed the attack and before night drove the Germans over the crest of "The Pimple." Next day another attack completely captured the position.

Vimy Ridge was now completely held by the Canadians and the Bavarian front had been flung back into the scarred field below. The Canadians had paid dearly for their victory, losing 13,000 men in the great attack. The German losses, however, were much greater.

It is worthy of mention that the Stars and Stripes were carried up Vimy Ridge by an American Volunteer, serving in the Canadian ranks.

#### **Canadians Capture Arleux and Fresnay**

CROSSING the Scarpe River, and pushing through the gap between the hills where the river enters the Douai Plain, the Canadians and their Scottish Allies drove the Germans before them. By Tuesday they had advanced as far as Tampoux and the road to Douai, occupying the enemy's third line of defenses, south of the Scarpe. On Wednesday, the Canadian Cavalry, in a daring charge, captured the commanding Heights of Monchy-le-Preux. From the Souchez River, south to the Arras-Cambrai Road, the Germans had been expelled from all the high ground thereabout and were retiring to new positions of defense. So rapid was the German retreat, that by April 14th, the Canadians had pursued them to the environs of Lens, while further south the important towns of Bailleul, Vimy, Givenchy and Arleux were in British hands. The advance was finally stopped at the Oppy Switch. During their advance, the British had taken 18,000 prisoners and more than 200 guns.

#### **Canadians Walk Through Two Barrages**

THE operations of this phase of the battle of Arras were continued on April 28th on a front of eight miles. The objectives of the Canadian Corps consisted of Arleux-en-Gobelle and the German trench system west of the village, known as the Arleux Loop.

The Canadian troops began their attack at daylight, fearlessly walking through two



barrages laid down by the Germans in order to get at the enemy beyond. In spite of the desperate resistance offered by the Germans the Canadians captured Arleux, taking hundreds of prisoners and reaching their objectives.

Co-operating with the British in a general attack from Bullicourt to Fresnay, the Canadians stormed the latter village, but in consequence of their failure to capture Oppy, they found themselves in a dangerous salient and later on evacuated Fresnay.

### **The Battle of Monchy**

LET us now return to the general British operations along the Arras battle front. The second phase of the battle of Arras had opened on April 23d, when the British advanced on a front of eight miles, taking the villages of Gavrelle and Guemappe, and breaking the Oppy line defending the German positions before Douai.

After their expulsion from the Monchy neighborhood, which controls the region for 40 miles thereabout, the Germans in ten days launched 20 desperate counter-attacks in their futile efforts to recover the lost ground. They were slaughtered by thousands, and lost 1,500 prisoners besides.

The Germans used 100,000 troops on this front of eight miles, and according to the British accounts, fought with "exceptional ferocity," but on the two following days of battle they showed exhaustion, yielding 2,000 prisoners to the British. Here, too, the aeroplanes played an active part, no fewer than 40 German machines being brought to ground, while the British lost but two.

A joyful incident of the battle was the reunion with several parties of British sol-

diers that had been given up for lost. Cut off from their own regiments, they had been swept by a British barrage, and subjected to constant shelling of the German guns, but somehow had managed to pull through, despite the ghastly peril that enveloped them.

### **The "Flaming Hell" at Bullicourt**

THE British, on May 3d, pierced the Hindenberg line at Bullicourt and Wancourt. Day by day, for four weeks, the Germans fought furiously to regain this position. From three sides they hurled themselves against the Canadian line, only to be cut down with great slaughter. Bullicourt presently became "a flaming hell." In twelve counter-attacks the Germans succeeded in destroying only a few of the British advanced positions. In tunnels, which afforded them protection, the Germans were barely able to hold a little section on the southwest corner of the village.

### **British Held Finally at Oppy Switch**

THE bloodiest battle in this area was fought on the morning of May 16th. The Germans had delivered a counter-attack of unusual strength, coming to grips with the Britishers in close combat, and springing at their throats when the supply of bombs were exhausted. The combatants now overflowed into the orchards and gardens, then fought it out in shell craters and behind stone walls. The British, by free use of the bayonet, were at last able to hold the enemy at bay.

The battle of Arras finally died down, after the British had taken 20,000 prisoners and 400 guns. They still held Vimy Ridge, but their advance had been checked at the Oppy Switch.

## **French Armies Advance On Craonne Plateau**

WHILE the British forces were attempting to turn the Northern flank of the new Hindenberg line, near Arras and Vimy Ridge, the French Armies were assaulting the Southern pivot of the Hindenberg line between Soissons and Rheims. The chief objective of the French was the Craonne Plateau, a ridge twelve miles long and rising some 200 feet above the level of the plain. The slopes of the Plateau, on the side facing

the French position, were ringed clear to the summit with a series of German trenches, all bristling with machine guns and occupied by 500,000 soldiers commanded by the Crown Prince Frederick. Its rocky crest was cut with deep ravines and caverns, affording admirable cover for many machine gun nests.

From end to end, along its wide summit, runs the famous Chemin-des-Dames ("Ladies' Road"), a shaded boulevard con-



structed by orders of King Louis XIV for the pleasure of his daughters.

On the reverse slopes of the plateau, the German artillery was well concealed. Excepting Vimy Ridge, there was no other position on the Western front so formidable as this. To attempt its capture by direct assault seemed a desperate enterprise.

There was, however, a more vulnerable point of attack just south of the Craonne Plateau, where the Hindenberg line traversed a stretch of flat country, covering a gap some ten miles wide. If this gap could be penetrated, the German line would be broken in halves and the way opened to assault the German strongholds from the rear.

The Germans had expended much labor in strengthening this gap. Elaborate concrete works had been constructed and the hill near Ville-aux-Bois tunneled to provide a series of galleries in which the German troops might find protection from artillery fire.

East of Rheims, and dominating the whole of Champagne, rose the isolate Moronvillers Hills, constituting a military obstacle hardly inferior to the Craonne Plateau itself.

### Threefold Attack Planned

GEN. NIVELLE had planned a "threefold attack" on the Southern flank of the Hindenberg line. The Army group commanded by Gen. d'Esperey was ordered to advance across the Western face of the Soissons salient at St. Quentin, above Craonne Plateau, and break through to Laon. The Army group under command of Gen. Micheler was to push northward, between Soissons and Rheims, straight over the great Craonne Plateau, uniting with d'Esperey's army at Laon. If this double movement succeeded, the German Armies defending Craonne would be caught in a gigantic trap and either captured or destroyed.

Further south, Gen. Petain was to launch an attack against the Moronvillers Hills, east of Rheims, to prevent the sending of German reinforcements from that sector to Craonne Plateau. The opposing infantry forces were about equal, 1,500,000 each, but the French still were weak in cannon, munitions and armament of all sorts.

### French Cabinet Resigns, Officers Mutiny

ON THE eve of the French offensive, mutiny broke out afresh among the officers of the various armies. Foreseeing a dreadful slaughter if Gen. Nivelle's plans were carried out, the French generals with but few exceptions pleaded with him to abandon the hopeless enterprise and adopt the safer plan proposed by Marshal Joffre. But to all their pleading Gen. Nivelle turned a deaf ear.

The disaffection among the officers had its immediate political effect. The Briand Ministry, which had elevated Nivelle to the supreme command, was forced to resign and a new Cabinet formed with M. Ribot as Premier and Painleve as Minister of War. Painleve endeavored to restore order out of the chaos which reigned in the French Army, by cautioning Nivelle to go slow in his offensive, but his advice went unheeded.

The inclement weather conditions further assisted in weakening the morale of the French Army. Under the perpetual pelting of the sleet, which fell daily, three quarters of the unacclimated colored troops collapsed. Due to the same causes, which prevented aerial observations, the French gun fire was inaccurate. Ten days of artillery preparation failed to reduce the enemy works over the wide front.

### Attack on St. Quentin Fails

THE battle of Craonne opened April 14th with a violent attack on St. Quentin by the group of armies directed by Gen. d'Esperey. If the German line could be pierced at this point and the French push through to Laon, the whole German defense might soon be crumpled up. The Germans, realizing the danger, concentrated in great force on this sector. Having the superiority in artillery they were enabled to beat down the French attack within 48 hours. D'Esperey was unable to resume his offensive; he had completely failed.

### Battle of Craonne Plateau Opens

UNDETERRED by this ominous defeat of St. Quentin, Gen. Nivelle on April 16th, decided to launch his desperate attack on the formidable Craonne Plateau, at the very moment when the British advance east of Vimy Ridge



was being brought to a halt. Following an artillery preparation, which destroyed the enemy's first line, three French Armies commanded by Gen. Mangin, Gen. Mazel and Gen. Duchesne left their trenches and advanced rapidly towards the gap between Craonne and Fort Brimont.

Forewarned by a detailed plan of battle, given by a French officer to a mere private who had been captured the day before, the Germans had withdrawn most of their forces from their front line trenches to the stronger trenches in the rear, which were packed with machine guns.

Sweeping forward in successive waves, the French overran the German front trenches, overrunning the Chemin-des-Dames, taking 2,500 prisoners and capturing the town of Loivre after overcoming stiff resistance.

French tanks, used for the first time in this battle, attempted to open the way for the cavalry exploitation to Laon behind the Craonne Plateau, but they were halted at Pontavert and failed to reach their objective, the third German line.

The French Infantry, advancing up the slopes of the Plateau toward the second line of German trenches, encountered a hurricane of bullets from thousands of German machine guns which stopped them dead in their tracks. The resistance was especially effective south and east of Brimont Ridge, from which position the Germans for two years or more had been bombarding Rheims. In the afternoon the Germans violently counter-attacked all along their line, definitely halting the French advance before the second line. So, instead of reaching Laon in a single day, as Gen. Nivelle had so confidently predicted, the French had progressed only a few hundred yards in this sector.

Gen. Nivelle, on the 17th, directed Gens. Mangin and Mazel to shift their attack to the northeast and at the same time Gen. Anthoine's 4th Army was launched against Moronvillers. For three days the battle waged furiously, all the way from Soissons into Champagne. Despite the rain and the snow, the attack of the French proved irresistible. South of Moronvillers, the German first-line positions over a front of ten miles were taken and to the east a strongly organized line on

a front of eight miles was captured. On this sector more than 3,000 Germans were made prisoners.

### **Germans Driven Across the Aisne**

MIDWAY between Soissons and Rheims, 17,000 prisoners and 75 cannon fell to the French and a counter-attack launched by the Germans north of Rheims was broken by a force of Russians guarding this part of the line. So accurate and deadly was the French gunfire that German prisoners reported an average of only 80 survivors out of companies numbering 250 men.

On April 18th, in the forest of Ville-aux-Bois, where an enveloping movement was carried out, 1,300 Germans threw down their arms and surrendered. Between Soissons and Rheims, the villages of Ostel and Broye-en-Laonnois were captured, together with much war material and 19 cannon.

At the close of the third day of battle the German line, from Soissons to Auberive, was driven across the Aisne, the last German hold on the south bank of the river east of Soissons falling into the hands of the French on April 18th.

The French scored further gains on both wings of their 50-mile front on April 19th. On the right, after storming a powerful position north of Auberive, they pushed up to the outskirts of Vaudesincourt. Eighteen fresh German divisions were then thrown into the fight, but they were unable to stop the French who in the night stormed Mount Haut and other strong points about the Moronvillers Ridge and beating back many furious counter-attacks. Since the beginning of the offensive the French had taken 19,000 prisoners and 120 guns.

### **French Reduce the Vailly Salient**

ON A considerable portion of the front, from Soissons to Craonne, the Germans were retiring to their new line, their old defenses being destroyed by the concentrated French artillery fire. Gradually all the German salients along the Soissons-Auberive front, were being crushed. The principal salient to which the Germans had clung formed an angle east of Rheims. Caught as in a vice by the troops advancing northeast from Laffaux and northwest from Vailly, the angle



collapsed when the French captured Fort Conde.

The primary object of Allied strategy was not to pierce the German lines, but to break the resistance and reduce the physical and moral strength of the Germans everywhere.

### **Tremendous Losses**

IN ten days the Germans had lost 35,000 prisoners and 300 guns, and inflicted losses in killed, wounded and missing estimated at 100,000. The French losses, on the other hand, had been equally great—15,500 killed, 70,000 injured, 20,000 missing, a total of 100,000 casualties. All that Gen. Nivelle had to show for that loss was a section of the Chemin-des-Dames, the reduction of the Vailly salient, the elimination both of the German bridgehead south of the Aisne and the German position near Fort Conde.

### **French Morale is Shaken**

Gen. Micheler, on April 21st, had informed Gen. Nivelle that it was time to abandon the campaign, since there were only four divisions of infantry available in the French Reserves to carry on. The assault on Craonne Plateau had failed and the German

line had neither been flanked nor ruptured.

The morale of the French Army was now so shaken, that veteran regiments, which had participated in scores of victorious battles, declined to advance and many death warrants were signed of French soldiers who refused to obey the orders of their commander in the face of certain death.

### **Nivelle Succeeded by Petain**

ALARMED at the disaffection in the Army, and appalled at the size of the French losses, the French Government on May 15th removed Nivelle and intrusted the supreme command of the French Armies to Gen. Petain, the hero of Verdun. His first act was to call Gen. Foch from undeserved obscurity and appoint him Chief of Staff, while Gen. Fayolle was given the command of Petain's group of armies.

Gen. Petain at once notified Gen. Haig that months might elapse before the French Armies would be in condition to resume the offensive. As a matter of fact, it was late in October when Petain was ready to launch his offensive, not at Craonne Plateau, but on his old stamping ground at Verdun. After his demotion, Gen. Nivelle went into retirement.

UNITED STATES, APRIL 24—MAY 21

## **Allied Nations Send Distinguished Envoys to United States**

Marshal Joffre of France, Lord Balfour of England, Marconi of Italy

SECTION 13—1917

**I**MMEDIATELY after America's Declaration of War, the Allied nations sent high commissioners to the United States to express their gratitude for the timely entrance of this Republic into the War, to plan for a closer co-ordination of action in warfare, to exact a pledge that no separate peace should be concluded with Germany, and to ask extensive credits from our nation in the purchase here of war supplies.

### **The French Envoys Arrive**

THE French Commission, headed by Marshal Joffre, the hero of the Marne, and Rene Viviani, a former Premier of France, was accorded a most impressive welcome. The

vessel in which the French envoys took passage from France, and which had been conveyed by French war ships across the Atlantic, was met at night, when 100 miles off the Atlantic coast, by a flotilla of American destroyers, docking at Hampton Roads on April 24th. Here the envoys transferred to the President's yacht Mayflower, which conveyed them to Washington.

By invitation, Marshal Joffre and M. Viviani appeared before the Senate and House of Representatives, receiving a great ovation.

Visiting Mt. Hermon, Gen. Joffre laid a bronze palm on the tomb of George Wash-



ington and M. Viviani paid an eloquent tribute to the memory of the Father of His Country. A tour of several states followed, and everywhere the distinguished guests were received with acclamations of joy and gratitude.

### The British Commissioners

THE British Commission, headed by Lord Arthur Balfour, left England secretly on April 11th; arrived at Halifax on the 20th; crossed to St. John and came by special train to the town of McAdam on the Canadian border; then crossed to Vanceboro on the American side, where they were received by the Third Assistant Secretary of State, Rear-Admiral Fletcher and General Ward, and escorted to Washington.

Lord Balfour, by invitation, addressed the House of Representatives, being the first British official ever to receive this privilege. Before leaving the Capitol, he laid a wreath of lilies on the tomb of Washington. Both the English and the French commissioners were tendered a reception and dinner at New York on May 31st.

### Other Nations Send Envoys

CORDIAL welcome was also extended to the members of other national missions: The Prince of Udine and Signor Marconi, the inventor of wireless telegraphy, representing Italy; Boris Bakhmetieff, representing Russia; Baron Moncheur, representing Belgium,

and the envoys from Roumania, Japan and Ireland.

### Enormous Credits Extended to the Allies

AMPLE funds being now available in the United States Treasury, additional loans made to the Allies as follows: Great Britain, \$200,000,000, to which was added \$300,000,000 in July; France, \$100,000,000 to which was added \$60,000,000 the following month; Russia, \$175,000,000; Italy, \$100,000,000; Serbia, \$3,000,000. By the end of July, 1917, the United States had loaned to the Allied nations \$1,525,000,000, or more than half of the amount which Congress had allotted for financing the war purchases of the Allies.

### Understandings Reached

AS A result of these missions, a perfect understanding was reached with reference to the needs and desires of the Allies. The conduct of the blockade, naval operations, munitions supplies, military dispositions and shipment of foodstuffs, were among the subjects discussed. Great Britain urged the building of American ships with all possible speed to counteract the losses from submarine attacks.

France pleaded for the immediate dispatch of American troops across the water, a prayer which did not go unanswered. Upon the departure of Lord Balfour, the work of the British mission here was continued by Lord Northcliffe.

UNITED STATES, MAY 16—JUNE 5

## 9,586,508 Young Men Enroll Under Selective Service Law

Army of 1,152,985 in the Making — 448 Cantonments Constructed

Socialists, Pacifists and Slackers Oppose the Draft — Rebellion in Oklahoma

SECTION 14—1917

THE creation of a new American Army, adequate in numbers to cope if need be with the full strength of the Germanic Allies, was now the chief task of Congress. Deeming it impractical to depend upon volunteer enlistments in raising such an army, President Wilson presented a modified form of conscription for the approval of Congress.

The Selective Service Bill, as it came to be known, encountered much opposition in Congress and elsewhere, but it was finally passed on May 16th, by a vote of 478 to 32 in both Houses, receiving the presidential signature two days later.

Under the provisions of this Act, all male citizens and intended citizens, between the ages of 21 and 30, were subject to call and



required to register their names for possible enrollment.

The bill also authorized President Wilson to raise the Regular Army by enlistment to its maximum strength of 287,000 men, to draft into the service of the United States all members of the National Guard and the National Guard Reserve, and raise by selective draft an additional force of 500,000 men (or so much as he might deem necessary) and another 500,000 at his discretion, this force to be known as the National Army.

June 5th was fixed, by proclamation, as Registration Day, save in Alaska, Hawaii and Porto Rico, where a time for registration was named later.

The President increased the number of men to be drafted for the United States First Army from 500,000 to 687,000, in order to use drafted men to bring the Regular Army to its full strength of 287,000 and the National Guard to its full strength of 400,000.

Before the draft registration was begun, there were 200,000 enlistments in the Regular Army, while the National Guard was recruited to 450,000, three times its former strength. At the same time the Navy personnel was increased to 100,000 as an emergency measure, and 100,000 additional men were secured by September.

#### **Socialists Oppose the Draft**

Socialists, slackers, cowards, pacifists and pro-Germans started many anti-draft demonstrations in the larger cities as Registration Day drew near.

In Boston, a parade of Socialists was met by a group of sailors, marines and soldiers, who tore the anarchist flags into shreds and compelled the Socialist band to play the "Star Spangled Banner."

In Philadelphia, thirteen Socialists were arrested while distributing anti-draft pamphlets, and a raid on their headquarters later on brought some 49 slackers into the Government net.

Tons of leaflets and pamphlets, denouncing conscription and urging Americans not to register, were issued from Socialist headquarters.

The Socialist party in Cleveland, describing the Selective Draft as a step toward "in-

voluntary servitude," pledged moral and financial support to all who refused to "become the victims of the ruling classes." Under this persuasion, numbers of Socialists failed to register, but they were afterward caught and each dissident in turn was sent to prison for one year.

#### **9,586,508 Young Americans Enrolled**

THE Draft Law became effective on June 5th, with Gen. Enoch H. Crowder as Provost Marshal in charge of the conscription, assisted by Capt. Hugh S. Johnson and Cassius M. Powell. On that day, 9,586,508 young men of military age presented themselves before 4557 registration boards throughout the country and enrolled their names.

The order in which the registrants were to be called on to determine their availability for military service was settled by a great central lottery at Washington on July 20th. The first quota under the draft was 687,000 men.

On July 30th, the National Army accepted the first selected man under the draft plan, and by September 1, 1917, approximately 180,000 men were passed by the Registration Boards and ready for training.

In addition to the 687,000 men enrolled, there were added 465,985 men when the quotas were apportioned to the states and territories, making a total enrollment of 1,152,985.

#### **Rebellion in Oklahoma**

AFTER registration, and as the time approached when drafted men must appear before their local boards for physical examination, hundreds of I. W. W. members, tenant-farmers, Indians and negroes in Oklahoma organized as the "Working Class Union" and the "Jones Family," determined not to be drafted.

They cut telegraph wires, burned bridges, destroyed crops and coerced some peaceful citizens into joining their ranks, spreading terror over three counties. They were soon run down, however.

Several of the resisters were killed, 200 were taken prisoners and held under the charge of treason to the United States Gov-

ernment. All those who had evaded their duty were automatically inducted into the military service and made subject to military law, which imposed the death penalty for desertion.

#### 448 Cantonments and Reserve Depots

THE first great military operation was the construction in this country of large cantonments and camps for the mobilization and initial training of the troops. In three months, the construction division of the Quartermaster General's Department had built 16 cantonments, each one practically a city, comprising about 1,400 separate buildings, and providing quarters for 47,000 men.

By November 1, 1918, the original 16 projects had grown to 448, including only major undertakings.

#### Army of 1,500,000 in the Making

WITH the intention of evolving the entire quota by the end of September, 1917, before which time it was thought the cantonments would be ready to receive them, the Selective Service Board proceeded to call and examine over 1,500,000 men. The first registrant was assimilated by the Army as early as July 30, 1917, and by September 1st, the local boards stood ready to deliver 180,000 men, the first three per cent of the entire quota, to the cantonments.

WESTERN THEATER, JUNE 6—DEC. 31

### First American Expeditionary Force of 30,000 Arrives in France

Gen. Pershing Receives a Royal Welcome in France—Stupendous Engineering Work Begun at American Base—Col. Roosevelt's Offer to Lead a Division is Declined  
First American Army Corps—First American Shot Fired in the War

SECTION 15—1917

(Flag Border Appears Wherever American Soldiers Participate)

WHILE the youth of America were rallying to the colors in the spring of 1917, and preparations were under way to shape them into an invincible Army, France and England together were imploring the United States to despatch troops across the sea without delay, for the moral influence their mere presence would exert upon the war-weary legions in the Western trenches.

With the arrival of the French Mission in America, Gen. Joffre added his personal prayer that America come quickly to the assistance of the sorely pressed Allied armies.

Yielding to these entreaties, President Wilson, on May 19th, announced that one division of the Regular Army, together with nine regiments of Army Engineers, would be sent to France at the earliest possible moment. On the same day, the Secretary of the Navy announced that 2,600 Marines would accompany Gen. Pershing.

#### Pershing a Full General

THE command of this expeditionary force, numbering 30,000 men, was given to Major-General John J. Pershing, a distinguished

officer who had won his laurels in the Philippines during the Spanish-American War, and in 1914 commanded the American Expedition into Mexico which sought to capture Villa. By Congressional decree, on May 26th, he was advanced to the full rank of General, an honor hitherto held only by Washington, Grant, Sherman and Sheridan, and named Commander-in-Chief of the American Army.

General Pershing was ordered to proceed to Europe in advance of the Expeditionary Force, select the ports of debarkation for the Army, and oversee the training areas.

#### Pershing Meets King George

WITH his staff of 53 officers and 146 men, including privates and civilian attaches, Gen. Pershing secretly embarked on the White Star liner Baltic, sailing for England. Arriving at Liverpool, on June 6th, he was received with much ceremony by Gen. Sir Pitcairn Campbell, the Lord Mayor of Liverpool and Admiral Spellman, then by special train to London. There he was received by Lord Derby, Secretary of State for War, Gen. Sir John French, United States Ambassador Page and Admiral Sims of the United States



Navy. On the following day, he was presented to King George V at Buckingham Palace. A round of receptions, dinners and formal calls followed for several days.

General Pershing, on June 13th, took boat for France, debarking at Boulogne. On the landing quay he was welcomed by General Dumas, General Pelletier and General Dupont, and by a detachment of French Infantry fresh from the trenches. In Boulogne, General Pershing was formally received by a large deputation representing the French Government and the French and British Navies. The populace greeted the American Commander with tremendous enthusiasm.

### Royal Welcome in Paris

PROCEEDING on to Paris, Gen. Pershing was accorded a royal welcome, all France thundering its welcome. Millions thronged the streets, waving American flags, and the two-mile route along which the cortege passed was patrolled by French soldiers. Marshal Joffre, General Foch, Premier Painleve, M. Viviani, General Brugere, General Dutail, Ambassador Sharp and other distinguished officers and officials greeted our General. A dinner at the American Embassy was tendered General Pershing that evening, attended by the chief members of the French Cabinet and officers of the Army and Navy.

### Handles Napoleon's Sword

THE culminating honor paid to General Pershing was reserved for June 14th, when he was escorted to the Invalides to visit the tomb of Napoleon Bonaparte. Conducted by Marshal Joffre, General Pershing and his staff were admitted to the crypt where the sarcophagus of Napoleon reposes. The privilege of entering this crypt had hitherto been restricted to kings or the rulers of states. After inserting the key in the brass door, the French escort stepped aside, leaving Pershing to turn the key and open the door.

Entering an alcove of the crypt, the Governor of the Invalides reverently removed Napoleon's sword from the case in which it had reposed for a century and passed it to General Pershing, who held it at salute and kissed the hilt. Another relic, the Cross of

the Cordon of the Legion of Honor, was then placed in General Pershing's hand. This was the supreme honor that France could bestow upon any man, for previously no foreign king, no dignitary of France, had ever been permitted to touch the historic relics.

From the Invalides, General Pershing went to the Executive Mansion, where he was received by President Poincare. A visit to the Chamber of Deputies followed. As General Pershing entered the diplomatic box, the deputies arose and stood cheering. Premier Ribot and M. Viviani then extolled the United States in eloquent orations.

### "Lafayette, We Are Here"

FROM a balcony of the Military Club, on June 15th, General Pershing received the plaudits of the Paris multitudes.

In the afternoon of the same day he visited Picpus Cemetery, where he placed a wreath of American Beauty roses on the tomb of Lafayette. After a few words of welcome had been spoken by the Marquis de Chambrun, a descendant of Lafayette, General Pershing approached the tomb and said with much feeling:

"Lafayette, we are here."

The concluding honor paid to General Pershing was his reception by the French Senate, in which the statesmen of France vied each with the other in testifying their affection for the American Republic.

### 100,000 Americans Already Fighting

THE social amenities having been duly observed, General Pershing applied himself without further delay to the work of preparation for war, establishing his modest headquarters in the rue de Constantine.

There were as yet no regular American troops in France, but various special units of the American Army had preceded General Pershing to France. As early as May 24th, the first United States combatant troops, mostly Cornell University undergraduates, had gone to the front under Captain E. I. Tinkham and Lieutenant Scully of Princeton. Detachments from other American colleges were undergoing training for war in France. A statement issued by the British War Office, on May 28th, indicated that, inclusive of those serving with the British and



French Armies, there were nearly 100,000 Americans on the battle front in France.

General Pershing selected as the ultimate base of operations for the American Army, a sector of the Western front centering in Verdun, as most convenient to the available ports of debarkation. The ports finally reserved for the American Army's exclusive use were those at Brest, Nantes, La Pallice and Bordeaux. Temporary barracks were erected at each port for the use of the troops and additional wharves were constructed. Some few railroad lines already existed which were barely adequate for the transportation of the American Expeditionary Force to the training area in the Verdun sector.

### **Expeditionary Force Lands in France**

THE first contingent of the American Expeditionary Force, comprising four regiments of Regulars, recently withdrawn from the Mexican border, and one regiment of Marines, all under command of Major-General W. L. Sibert, embarked from New York on June 14th. So secretly and swiftly had the move been made that not even the families of the soldiers knew that they had been sent overseas. Preceded by the naval collier Jupiter, and escorted by a convoy of destroyers, the troopships steamed into the harbor of St. Nazaire, France, on June 26th.

Admiral Gleaves, in command of the convoys, reported that the troopships had been attacked on two occasions by German U-boats. The first attack was on the night of June 22d, when a torpedo missed by 20 feet the bow of one of the transports. The ships immediately changed their courses and every gun was put into action, but the submarine apparently had fled. Early the next morning the periscope of a submarine was sighted. An American destroyer quickly dropped a depth bomb over the spot, utterly destroying the submarine.

### **July Fourth Celebrated in France**

THE second contingent arrived a week later, reporting that a submarine had fired two torpedoes at the transports without effect. The third contingent landed in France without mishap on July 2d.

The Fourth of July was enthusiastically celebrated throughout France. In Paris,

the chief feature was the parade of the Second Battalion, 16th Infantry. A vast crowd collected and the enthusiasm reached its highest pitch when Gen. Pershing, escorted by Marshal Joffre and President Poincare, reviewed the American troops.

### **American Training Camps**

ON July 6th, it was announced that the American Army would immediately begin its training for the line. Gen. Sibert moved his command by rail from St. Nazaire to the Gondrecourt area, where the five regiments were billeted in the neighboring villages.

Their training in warfare was begun on July 25th, under the direction of French officers. Offensive and defensive tactics were employed; sham battles were staged with grenades, bombs, bayonets and trench mortars; dummies were provided for practice in bayonet thrusts; the best methods of resisting gas attacks were taught; route marching was daily indulged in, the men's packs being increased in weight until they tipped the scales at 50 pounds; all the soldiers were supplied with steel helmets.

### **Stupendous Work at Debarkation Ports**

MEANWHILE, the American Engineering Corps were advancing their preparations for the landing of the Great American Army at the ports of debarkation. Hundreds of barracks were being erected; miles of wharves were under way; the harbors were being deepened; hundreds of miles of branch railroads and sidings were being constructed; labor-saving machinery was being installed; a force of negroes was brought over to handle freights; much equipment was also transported; immense warehouses were to be built; huge cold storage plants were planned; and all preparations were made for the transportation of the great supplies of food, clothing and medicines needed for the soldiers, besides fodder for the horses, supplies for the Red Cross, the Y. M. C. A., the Knights of Columbus, the Salvation Army and the Jewish Welfare Committee.

The French people looked on in amazement as these gigantic engineering works developed under the magic impulse of American initiative and genius. No such stu-



pendous undertakings had ever been witnessed in Europe before. Thousands of Americans, including many college graduates, toiled at this work with a zest that was wonderful to see. While the work at the debarkation ports was in progress, American engineers were working like beavers on the construction of a great aviation camp and school in France. This was completed in a few months and here our "birdmen" received the finishing touches of their training under the tutelage of French military aviators.

#### **"Yankee" Division First to Arrive**

THE second great movement of United States troops in France took place in September. First to arrive, on September 21st, was the 26th (Yankee) Division of National Guard units from New England, in command of Major-General Clarence R. Edwards, which transferred at once to the training area, with headquarters at Neufchateau.

The Yankee Division, having already been trained in the United States, took over the work of the 5th Marines as Military Police and Lines of Communication Troops, in making preparations for the Army that was to arrive.

#### **2nd Division Formed in France**

WITH the arrival of the 9th and 23d Regiments of Regulars, a new division, the Second, was formed by uniting with the Regulars the 3d Infantry Brigade and the 4th Marine Brigade. This division was organized during the last three months of 1917, with headquarters at Bourmont (Haute Marne). Brigadier General Doyen commanded the Second Division until November 7th, when Major General Bundy was assigned to the command.

#### **Rainbow Division Arrives**

THE 42d (Rainbow) Division, composed of National Guard units from almost every state in the Union, arrived in France on October 29th, and was first assembled in the Vaucouleurs Area, where it remained until December 11th, then transferring to the La Fauche Area. Major-General Menoher relieved Major-General Mann in command of the 42d Division.

On Christmas Day, in a blizzard, the Rainbow Division began a march of 47 miles over ice-coated roads, accomplishing the feat in three days. Many of the troops lacked overcoats and gloves, but though chilled to the bone and leaving a red trail of blood in the snow, they pluckily pushed through.

#### **41st Division Broken Up**

THE 41st Division, National Guard, all Western boys, under command of Major General Hunter Liggett, arrived in France on December 7th. After being assembled in the St. Aignan Training Area, near Tours, and designated as the First Depot Division, the 41st was broken up into training cadres for the instruction of replacements for combat divisions on the front. The 66th Artillery Brigade, however, was left intact and became on July 1st the Corps Artillery of the First American Army Corps. As such it served throughout the three big American campaigns of the War.

#### **Within Hearing of the Guns**

So, at the close of the year 1917, the United States had organized four combat divisions in France; the 1st and 2d Regulars, with Marines, and the 26th and 42d National Guard. In addition there was the 41st, now known as the Depot Division. These were all made a part of the First American Army Corps, commanded by Major-Gen. Liggett, with headquarters at Neufchateau.

All four American combat divisions were located in one large area, centering in the triangle formed by Chaumont, Bar-le-Duc and Neufchateau. They were already within hearing of the guns on the front, with St. Mihiel, the nearest point, only 20 miles distant.

#### **French and British Artillery Provided**

THE Artillery brigades for all four divisions had also reached France and were being trained by French officers in the use of the French 75-millimeter gun and 155-millimeter howitzer. By arrangement, the French and British Governments supplied the American Army during the ensuing year with all the field, medium and heavy artillery used by our gunners.



### First American Shot Fired

THE first American division to complete its preliminary training and go to the front was the 1st Division of Regulars, which was assigned to the quiet Sommerville sector, southeast of Nancy. During the night of October 20, 1917, one battalion of each of the four regiments relieved alternate French battalions holding their allotted sectors of the line.

Each American battalion spent ten days in the trenches, with one company in the front line and the others in support and reserve. The American divisional artillery, their training finished, had previously gone into position in support of the infantry along with the French artillery.

American and French gunners eagerly sought the opportunity of firing the first shot. The honor fell to Battery C, 6th United States Field Artillery, on October 23, 1917. This was the first hostile artillery shot fired by American troops in the War. The gun was later sent to West Point, where it now forms part of the collection of trophies of the Military Academy, while the brass case was sent to President Wilson.

### First German Raid on American Trench

THE Germans for three years had been quite inactive in this sector, but learning that American soldiers were in the trenches, they now planned a little surprise for our boys. On the night of November 3d, the German artillery laid down a barrage on that part of the front occupied by the 16th Infantry Regiment, isolating an advanced post. In the wake of this barrage a German raiding party, crossing the space of a mile or more which separates the lines, blew a gap in the barbed wire and captured the few men in the outposts. Our boys sprang from their trenches to rescue their comrades, but the Germans eluded them, returning to their lines.

### Intense Suffering of Troops in Trenches

THE winter of 1917-1918 was unusually severe, entailing intense suffering on the part of the American troops in the Lorraine sector. In the sleet and bitter cold, through deep snow and over the frozen hills of Lor-

raine during that awful winter, the young Americans were trained in open warfare, while the French remained in the shelter of their trenches. The junior officers were frequently on the point of mutiny, freely criticising the generals for their supposed incompetence. Gen. Pershing, however, insisted upon practice in open warfare, and his justification came in the following year when our troops won immortal glory by their impetuous attacks on the Germans.

### 200,000 Americans on French Soil

THE American Army in France continued to grow. In May, 1917, only 1718 were sent across. In June 15,059 additional troops had arrived, in July 15,000, in August 20,000, in September 33,000, in October 40,000, in November 23,000, in December 50,000. Thus by the first of January, 1918, there were 200,000 American soldiers in training on French soil, a larger army than McClellan commanded in the first year of the Civil War. England provided the troopships and convoys to carry a third of the troops to France.

These troops were at once sent to the training camps where they were given six months' intensive training under French and British officers. Not only were they given instruction by experts in bombing, trenching, bayonet practice and scouting; they were also given the benefit of all the newest discoveries in aeroplane work, in artillery fire, range finding, communication work, and secret service methods. School of warfare was opened where every branch of the science was taught.

As soon as each unit of the American Expeditionary Force had absorbed instruction, the men were given trial experiences in front line trenches and in reserve lines. Following this work, they were drilled in the evolution of divisions, so as to be prepared for the day when America should have several Armies in the line.

### Col. Roosevelt Offers to Raise a Division

COL. THEODORE ROOSEVELT, former President of the United States, had offered to raise and lead a volunteer force of four infantry divisions to fight in France. He



named several of the most effective officers of the Regular Army whom he desired to serve under him. After much discussion, Congress gave the desired authority, but the President refused to sanction the project, on the ground that a volunteer force such as Col. Roosevelt planned to raise, would be recruited from the ranks of men of advanced ages who were not physically fit for warfare, whereas the best opinion of army experts, "on both sides of the water," was that

only men of 21 to 30 years of age should be chosen and qualified for service according to scientific rules laid down by the drill-masters of the Army. In a word, only trained soldiers were to be used in this War, not a motley of patriotic volunteers. Though Col. Roosevelt was denied the privilege of taking part in the War, it was a consolation for him to know that all four of his sons entered the Army and gained merited distinction.

..... EASTERN THEATER—JUNE 21 .....

## King Constantine of Greece Abdicates Throne in Favor of Son

His German Wife Plots to Betray Greece Into the Kaiser's Hands  
Greece Rises In Rebellion—New King Espouses Cause of the Allies

..... SECTION 16—1917 .....

THE German conspiracies in the Balkans not only had alienated Greece and Bulgaria from their natural allegiance to the Allies and brought disaster both to Serbia and Roumania, they had given free rein to the savage passions of the Turks as well. These conspiracies came to an end on June 11, 1917, when King Constantine of Greece was compelled to abdicate his throne in favor of his son Alexander.

King Constantine had been as wax in the hands of his wife Sophia, the sister of Emperor William of Germany. Through her contrivance, Greece had observed a spurious neutrality while secretly aiding Germany; the aspirations of the Greek people for complete freedom had been thwarted, and Greece betrayed into playing an ignoble part in the great War for human freedom.

### Queen Sophia Seeks German Aid

EARLY in 1916, both Queen Sophia and King Constantine had implored the Kaiser to send an army into the Balkans and expel from Greek soil the Allied forces assembling at Salonika for the support of Serbia. A few weeks later, the royal conspirators ordered the Greek garrison at Fort Rupel to surrender to the Bulgarians.

In December, 1916, after a band of Greek royalists in Athens had fired upon the representatives of the Allies, Queen Sophia

exulted in a letter to the Kaiser over the "splendid victory" which Greek arms had achieved over "four great powers." At the same time, she again urged her brother to dispatch an army to Greece and rid the country of the presence of Allied troops.

To this appeal, Emperor William craftily replied that it were better that King Constantine should wage war against Gen. Sarraïl's forces at Salonika. Queen Sophia declared this impossible, owing to the lack of equipment and ammunition in the Greek Army.

Emperor William then suggested the expediency of organizing Greek guerilla bands to operate in the Lake Ochrida Region in conjunction with the Austrian forces. Acting upon this suggestion, guerilla bands were organized under the general command of the Master of the King's House.

### Queen Sophia Takes Fright

ABOUT this time the Allies decided to punish King Constantine by establishing a blockade of Greek ports. When starvation seemed imminent, Queen Sophia took fright and telegraphed to Gen von Falkenhausen:

"Owing to the continuance of the blockade, there is only bread left for a few days longer, and other foodstuffs are also growing scarcer. The idea of war against the Entente Allies is now out of the question. Negotiations are now proceeding on the note.



I consider the game lost. If the attack is not made immediately, it will be too late."

### **The German Plot Proceeds**

NEVERTHELESS, the German plot to embroil Greece with the Allies was progressing. On December 10, 1916, Ambassador Theotokis from Berlin sent the following telegram to his liege lord at Athens:

"Let von Falkenhausen await at Berlin the decision which will be taken at Athens. In case it is neutrality, he will proceed to Podgradetz; in case of rupture with the Entente, he will go by aeroplane to Larissa. In any case, it is of the greatest importance to develop as quickly as possible the question of Caravitis' bands and matters relative thereto. Pray inform me with all speed what assistance in the way of munitions, money and provisions you would want. The object of Caravitis should be to cut the railroad from Monastir to Salonika and harass Sarraïl's rear. One should not lose sight of the fact that even this unofficial action by the bands will powerfully help Greece when the time for negotiations comes to put forward large territorial claims which, naturally, can be larger in case action is taken than in case of neutrality. Falkenhausen is awaiting instructions upon which he will act immediately."

### **King Constantine's Treachery Disclosed**

THOUGH Greece had declared her neutrality, and the sympathies of the nation were undoubtedly with the Allies in the War for freedom, still King Constantine persisted in secretly plotting to align Greece with Germany in the War against the Allies. On January 6, 1917, he sent the following telegram to Gen. von Hindenberg:

"The present situation must be seriously considered, as it is probable that a declaration of war might come before mobilization could be affected. Probably the Entente desire to involve Greece in immediate war so as to destroy her before the German occupation could begin. Already Greece is faced with a fresh Entente note demanding her complete disarmament. The transport of the whole of the artillery and war material to the Peloponnesus is being maintained by

the pressure of the blockade. The Government and the people are resisting with constancy, enduring all sorts of privations, but the situation is growing worse from day to day. It is urgent that we should be informed if German attack on the Macedonian front is contemplated, and when it is likely to begin."

### **Sophia Refers to Allies as "Infamous Swine"**

WHEN Queen Sophia's supplies of sauerkraut and limberger cheese were diminished during the blockade of the Greek ports, she wept bitter tears. "How I suffer!" she wrote to the Kaiser. "Thank you warmly for your welcome words. May the infamous swine receive the punishment they deserve. I embrace you heartily. Your exiled and unhappy sister who hopes for better times. (Signed) Sophia."

### **King Constantine Forced to Abdicate**

BETTER times were to be denied Sophia, for Destiny had decreed that the "infamous swine" were to overturn her house of cards.

The Allies, and particularly England, had been loath to dethrone King Constantine, but in June, 1917, they decided that the Greek King should no longer be permitted to carry on his intrigues with Germany. By authority of the French, British and Italian Governments, M. Jounart, former Governor General of Algeria, was sent to Athens to demand Constantine's abdication. The latter capitulated on June 11, 1917, designating his second son Alexander as his successor, and retiring to Switzerland. In his last proclamation to the Greek Nation, King Constantine said:

"Obeying the necessity of fulfilling my duty toward Greece, I am departing from my beloved country, accompanied by the heir to the crown, and I leave my son Alexander on the throne. I beg you to accept my decision with calm."

Greece accepted the King's abdication with wondrous calm and with the resolution to sever at once the cords which bound the nation to Germany. King Alexander, upon his accession, summoned Venizelos to form a Ministry. On June 21st, the Greek Chamber, which King Constantine had illegally dissolved in 1915, was once again convened



and Venizelos named as Prime Minister. Diplomatic relations with Germany ceased at once, and Greece prepared to enter the War on the side of the Allies.

EASTERN THEATER, JUNE 29—JULY 20

## Russia's Army Defeated Through Desertion of Bolsheviks

### Whole Regiments Desert in Face of Enemy After Two Glorious Victories

SECTION 17—1917

#### Russian Army, 1,000,000

Gen. Brusiloff  
Gen. Korniloff  
Gen. Erdelli  
Gen. Gutor  
Gen. Tcheremisoff  
Prince Gargarin

#### German-Austro-Hungarian Army, 800,000

Gen. Mackensen  
Prince Leopold  
Archduke Joseph Ferdinand  
Gen. Kirchbach  
Gen. Tersztyansky

THE First Army of the Russian Socialist "Republic," after remaining inactive and mutinous for several months during the spring of 1917, was transformed under the spell of Kerensky's eloquence and in late June was ready to launch a new offensive.

Before Kerensky's accession to power, the death penalty for treason, desertion and mutiny had been abolished and the Russian soldiers were left free to choose their own officers, depose them, obey or disobey them, kill them if necessary. All sense of discipline seemed to have left the Army, even before Kerensky became Premier.

After forcing the Government to restore the death penalty for treason and mutiny, Kerensky toured the several battlefronts, exhorting the soldiers to obey their officers and prepare for a new offensive against the Teutonic enemies. At last the revolutionary committees in each army consented to participate in a new offensive. Kerensky thereupon ordered the generals to launch a modest offensive against the Austrians in Galicia.

Gen. Brusiloff was now in supreme command of the Russian forces, and the principal leaders of army groups were: Gen. Korniloff, Gen. Erdelli, Gen. Gutor, Gen. Tcheremisoff and Prince Gargarin. The disposition of the Austro-Hungarian and German forces remained unchanged, with Prince Leopold in command of the Baltic Armies, Archduke Joseph Ferdinand defending the Hungarian frontier and Gen. Mackensen, with

his group of armies, covering the extended Roumanian frontier.

#### Russians Capture Halicz and Kalusz

ON June 29th, with Lemberg as his main objective, Gen. Brusiloff's Seventh Army began the bombardment of a 20-mile sector of the Austrian line opposite Brzezany. The Russian Infantry attacked the line on July 1st, seizing three Austrian positions before nightfall with 18,000 prisoners, and forcing the passage of the Zlota Lipa the following day.

Gen. Korniloff's Eighth Russian Army breached the Austrian line along the Bistritza River July 7th, pursuing von Tersztyansky's Hungarian forces eight miles and taking 7,000 prisoners.

The armies of Brusiloff and Korniloff, in a converging movement, surrounded and captured the important railroad center at Halicz on July 9th. Two days later, Gen. Korniloff's army drove the Austrians out of Kalucz. The town was retaken by the Austrians, but was finally seized and held by the Russians. During the entire engagement, house-to-house fighting was the rule, the bayonet being preferably employed by both armies. In two weeks of fighting the Russians not only captured two important strongholds; they forced the Austrians to retreat into Southeastern Galicia, capturing 36,643 prisoners, besides 125 heavy guns.

The Russian advance was finally stopped by the floods. On July 16th, Gen. Korniloff was forced to evacuate Kalusz and retire to the right bank of the Lomnica River.

### Bolshevist Desertion Entails Disaster

AT THE moment when victory seemed within the grasp of the Russian Republic, treachery broke out in the Russian Army. The forces of Gen. Erdelli, occupying the sector between Brody and Zborrow, were engaged with the Austrians north of the Tarnopol-Lemberg Railway. During a counter-attack by the Austrians, south of Brody, on July 19th, the Bolshevist soldiers mutined, in obedience to orders from Soviet committees, flatly refusing to support the attacked divisions.

Without warning the 607th Russian Regiment basely abandoned its position in the battle line. The disaffection quickly spread and in a short time most of the soldiers along the sector had deserted. Through the gap created by their withdrawal, the Austro-Hungarian Army began to pour. Panic seized the rest of the line. All efforts of the commanders to recall the mutinous soldiers to a sense of their duty were wasted. The loyal remnant of Erdelli's army was forced to break and run, losing all the ground that had been gained in a brilliant campaign of two weeks.

### Russians Expelled from Galicia

THE flight of Erdelli's army compelled the rapid retirement of the forces under

Brusiloff and Korniloff. Tarnopol was evacuated July 20th and within a week all the terrain seized by the Russians during 1916 was relinquished.

The Austro-Hungarians struck furiously at the flank of the retreating armies, inflicting heavy losses and taking many prisoners.

In the North, however, the Russian line held firm and several German positions were penetrated to a depth of two miles.

Premier Kerensky had hastened to the Galician front at the first intimation of Bolshevist treachery, but even his appeals could not rouse the soldiers to a sense of duty. The Russian Army was steadily driven back and out of Galicia.

### Woman's "Battalion of Death"

WHILE the treacherous Socialists were deserting the colors by whole battalions and even by regiments, a company of loyal women was formed to fight Russia's battles, taking the name, "The Battalion of Death." It numbered 300 women, mostly between the ages of 18 and 25 years. These warrior women wore their hair short or else shaved clean like a monk's poll. Under the instruction of a sergeant of the Volynsky Regiment, they had quickly acquired an exaggerated goose-step. They distinguished themselves in the field, setting an example of loyalty and courage to the mutinous deserters.

### UNITED STATES—JULY 14

## \$640,000,000 Voted for Manufacture of American Aeroplanes

100,000 American "Birdmen" Instructed in Aviation School Camps

The Liberty Motor Invented—American Aviators in France

### SECTION 18—1917

THE nation voiced its enthusiastic approval when, on July 14th, the Congress voted an appropriation of \$640,000,000 for the manufacture of 22,000 aeroplanes and the training and equipment of 100,000 aviators. There was a natural expectation that America would soon achieve the supremacy in the air, and it was predicted that we should send 25,000 aeroplanes to Europe within six months.

A Bureau of Aircraft Production was created, charged with the design, purchase and inspection of all materials special to the air service.

In the production of aeroplanes, the chief limiting factor was the possibility of engine production; the second in the supply of accessories.

The special raw materials required for aeroplane manufacture involved vast individual operations. It fell to the United States to supply the spruce for the entire program of the Allies and the United States. In October, 1917, these requirements were 5,000,000 square feet each month, with only 2,000,000 square feet actually produced. These operations required the constant services of a force of 30,000 lumbermen in the



North Woods. Cotton fabrics for aeroplane use were also developed in this country.

### **The Liberty Motor**

AEROPLANE engine requirements fell into three classes—types of engines suitable for elementary training, advanced training and combat planes. For elementary training there were available the Curtis OX5 and the Hall-Scott A7A. For advanced training there was the Gnome, the Le Rhone and Hispano Suiza. For combat engines, the only one deemed available for our manufacturing purposes was the Liberty motor, designed by E. J. Hall and J. G. Vincent, in late May, 1917.

The first contract for Liberty motors was placed in August, 1917. Three hundred of the Liberty 12-cylinder engines had been produced when the Air Board was advised by the military authorities in France that higher horse power would be required. By various motor readjustments, the engineers stepped up the horse power to 375, but even then certain of the parts could not stand the strain, and it was decided to stop the production and strengthen these parts.

In due time, this was accomplished, but after 500 of the remodeled Liberty engines had been completed, the Air Board was again notified that, for the summer of 1918, engines of 400 horse power would be needed. This decision resulted in another delay in production.

However, in despite of all difficulties, on May 29, 1918, 1,100 Liberty 12-cylinder engines had been delivered into the service.

The assembling and framing of wings proceeded uniformly so that equipment would be ready for service simultaneously with the engines.

### **America's 100,000 Birdmen**

MEANWHILE, an army of aviators was in training at Aviation Camps in this country, numbering at the close of 1917, 82,120 men and 3,900 officers. In addition, hundreds of American aviators were already in France undergoing intensive training behind the battle fronts.

Several of these American birdmen in France were organized by William Thaw of Yale into a special squadron which became famous under the name of the Lafayette Esquadron. They were supplied chiefly with French machines.

### **\$1,138,000,000 Asked for Aeroplanes**

WITH the arrival in France, late in 1917, of a group of American aviators supplied with American built airships, the Administration proposed that the United States should build aeroplanes in such numbers as to give the Allies absolute supremacy of the air. Accordingly, Congress was asked to appropriate \$1,138,000,000 to be expended on aviation during 1918 and 1919. Of this vast sum, \$553,219,120 was to be expended on extra engines and spare parts, \$235,866,000 for aeroplanes and hydro-aeroplanes, \$77,475,000 for machine guns, \$8,050,000 for schools for military aeronautics, and the remainder for instructors, inspectors, mechanics, engineers, accountants, etc.

EASTERN THEATER, JUNE - DEC.

## **Bolsheviki At Last Seize Control of the Russian Government**

**Kerensky Deposed as Dictator—Lenine and Trotzky Assume Supreme Power**

**They Open Peace Parleys with German Officials—First Peace**

**Terms of Germany and Russia Compared**

SECTION 19 - 1917

**Social Revolutionary Army**

Gen. Korniloff, Commander-in-Chief

**Bolshevik Army**

Leon Trotzky, Commander-in-Chief

**T**HOUGH the June elections throughout Russia had returned the moderate Socialists to power by overwhelming majorities, still the more radical Bolsheviks

continued to struggle for the mastery. Under the skilful urging of pro-German agents, more especially Lenine, anarchy began to raise its hydra-head. The Bolsheviks seemed

bent upon inaugurating a reign of terror. Everywhere the country was the scene of riotous disturbances.

### **All-Russians Congress Meets**

IN June the All-Russian Congress of Workmen's and Soldiers' Delegates convened at Petrograd. It was completely controlled by the Moderates. Though Lenine and his Bolshevik minority were also present, they received but scant consideration.

The radical Minister of Labor, Skobeleff, excited the cupidity of the artisans by urging them to seize all the industries of Russia and manage them for their own profit.

The Minister of Agriculture, Chernoff, loudly advised the peasants to confiscate the great estates of Russia, but secretly he dispatched troops to his own estates to guard them against seizure.

Responsive to this counsel, peasants everywhere lost no time in pillaging manor-houses, destroying farms, maiming cattle and butchering their tyrannical landlords. The zemstvos were no more, having been superseded by "republics" or "soviets."

Meanwhile, the dictator, Kerensky, had taken possession of the Winter Palace, where he drank royal champagne out of golden goblets and was served his elaborate dinners on the Czar's gold plate. For his personal use this friend of the serfs commandeered the Czar's carriages and motor cars, and in general he affected the airs of the old aristocrats.

### **Army and Navy are Bolshevised**

IN July, the Russian armies in Galicia began to disintegrate as a result of Bolshevik propaganda. Mutiny was almost universal. Whole regiments deserted in the midst of battle, laying down their arms and running away.

Hoping to shame the mutinous soldiers into fighting, loyal officers formed themselves into infantry battalions and advanced to certain death, but the Bolshevik soldiers only laughed at the sacrificial efforts of their former commanders and made no move to assist or save them.

### **Women's "Battalion of Death"**

PATRIOTIC women and girls then endeavored to instill in the Bolshevik soldiers a

sense of shame, by forming a "Battalion of Death," and taking the place of the deserters on the firing line. All these emulative efforts proved unavailing; the soldiers continued to swarm out of their trenches and head for home, allured by the Bolshevik slogan, "Land and Freedom."

### **Mutiny in Russian Fleet**

THE mutiny spread among the sailors of the Fleets. At Helsingfors and Kronstadt, the marines for a time contented themselves with disobeying orders, but later, being deceived into believing that their officers were plotting to restore the monarchy, they shot some of their officers down in cold blood and thrust others alive under the ice. Those among the naval officers who accepted the tenets of Bolshevism were spared and treated on an equality as "comrades." A few of the commanders escaped, among the fortunate ones being Admiral Kolchak, destined later to become the ruler of Siberia and lead an army against the Bolsheviks.

Premier Kerensky, who was now practically the Dictator of Russia, acted with vigor. Orders were issued to arrest all revolutionary agitators and shoot all deserters from the Army.

### **Soldiers Denounced by Workmen**

THE All-Russia Council of Workmen's and Peasants' organizations united in an address to the Army on July 23d, denouncing its mutinous spirit. The Provisional Government, too, issued a proclamation, declaring the disorders only the first step in an effort to inaugurate a counter-revolution.

The Soviet passed a resolution censuring Lenine and demanding his arrest as a traitor in the pay of Germany. With the appointment of Gen. Korniloff as Commander-in-Chief of the Russian Army, on August 2d, conditions began to improve.

### **National Council Meets at Moscow**

A NATIONAL CONFERENCE, called by Premier Kerensky at Moscow, on August 26th, was attended by 2,500 delegates representing every social body in Russia, including the Duma, the Soviets, the Zemstvos, the Red Cross, the labor unions, the co-operative societies, the professional leagues and the Army itself.



The keynote of the conference was expressed in the speech of Gen. Korniloff, Commander-in-Chief of the Army, who demanded the enforcement of the death penalty for mutiny and desertion in the Army, saying: "We are implacably fighting anarchy in the Army. We have already lost the whole of Galicia, the whole of Bukowina and all the fruits of our recent victories. Traitors are handing the country over to the foe. If Russia wishes to be saved, the Army must be regenerated at any cost."

General Kaledin, Hetman of the Don Cossacks, presented a resolution passed by the Cossacks, demanding the prosecution of the War to a successful end. He warned the Provisional Government to remove themselves from the places which they had "neither the ability nor the courage to fill," and to "let better men than yourselves step in, or take the consequences of your folly."

General Alexeieff also spoke in rebuke of the miscreants who had conspired to wreck the Army. He urged the restoration of discipline by the resumption of the death penalty for desertion.

Kerensky, his head completely turned by his elevation to power, and jealous of his prerogatives, saw in Gen. Korniloff a possible rival as Dictator. In a long and violent speech, he warned Korniloff that if he attempted to "wrest the scepter from our grasp," he would be crushed. All attempts against "our power" would be ruthlessly suppressed by "blood and iron." Only he, Kerensky, could save Russia.

General Korniloff retorted that, with the foe thundering at the gates, it was an imperative duty to restore discipline in the Army be saved. Kerensky's will prevailed and the conference adjourned without agreeing upon the restoration of the death penalty.

### **Bolshevists In the Saddle**

THE popular resentment against the Provisional Government was intensified early in September when it became known that the Germans had seized the Baltic port of Riga. The Government was charged with responsibility for the collapse of the Russian Army. The press and the leading citizens and put all traitors to death if Russia was to

generally urged Gen. Korniloff to become Dictator and save Russia from the enemy.

It being reported that a plot was under way to re-establish the monarchy in power, Grand Duke Michael, Grand Duke Paul and their families were arrested on a charge of conspiracy. At the same time, Gen. Gurko was banished from Russia.

The Bolsheviki, nevertheless, were gaining many recruits under the subtle contrivance of the German agents. In a municipal election, held in Petrograd, the Bolsheviks polled 174,000 votes as against 182,000 by the moderate Socialists and 101,000 by the Constitutional Democrats.

### **Gen. Korniloff Deposed by Kerensky**

AT the head of an Army Corps, Gen. Korniloff, on September 10th, entered Pskov, announcing himself dictator and demanding that the Provisional Government surrender to him all its powers. A committee of Bolsheviks went to Pskov and persuaded Korniloff's troops to desert him. Kerensky at once denounced Korniloff as a traitor, deposing him from his rank as Commander-in-Chief and appointing Gen. Kembovsky in his stead. Korniloff was imprisoned, but while awaiting trial he escaped.

A strong reaction now set in, favorable to the Bolshevik and other extreme forms of radicalism. On September 13th, at a meeting of the Petrograd council, the Bolsheviki, by a vote of 279 against 150, carried a resolution demanding that all representatives of the propertied classes be thereafter excluded from participation in the Government, and inviting all the nations then at war to send delegates to a general peace conference.

Kerensky, in order to forestall another Revolution, declared Russia a Republic on September 15th.

### **The "Democratic Congress"**

A SO-CALLED "Democratic Congress" convened at Petrograd on September 28th, attended by 1,200 delegates representing all the social bodies in Russia. A resolution was adopted providing for a "Temporary Council of the Russian Republic," to consist of 231 members, of whom 110 should represent the zemstvos and towns, and 121 the non-democratic elements.



The Congress undertook to assert its authority over the Cabinet, but Kerensky, dissenting, a compromise was effected by which the Congress and the Cabinet agreed to work together in an advisory capacity, each being invested with certain initiatory powers.

The Congress announced three principal aims: First, to strengthen the Army and Navy; secondly, to restore order by quelling all manifestations of anarchy; and thirdly, to call the Constituent Assembly in December. This Assembly was to consist of 732 delegates elected by popular vote.

### **Trotsky is Given Power**

THE Bolsheviks, meanwhile, had gained the ascendancy in the Soldiers' and Workmen's Council. At an election held to fill the vacancies caused by the resignation of most of its officers and executive committee, Leon Trotsky, whose real name is Leber Braunstein, was elected to the chairmanship.

Trotsky was the right-hand man of Lenine and Bolshevik to the core. He had spent some months on the East Side of New York, as editor of a Jewish weekly, just prior to the other Jewish Socialists of extreme views, he had hastened to Russia upon invitation of had hastened to Russia upon invitation of Lenine, whose pockets were then filled with German gold. It was widely believed in Russia that Trotsky was a German agent.

Trotsky and several of the radical Socialists had also been elected members of the "Preliminary Assembly." At the first session of that body he made a passionate speech, denouncing the Assembly as being subservient to the "bourgeoisie," and declaring that the radicals would have no further affiliation with it.

### **Bolshevist Revolution Begins**

THE Bolsheviks were now prepared to launch their counter-revolution. No sooner had Trotsky been made chairman of the Petrograd Soviet, than a "Military Revolutionary Committee" was formed and on November 4th a delegation appeared at the Staff Offices of the Government, demanding the right of entry, control and veto. This demand being refused, the delegates threatened to take by force that which was not voluntarily conceded.

Kerensky, meanwhile, had appealed to the Allied Governments to assist in restoring civil law in Russia, urging that since Russia was worn out by the strain of war, it was the duty of the Allies whom Russia had aided to shoulder the burden.

The Bolshevik threat was quickly made good. On November 7th, an armed body of sailors, under orders from Trotsky's Revolutionary Committee, took possession of the Petrograd and Central Telegraph offices, the State Bank and the Marie Palace, where the Preliminary Assembly was in session. At the same time, Trotsky assured the Duma that it was not the intention of the Soviet to seize full power, but only to assume control over Petrograd.

### **Kerensky's Last Effort to Retain Power**

TROTSKY'S next act was to declare the Preliminary Assembly dissolved. On the next evening, the Revolutionary Committee issued a proclamation, declaring that the government of Kerensky had been deposed because it had risen against the Revolution and the people. The Bolshevik soldiers were ordered to watch closely the conduct of their officers and to arrest all who did not join the Revolution immediately and openly.

They also announced the program of the Revolution, as follows: First, the offer of an immediate "democratic peace." Second, the immediate handing over of large proprietorial lands to the peasants. Third, the transmission of all authority to the Council of Workmen's and Soldiers' Delegates. Fourth, the convocation of an honest Constituent Assembly. In addition it was decreed that the National Revolutionary Army must not permit certain military units to leave the front and return to Petrograd. They were to oppose any such action on the part of such detachments by force exercised without mercy.

### **Kerensky In Flight**

KERENSKY found safety in flight. A few days later he organized a force of 4,000 Cossacks, and with Gen. Krasnov in command, advanced toward Petrograd. A Bolshevik Army, out of Petrograd, met the Kerensky forces at Gatchina on Saturday, November



10th, and after a listless engagement, Kerensky's Cossacks went over to the Bolsheviks, Gen. Krasnov himself urging Kerensky to surrender to the Revolutionary Committee. Kerensky at first pretended compliance, but a half hour later, when a squad appeared to escort him to the committee's headquarters, it was found he had disappeared.

### **Women's Battalion Defends Winter Palace**

To return to the situation in Petrograd. After the Reds had seized the Telegraph and Telephone Offices, and the State Bank, they marched to the Winter Palace, where they encountered stiff resistance.

The Palace was defended chiefly by the Women's Battalion, the famous "Battalion of Death." They fought with a courage bordering upon desperation, assisted by the Military Cadets. It was not until after the Bolsheviks had brought up armored cars and the cruiser Aurora, and begun to shell the Palace, that its brave defenders surrendered.

Petrograd being now in possession of the Bolsheviks, a meeting of the Revolutionary Council was held. "Nikolai Lenine" (or Vladimir Illitch Ylyanov, to give him his true name), was welcomed vociferously as an old comrade. Lenine, in a prophetic vein, declared that this Russian Revolution was only a preliminary step toward similar revolutions everywhere.

Proclamations were issued ceaselessly. One of these denounced Kerensky as a fugitive and ordered his arrest. All complicity with Kerensky was to be dealt with as high treason.

### **Bolshevik Cabinet Named**

THE Ministers of the Kerensky Cabinet were arrested and thrown into the dungeons of the grim prison of St. Peter and St. Paul, together with the heroic women defenders of the Winter Palace. They were held in prison on a charge of "complicity in the Korniloff revolution."

A Bolshevik Cabinet was then chosen. "Nikolai Lenine," or Ylyanov, was chosen for Premier; "Trotzky," or Braunstein, was named Minister of War and Marine; and Shilapnikov, a Jewish laborer, became Minister of Labor.

### **Secession of Russians from Bolshevik Rule**

FOLLOWING the collapse of the Kerensky Government, all hopes of Russian unity were quickly dispelled. Instead of a great Republic being established upon the ruins of the old monarchy, the Empire seemed suddenly to break into fragments. The Ukraine declared its independence, and Finland also professed its right to independent action. Siberia, Bessarabia, Lithuania, the Caucasus and other districts also declared their complete independence.

General Kaledin, declaring against the Bolsheviks, organized an army and proposed to save Russia, probably in the role of military dictator.

### **Bolsheviks "Peace Move"**

"LENINE" was now engrossed in his plot to betray Russia into the hands of Germany under the pretence of arranging for a "democratic peace." On November 20, 1917, the Bolshevik leaders announced that a "Council of the People's Commissaries" had been vested with power, and obligated to offer all the belligerent nations an immediate armistice on all fronts, with the purpose of opening parleys for the conclusion of a "democratic peace."

On the same day instructions were sent to Gen. Dukhonin, the newest Commander-in-Chief of the Armies at the front, to propose a cessation of hostilities to the commanders of the enemy armies during the peace parley and to keep the Council constantly informed by direct wire of all such transactions. To this Gen. Dukhonin made no reply. Three days later, "Lenine" and Ensign Krylenko, the "Commissary of War," got into direct telephone communication with Gen. Dukhonin, asking him whether he intended to obey the instructions. Gen. Dukhonin, before replying, asked point blank whether the Bolshevik Council had received an answer from the Powers, also whether it was intended to open negotiations for a general truce, or only with the Germans and Turks.

### **Gen. Dukhonin Murdered by Bolsheviks**

"THESE are questions not to be decided by you," retorted Lenine, adding, "all that remains for you is to obey instructions."



General Dukhonin protested that the peace necessary for Russia could only be concluded by the Central Government, supported by the Army and Navy. Lenine at once deposed Gen. Dukhonin from his command and appointed the Jewish student, Krylenko, as Commander-in-Chief. Dukhonin was subsequently thrown from a train and killed by Bolshevik assassins.

### Reopening the Peace Parleys

A PROCLAMATION was issued to the Army and Navy, authorizing them to elect delegates to open negotiations with the enemy, while reserving to the Bolshevik Council the power to sign an agreement for an armistice. The soldiers were warned not to permit their generals to interfere with their peace arrangements in any way.

"Trotzky" notified the Ambassadors of the Allied nations of the efforts being made to open negotiations with the Germanic Allies and also notified the representatives of neutral powers of his proposal for an armistice, adding: "The consummation of an immediate peace is demanded in all countries, both belligerent and neutral. The Russian Government counts on the firm support of workmen in all countries in this struggle for peace."

Lenine asserted that Russia had not contemplated making a separate peace with Germany, and promised that, before agreeing to an armistice, the Russian Government should communicate with the Allies and make certain proposals to the Governments of France and England.

### Bolsheviki Win the General Election

AT last the general election was held in Russia for the Constituent Assembly. Many conflicting reports have been published of the actual vote cast, but these figures are alleged to be near the truth: Bolsheviks, 272,000 votes; Constitutional Democrats, 211,000 votes; Social Revolutionists, 116,000 votes. The Bolsheviks gained six seats, the Constitutional Democrats four and Social Revolutionists two.

### Peace Parleys with Germany Begin

THE Bolshevik delegates went through the farce of opening "peace parleys" with

the Germans on November 28, 1917, crossing over into the German lines under a flag of truce. The Germans consented to carry on negotiations for "peace," the day and hour of the meeting to be fixed by the Russians. The Russian Parliamentarians fixed upon the Brest-Litovsk headquarters of the German Commander as the place, and midnight of December 2, 1917, as the time for beginning negotiations. It was agreed that during the period of negotiations all warfare and enemy fraternization should cease.

### Secret Treaties Exposed

WHILE these negotiations were pending, late in November, Trotzky saw fit to publish certain state documents, discovered in the Russian archives, consisting largely of secret treaties entered into between the Czar and the other Allied nations in the early years of the War.

In one treaty, Russia proposed to acquire Constantinople, the Dardanelles and certain territories in Asia Minor. England and France agreed on condition that Russia should guarantee the freedom of the port of Constantinople, the independence of certain Mussulman territories in Arabia, and English joint control with Russia over all Persia.

Another series of documents related to the discussions between the Russians and their Allies in fixing the Western frontiers of Germany, and the insistence of Russia that the Polish question should be excluded from international discussion.

Another document revealed the concessions offered to Greece if she would join the Allies. She was to receive all of Albania, south of Avlona, and other territory in Asia Minor at the expense of Turkey. The Bulgarians, too, by another agreement, were to receive Kavala as the price of their support of the Allies.

The text of a treaty between Great Britain, France, Italy and Russia was published, whereby Italy was promised the restoration of her "lost provinces" in Austria as a reward for her active assistance of the Allies; Italy also agreeing to disregard all attempts on the part of Pope Benedict XV to bring about peace discussions. By the terms of other agreements, Italy was to acquire the



Trentino, Trieste, Istria and Dalmatia. On the other hand, Italy agreed not to oppose the award to Montenegro, Serbia and Greece of parts of Albania. The agreement also recognized the principle of Italian control of the balance of naval power in the Mediterranean. Certain rights in Lybia were also granted to Italy. Should England and France agree to increase their African colonial possessions, Italy would have the right to increase hers at the cost of Turkey.

All these treaties were at once repudiated by the new Bolsheviki Government of Russia.

### **Suspension of Hostilities**

ON December 2d, the Russian peace delegates again crossed the lines to Brest-Litovsk, where the first session of the conference was opened. Three days later, the German delegate, Gen. Hoffman, consented to a suspension of hostilities for ten days, to enable the Russians to conclude negotiations for an armistice. On December 6th, Trotzky notified the Allied Embassies in Petrograd that the armistice would only be signed on condition that the Central Powers should agree not to transfer troops from the Eastern to the Western front, and that the Germans evacuate the islands around Moon Island. He urged the Allies to define their attitude toward the peace negotiations, or else declare the aims which they still hoped to attain by a continuance of the War. To this the Allied Powers made no reply.

### **Kaledin Starts a Counter-Revolution**

THE next day an attempt at counter-revolution was started by Generals Kaledin and Korniloff in the Don region, and the Bolsheviki took the necessary steps to quell the uprising.

General Dutov arrested the revolutionary committee in Orenburg and attempted to cut off the supply of grain flowing from Siberia to the front.

### **Roumanians Agree to an Armistice**

THE Roumanians, after being crushed by Austria and Bulgaria, had denounced the peace negotiations. Nevertheless, on December 7th, Roumania agreed to the proposed armistice. The Ukrainian Parliament also agreed to a suspension of hostilities by a vote of 29 to 8.

Some 600 delegates had been elected to the Constituent Assembly which was to convene in Petrograd on December 11th, but only 50 attended. Not being able to muster a quorum, the Assembly was incapable of exerting any authority.

### **Armistice Agreed Upon**

FINALLY, on December 16th, the terms of an armistice were definitely arranged. The Germans were reluctant to grant two of the points insisted upon by the Russians—namely, that all movements of the troops from the Eastern to the Western front should be suspended during negotiations and that the Russians should have the right to fraternize at will with the German and Austrian soldiers. The armistice was to begin on December 17, 1917, and continue until January 14, 1918.

### **Titles Abolished, Property Seized**

LIKE their predecessors in the great French Revolution, the Bolsheviki sought by legislative degrees to level all ranks, abolish poverty, extinguish all property rights and paralyze all religion.

As early as November 26, 1917, a decree was promulgated, abolishing all class titles, distinctions and privileges, and confiscating the corporate properties of nobles, merchants and capitalists generally. Everybody was a "citizen" merely and placed on a common footing before the law—that is, all excepting "Lenine," "Trotzky" and the rest of the paid agents of Imperial Germany.

### **Officers to be Elected by Soldiers**

ON December 16th, it was decreed that henceforth all officers in the Army were to be elected by the soldiers, those who failed of re-election being reduced automatically to the ranks without the privilege of resignation.

Within a few days some surprising changes occurred in the Army. Colonels became subordinate to their former orderlies; majors and captains were compelled to clean out the stables at the orders of some filthy Bolshevik private suddenly elevated in rank. Many officers were assassinated by their own men in reprisal for the alleged cruelties of other days.



### Uprising in Odessa

MEANWHILE, there were riotings and minor uprisings in Russia, especially in Odessa, the capital of the new Republic of Ukrainia. Here the Bolsheviki and the loyal troops had a hand-to-hand battle on December 16th, which ended in the Bolsheviki gaining possession of the water front on the Black Sea. Many strikes took place, the duped workingmen being drunk with the wine of their mock "freedom" and insisting upon impossible wages, often six and eight times the amount they received in normal times.

### Peace Congress in Session at Last

DESPITE the formal protests of the Allied Ambassadors at Petrograd, the Bolsheviki resumed their negotiations with Germany for peace. The first sitting took place at Brest-Litovsk on December 23, 1917, Germany's chief representative being Dr. Richard von Kühlmann, the Foreign Minister, and Austria's delegation being headed by Count Czernin. Neither "Lenine" nor "Trotzky" attended the session, but Russia was represented by twelve citizens, chiefly of the proletariat. After Prince Leopold of Bavaria had welcomed the delegates, Dr. von Kühlmann was chosen President.

### Soviet Russia's Peace Terms

THE Russians then presented their terms for peace, which were comprised under 14 headings. They demanded the evacuation of all Russian territory now occupied by Germany, with autonomy for Poland and the Lithuanian and Lettish provinces; autonomy for Turkish Armenia; settlement of the Alsace-Lorraine problem by a free plebiscite; the restoration of Belgium, and indemnity through an international fund for damages; restoration for Serbia, with a similar indemnity, Serbia gaining access to the Adriatic; complete autonomy for Bosnia and Herzegovina; other contested Balkan territory to be temporarily autonomous, pending plebiscites; restoration of Roumanian territory with autonomy for the Dobrudja, the Berlin convention concerning equality for Jews to be put into full force; autonomy for the Italian population of Trent and Trieste pending a plebiscite; restoration of the German

colonies; restoration of Persia and Greece; neutralization of all maritime straits leading to inland seas, including the Suez and Panama Canals; all belligerents to renounce indemnities; contributions exacted during the War to be refunded; all belligerents to renounce commercial boycotts after the War or the institution of special customs agreements; peace conditions to be settled at a Congress composed of delegates chosen by a national representative body, the condition being stipulated by the respective Parliaments that the diplomats should sign no secret treaty; all secret treaties to be considered null and void; gradual disarmament on land and sea and the establishment of militia to replace the standing armies.

### Germany's Counter Proposals

GERMANY'S reply to the Russian peace proposals was received on Christmas Day, 1917. While accepting the proposal of peace based on the principle of no annexations and no indemnities, Germany refused to concede the right of "self-determination" to any nationalities without independence which may have come under her subjection, holding that such questions must be decided by each government and its people according to the constitution of each government.

Regarding the renunciation of claims for indemnities for war costs and war damages, Germany proposed that each belligerent be required to bear only such expense as had been incurred by its subjects made prisoners, and to indemnify for damage caused in its territory to property of civilian subjects of an enemy country by violations of international law. Only in event that all belligerents agreed, would there be a discussion of the creation of a special fund for this purpose.

Citizen Jaffe, the chairman of the Russian delegation, objected to the vague definition of self-determination of small nationalities made in the German reply, holding that the War could not end without the reinstatement of small and oppressed nationalities in their violated rights, and that Russia would insist on guaranties protecting the rights of such nationalities in a general peace treaty. The lapse of time, he declared, in no case legalizes the violation of one people by another.



Germany demanded the restoration of her colonies in Africa, Asia and the South Pacific, and to this the Russians consented.

It was then agreed to defer the next ses-

sion of the Peace Conference until January 8, 1918, to enable the Allied nations to study the full texts of the two proposals. So the matter rested at the close of the year.

WESTERN THEATER, JULY 20—NOV. 1

## French Army, Under Petain, Gain Three Notable Victories

Verdun Sector Cleared of the Enemy—Germans Evacuate the Chemin-des-Dames

SECTION 20—1917

### French Forces

Gen. Petain, Commander-in-Chief  
Gen. Foch, Chief of Staff  
Gen. d'Esperey  
Gen. Gillaumat  
Gen. Corvisart  
Gen. Maistre

### German Forces

Field Marshal von Hindenberg  
Gen. von Arnim  
Gen. Ludendorff, Chief of Staff  
Crown Prince Frederick

**W**ITH the accession of Gen. Petain to the command of the French forces, Germany was made to sustain three successive defeats on as many French fronts before the year had come to a close.

Although Gen. Nivelle's recent attempt to cross the Craonne Plateau and turn the flank of the Hindenberg line had ended in costly failure, the French nevertheless had taken possession of the greater part of the Chemin-des-Dames Road on the crest of Craonne and of the two little plateaux at its eastern end, known to them as the California and Casemates Plateaux, and to the Germans as the "Winterburg." The Germans retained only a short stretch of the Chemin-des-Dames at the western end of the Plateau.

Due to the heavy losses of the French Armies in Nivelle's ill-advised offensive, and the lowering morale of the French troops, Gen. Petain wisely decided to abandon the Craonne operation, applying himself instead to restoring the lost spirit of his demoralized armies.

While Gen. Petain was thus employed, the Germans busied themselves in preparations for a counter-attack, with the Chemin-des-Dames and the lesser plateaux as their first objectives. Possession of these positions they believed would give them an ideal starting point for their final grand offensive to be launched in the spring. But most of all, they desired to break the spirit of the French soldiers at any cost.

Meantime, the German bombardment of Rheims continued, 1200 shells being dropped daily into the Cathedral city. On June 28th and 29th, the Germans also pierced the French line in the Verdun sector, but were expelled from every position except that of Dead Man's Hill, to which they clung tenaciously.

### Germans Fail to Take the Chemin-des-Dames

THE entire French front, from Verdun to St. Quentin, was violently bombarded during the night of July 19th in preparation for the German attack on the Craonne and "Winterburg" Plateaux. Since Verdun, there had been no artillery attack comparable to this in intensity.

Early on the morning of the 20th, the German troops moved out from the Ailette Valley in the direction of the eastern slopes of Craonne, expecting easily to reach the Chemin-des-Dames objective on its crest. At a fearful cost—so appalling in fact that the Germans have never cared to reveal the actual figures—they made a slight advance along a front of half a mile on the lower slopes of Craonne. But never a German soldier could attain the French lines on the summit. Each successive advance was smothered by the French artillery. Hurricanes of projectiles were fired directly in the path of the Huns, blowing them into oblivion.

From Hurtebise to Casemate Plateau the attacking forces soon melted to a thin line, the few survivors hastily retreating to their

own line which also had come under an inferno of French shell-fire. From Casemate to California Plateau, another German attacking force was similarly repulsed with unbelievable losses.

After a final attack on July 25th, the Germans desisted and a moderate artillery fire only was maintained, in which the infantry had no participation. The Germans had met with a crushing defeat. Their losses in this one battle were at least 100,000. The withdrawal of the Germans enabled the French, late in July, to despatch one of their armies to the Flanders front to assist the British in the Third Battle of Ypres.

### **Germans Decisively Beaten at Verdun**

GEN. PETAIN in August scored a second notable victory over the Germans at Verdun, "that city of destiny, whose name had been branded on the French soul by a six-months' tragedy of fear and hope." Preceded by a heavy artillery fire, lasting three days, the French on August 20th attacked the German positions simultaneously on both sides of the Meuse River, on a front of eleven miles. All of their objectives were carried.

### **Germans Smoked Out of Tunnels**

THE Germans were strongly intrenched on Dead Man's Hill. To render this height impregnable, they had constructed three tunnels. One, named the "Crown Prince," traversed the hill; another, named "Bismarck," connected the two summits; a third, "Corbeaux," ran under Goose Hill. The French 400-millimeter shells easily pierced the roofs of these tunnels.

In the Crown Prince tunnel, after the battle, were found the bodies of more than a hundred dead Germans, all victims of a single shell. When the French swarmed over it, they took 700 prisoners from the same gallery.

In Corbeaux Tunnel the French captured an entire German Regimental Staff with their maps, papers and material.

Gen. Pershing, as the guest of Gen. Corvisart, was an interested observer of this battle.

### **Guynemer, French "Ace," Falls**

ON the same day the entire German first line in this sector was overrun, and 7000

prisoners were taken. Assisting the infantry, the French aviators daringly showered the German positions with machine-gun bullets, in addition bringing down 11 enemy planes. It was during this engagement that Captain George Guynemer, the most famous aviator in the French Army, and who had brought down 52 German planes during his brilliant military career, fell to his death.

### **Hill 304 is Captured at Last**

HILL 304, the last remaining bulwark of the German position, capitulated two days later to Gen. Gillaumat and the Germans were finally expelled from the lost high ground which afforded them a glimpse of the twin-towers of the Cathedral rising above the Verdun fortress. In all the French had taken 10,000 prisoners. Thus was closed the grim chapter of Verdun, bloodiest of all battlefields, which had claimed 1,000,000 victims in killed, wounded or captured since the War began.

By August 25th, the French had pushed forward to Beaumont Woods. During the next ten days, the Germans hit back savagely but without avail. The Verdun battle continued throughout September until the French had recovered all the ground that they regarded as important or useful. The last expiring attack by Crown Prince Frederick's army was delivered on September 24th, and was repulsed with heavy losses to the Germans.

### **American Troops Nearby**

NEAR the battlefield of Verdun, and merging into the fighting lines, there was encamped a body of American troops. Here, for the first time, the Stars and Stripes were seen flying over a field camp of American soldiers. Some of these troops already had entered a zone covered by German guns and two of their number had been wounded.

From Verdun, in late October, Gen. Petain moved westward toward the Craonne Plateau, bent upon expelling the Germans from their last stronghold on the western half of the Chemin-des-Dames. For three years now the Germans had occupied a number of mammoth underground caverns, the hollow memorials of centuries of stone quarrying on the "hog's back" of the Craonne.



Of these subterranean chambers, the greater was the Montparnasse, a two-story cavern with an area of several acres, scooped out of the northern slope of the plateau overlooking the Soissons-Laon Road.

Northwest of Montparnasse, at the western end of the ridge, rose the Malmaison Plateau, topped by Fort Malmaison, which not only afforded an unrivaled observation point overlooking the Laon Plain, but as well turned the flank of the Chemin-des-Dames on the northern slopes. From the ramparts of Fort Malmaison the Germans could watch any French movements between the Ailette and the Aisne Rivers, or on the spurs running down to the Aisne.

Eight miles distant, on a strange isolated hill, perches the important city of Laon. Before it and nearer the French position, there was another huge excavation, the Boherry quarry. Up to the very moment of the French attack, German engineers were still engaged in connecting the Boherry, Montparnasse and other subterranean works, with the galleries under the fort.

Fort Malmaison had been declassified long before the War, but had been of use to the enemy as an observatory. Its glacis had been cleared, its shells reconstructed and furnished with machine gun posts and connected with a labyrinth of caves and tunnels running back to the northern end of the plateau and so to the German rear. If Gen. Petain should succeed in seizing Malmaison Plateau, he would hold the key to the Aisne and Ailette Valleys and be able to turn the German position on the northern slopes of Chemin-des-Dames.

In order to pierce the solid stone roofs of the Montparnasse and Boherry caverns, Gen. Petain had brought from Verdun his heaviest siege artillery, including several batteries of 15-inch and 16-inch guns, which fired monstrous shells with arrow piercing points that could penetrate stone as easily as a fork penetrates a Gruyere cheese. The French offensive opened on October 20th with a bombardment rarely surpassed in violence.

For three days and nights, without intermission, the French guns concentrated their fire on the Malmaison Plateau. A salvo of

shells reduced the layer of rock over the Montparnasse and Boherry caverns. In spite of its extraordinary thickness, the layer was penetrated, the French shells breaking through to the double gallery beneath, causing many casualties among the German garrison.

The apertures blown through the roofs became funnels down which poured torrents of gas and bullets from shrapnel shell. Projectiles, exploding at the mouths of caverns, brought down detached fragments of rock from sides and roof, creating an atmosphere of dust difficult to see through or breathe in.

The German garrisons, from time to time, shifted their quarters, but so great was the volume of projectiles that seldom could they find any spot unreached by the French shells. Most of their garrisons had to be resigned to their fate. They, as well as their comrades in trenches and in pill-boxes above, became isolated and were deluged with gas to an extent never before experienced.

The Ailette Valley lay under an unbroken cloud of gas. All roads and paths by which supplies and munitions could be brought forward, or down which the wounded could reach the rear, were rendered impassable by curtains of shrapnel-shell. During the entire bombardment it was hardly possible for gunners to remove gas masks in order to drink or eat. On the third day of the bombardment the surface of the Malmaison Plateau had been blown into craters or churned into a dreary aspect of monotonous mud.

In a swift attack on a seven-mile front, the French Infantry smashed the German lines, taking 12,000 prisoners and 120 guns the first day. Malmaison Fort, commanding the Laon Plain, was stormed and taken and the French carried their line to the heights commanding Pargny-Filain. British tanks and French airmen actively participated in this engagement.

Demoralized by the triphammer blows, the Germans abandoned their caves and their guns and began a retreat across the marshy Ailette Valley, the Aisne and the Oise Canals.

Fighting with grim desperation, the Germans gradually gave way until the French wedge projected two miles into the pivotal base of their line curving around the west-

ern extremity of the Chemin-des-Dames. By the close of the second day the German losses were estimated at 45,000 men—the equivalent of an army corps.

### Germans Evacuate Chemin-des-Dames

THE French now dominated the Ailette Valley and their hold on the heights rendered practically untenable the German lines along the northern edge of the Chemin-des-Dames. The French gunners had kept up an enfilading fire, day and night, on the heights of Chemin-des-Dames, preventing the transport of food or supplies to the German troops who were clinging desperately to this important position.

Unable a moment longer to remain on Chemin-des-Dames, the Crown Prince ordered its evacuation on November 1st and the half starved German troops fell back toward Laon, constantly harassed by the French.

Ten German divisions were humbled in this engagement and so many German officers turned tail in the face of the relentless French gun-fire that the entire German line almost broke in panic rout.

### Germans Foodless for Three Days

GERMAN prisoners averred that during that retreat the entire German Army had been without food for three days. The Germans at length escaped across the Ailette River, leaving the French in possession of the Chemin-des-Dames and in control of the St. Gobain region between Laon and La Fere. This great victory by Gen. Petain's troops terminated the French offensive in 1917.

Five days after the Germans evacuated Chemin-des-Dames occurred the coup d'état of Lenine and Trotzky in Russia, the flight of Kerensky and the beginning of the Bolshevik reign of terror. Coincident with this brilliant French victory occurred also the disaster to the Italian Army at Caporetta.

WESTERN THEATER, JUNE 1—NOV. 5

## Germans Expelled from Belgian Heights in Fourth Battle of Ypres

Messines Ridge Blown Up—Ypres Salient Reduced—Canadians

Brilliantly Capture Passchendaele Ridge

SECTION 21—1917

#### Allied Forces, 1,000,000

Gen. Sir Douglas Haig, Commander-in-Chief  
Gen. Sir William Robertson, Chief of Staff  
2d British Army—General Plumer  
5th British Army—Gen. Gough  
1st French Army—Gen. Antoine  
Canadian Troops—Gen. Sir Arthur Currie  
Belgian Troops

#### German Forces, 1,800,000

Gen. von Hindenberg, Commander  
Gen. von Ludendorff, Chief of Staff  
Gen. von Arnim  
Gen. von Marwitz  
Crown Prince Rupprecht

**F**INDING the new Hindenberg line too difficult a problem to solve, the Allied Armies in June returned more hopefully to the scenes of their former triumphs—the British toward Ypres, the French toward Verdun. In both these areas of operation, the battles which ensued were as bloody, almost, as any that had preceded them.

Everywhere, both on land and on sea, the military and strategic situation had undergone a sudden and startling transformation. With the overthrow of the Czar's government during the Socialist Revolution in March, the Russian armies had been eliminated from the Eastern battle front. Relieved from

further anxiety in this direction, Germany had transferred half a million troops from the Eastern to the Western theater of War, thus restoring her numerical superiority over the Allies.

Germany then was at the zenith of her military power; England's military power on the Western front had reached its maximum strength; French man-power was declining, and America had not yet assembled her mighty host on the soil of France. Germany, therefore, was in a position to spend men and blood without stint in her effort to crush the spirit both of France and England before America could stay her hand.



Germany's submarine warfare, too, had wrought such dire destruction to Allied shipping that England was facing at last the menace of starvation. From their submarine bases, on the Belgian coast, at Zeebrugge, Ostend and Bruges, the German U-boats could sally forth at will to prey upon the helpless cargo vessels of all nations. If these submarine nests were not quickly destroyed, the commerce of France and England would be brought to a standstill. The British Navy had failed to cope successfully with the peril. It was now proposed that the British Army should attempt to remove the danger.

The Germans still occupied the series of commanding heights, extending through Belgium to within a few miles of the sea, which they had seized in 1914 after their retreat from the Marne.

If their right flank at Lille were turned and rolled back, they would be compelled to evacuate their bases on the Belgian coast and retreat behind the Scheldt.

But first it was necessary to dislodge the Germans from the heights which enclosed Ypres on three sides. The most important of these were the Messines, Wytschaete, Scherpenburg, Pilkem and Kemmel Ridges to the south and east of Ypres, and the Passchendaele Heights to the north.

Possession of these heights gave the Germans a perfect view of every movement of the Allied Armies in the adjacent valleys. The town of Ypres itself had been reduced to ashes by the ceaseless pounding of the German guns posted on the heights above, but the salient in which it lay had been held by the Allies to prevent the Germans breaking through to the sea.

#### **British Tunnel Under Messines Ridge**

ALTHOUGH comparative quiet had reigned in the Ypres salient for a year or more, the British Army, meanwhile, had by no means been idle. For upward of two years, in fact, the Australian and British sappers had been secretly engaged in tunneling under the Messines-Wytschaete range of hills, which rise in gentle slopes 150 feet above the plains. They had dug a gallery five miles long under the Messines Ridge, and at intervals along

this laid 20 mines, containing in all 600 tons of high explosives. This battery of mines was to be exploded, at the appropriate moment, and the Germans on the crest of Messines blown into eternity.

Gen. Plumer, the British Commander, had made elaborate preparations for the infantry attack following the explosion. The single track that formerly sufficed behind the lines had expanded into a series of railroad junctions traversed by broad and narrow gauge trains, as busy as a London terminus. All the roads and paths in the district were greatly improved. In order to provide an adequate water supply for the Army, the existing lakes were tapped, pits to catch the rain water were dug around Kemmel Ridge, and the water of the Lys River pumped into barges and then sterilized. Pipe lines were run forward, from lakes, pits and barges, and provision made for their rapid extension in the event of victory.

#### **Messines Ridge Blown Up**

ALL being in readiness, it was decided that the explosion of the mines under Messines Ridge should take place on June 7th at 3.10 a. m. Promptly on the minute, in the dead of night, the mines were discharged by electrical contact and, with a roar "like the sound of many earthquakes," that was distinctly heard in London, 140 miles away, the crest of Messines Ridge was blown skyward.

Amidst the torrents of spouting flames, large sections of the German dugouts went up in debris, killing outright or entombing 20,000 German soldiers. Twenty gigantic streams of flame were seen to shoot up, each a volcano in itself. The whole horizon gleamed with coruscating flame, stabs of bursting shells, and streams of light flares, the whole sky being ringed with lightning, which flashed white, yellow, orange, red and green.

Without a pause, the British artillery smothered with shells all the German works and trenches in the salient along a ten-mile front, preparatory to an infantry advance. Then, under a curtain of fire, Gen. Plumer's shock troops, supported by tanks and squadrons of airplanes, dashed across the open field and ascended the slopes of the entire



range of hills. The Irish regiments captured Wytschaete Ridge in two hours; the New Zealanders reached Messines a little later, and before sunset every objective had been taken, together with 7,000 prisoners, 67 guns, 94 trench mortars and 294 machine guns.

### **"Wipers" Salient at Last Wiped Out**

FOR the most part, the terror-stricken German survivors crawled out of their burrows, in the still quivering earth, and weakly raised their hands in token of surrender. At other places, where the dugouts had not been demolished by the artillery fire, hundreds of Huns crouched in the dark and could only be persuaded to surrender after bombs had been hurled among them. The British met with stubborn resistance in the vicinity of Chateau Matthieu, but they finally overcame the foe.

The capture of Messines Ridge not only gave the British control of the last natural position that commanded their lines, it straightened out the British line between St. Julien and Armentieres and wiped out the Ypres salient. In three months, the British had successfully captured Bapaume, the Vimy and Messines Ridges, as well as the Monchy Plateau. Technically considered, Gen. Plumer's capture of the Ridges was as brilliant an operation as Petain's victory at Verdun and it raised him at once to the proud distinction of "the first Field General of the British Army."

Unwilling to rest on his laurels, Gen. Plumer thrust out east and south of Messines. On June 12th, the British troops stormed and occupied two miles of German trenches, in the neighborhood of Gaspard. On June 15th, the Germans made some gains east of Monchy, but five days later the British recovered the position.

Attacking by starlight, they stormed and carried a section of German trench. The Canadians, meantime, had seized Reservoir Hill and were pressing on the heels of the retreating Huns in the direction of La Coulette.

Everywhere, along their 120-mile front, the British were exerting a strong pressure on the enemy position. Especially they were

drawing their circle closer around Lens. On June 20th, the Canadians routed from their trenches a column of Germans that barred the way to Lens. Repeated counter attacks by the Germans failed to recover the lost position. With the British forces virtually enveloping the town, the Germans could no longer carry on their coal-mining operations in the immediate region of Lens. In the last week of June, the operations of the British Armies were brought to a standstill by reason of the heavy rains.

### **Battles in Belgium**

THE Germans on July 10th violently bombarded the British lines north of Nieuport, on the Belgian coast, leveling all the British defenses in the dune sector, destroying the bridges over the Yser River and capturing a mile of trenches. The British losses were 3,000 in killed and captured. During this engagement the superiority of the German air forces was apparent. The British airmen retaliated the next day by dropping several tons of bombs on five towns in Flanders occupied by the Germans, setting fire to German ammunition dumps.

The Germans, ceaselessly, for three weeks, drenched the whole region with shells, in a wide sweeping storm of fire, endeavoring to destroy the hidden British batteries. Nieuport and Ypres especially were deluged with shells. The British gunners responded with surpassing fury and a rivalry of destruction followed that baffles description.

At the close of this artillery duel, on July 31st, the British and French troops advanced on a front of 20 miles from Dixmude to Warneton, capturing ten towns and 5,000 prisoners. All objectives were carried. Large squadrons of British and French planes led the advance against the German lines and many air battles were fought, the Germans being wholly outclassed.

### **Fourth Battle of Ypres**

A NEW Franco-British offensive was launched east of Ypres on August 1st, the British gaining new territory, besides taking 60,000 prisoners and 100 guns. The German dead lay in piles, hundreds of them being shot in the back by their own artillery



fire during the frenzied German failure to check the advance of the British.

On August 4th, Canadian troops to the southwest of Lens drove the enemy patrols helter-skelter back to Lens and occupied a position within half a mile of the center of the city. After five days of torrential rain, the Germans reopened the battle north of the Ypres-Commines Canal, and for a brief spell gained a footing in Hollebeke, but were presently driven out again.

### Entire Prussian Division Annihilated

STEP by step the British closed in on Lens. On August 14th, the Canadians stormed and captured Hill 70, and repelled all the German counter-assaults. In this bloody engagement, 10,000 Canadians and 20,000 Germans fell. Excepting at Verdun, the German losses had never been so heavy as in this battle. The entire Seventh Prussian Division was annihilated. So intense was the fire of the Canadian guns that German ration parties refused to go to the relief of their comrades, and most of the prisoners taken were half famished.

Another sanguinary battle was fought soon after midnight on August 18th, when the Germans in great numbers hurled themselves repeatedly against the Canadians on the line north of Lens. Hand-to-hand conflicts of the fiercest description followed. The Canadians used their bayonets most effectively on this day, prodding the Huns back with heavy losses.

### British Smash German Line Near Ypres

THE British smashed the German line east of Ypres on an eight-mile front, September 20th, penetrating the center to the depth of a mile and taking 3,000 prisoners. Two days

later, massed attacks on the new British positions were made by the Germans, with only slight success and at a frightful cost. British aircraft swept in flocks over the wide area of battle, dropping tons of explosives at Roulers, Menin and Ledeghem. Ten German airships were brought to earth, eight were put out of control, while the British lost 12 machines.

### "Flaming Bullets" Used by the Germans

"FLAMING BULLETS" were used by the Germans for the first time during this battle along the Menin Road. As they struck they set fire to the clothing of the British soldiers.

Again, on September 26th, the British attacked east of Ypres, on a six-mile front, piercing the German line to a depth of a mile and taking 1,600 prisoners. The British were almost ready to drive in a wedge between the German advanced line in Flanders and the Osten-Lille Railway. Could this be done, the Germans must evacuate Belgium as far as the Scheldt, evacuating the cities of Lille, Roubaix, and Turcoing.

### Canadians Take Passchendaele Ridge

FIELD MARSHAL HAIG struck his next blow at the German line east of Ypres on October 4th, advancing one mile on a front of eight miles, and taking 4,500 prisoners. Though the heavy rains had transformed the battlefield into a vast swamp, in which the men sank up to their knees, Marshal Haig began another offensive early in the morning of October 12th, along the whole terrain in Flanders. The British troops, in three hours pushed the Germans back nearly a mile toward Passchendaele. Another heavy rain delayed operations for a week; then the British and French together advanced north of Ypres, winning a series of fortified places.

## Canadian Troops Capture Passchendaele Ridge

Canadian Corps, 75,000

Gen. Sir Arthur Currie, Commander

THE capture of Passchendaele Ridge, by the Canadian troops, under command of Gen. Sir Arthur Currie, formed the brilliant climax to the Fourth Battle of Ypres. On October 26th, Canadian and English troops at-

German Troops, 120,000

Crown Prince Rupprecht, Commander

tacked on a front extending from the Ypres-Roulers Railway to beyond Poelcappelle.

The Canadians advanced on both banks of the Ravebeek River, which flows southwestward from Passchendaele. On the left bank



of the stream they made themselves masters of the small hill south of Passchendaele. North of the Ravebeek, they smashed their way across Bellevue Spur and other fortifications, meeting with stiff resistance.

While pressing up the slope of the spur, the Canadian troops at times were almost hip-deep in the mire, but they struggled onward for six hours until, in the face of a shattering machine-gun fire, they were ordered to withdraw temporarily. Then reinforcements were brought up, the waves reorganized, again the Canadians advanced, and, inch by inch, the semi-liquid slope was at length breasted.

It was necessary to clear many German "pill-boxes" before the crest of the spur was reached and passed. Two strong counter-attacks south and west of the ridge were beaten off and by nightfall the Canadians had gained practically the whole of their objectives. The victory had cost them 24,000 in casualties, while the German losses were fully as great.

The fighting on the outposts of Flanders continued. On October 30th, Canadian and English troops attacked on a front extending from the Ypres-Roulers Railway to the Poelcappelle—Westroosebeck Road. On the right, the Canadians continued their advance along the high ground and reached the outskirts of Passchendaele, capturing an important position at Crest Farm on a small hill southwest of the village.

Fighting was severe at all points, but particularly on the spur west of the Yser, where five strong counter-attacks were beaten off, the Canadians using captured German cannon in repulsing the enemy. On November 6th, the Canadians renewed the attack and captured the village of Passchendaele, to-

gether with the high ground surrounding it. Four days later, the Canadian and British troops attacked northward from Passchendaele, and captured further ground on the main ridge after heavy fighting.

### Rare Exploit of Canadian Cavalry

THE Canadian Cavalry, chiefly Fort Garry Horse, which aided Gen. Byng at Cambrai, performed a feat on November 20th which ranked with the best exploits of the War. A single squadron, in a gallant charge, captured a German battery, then raced two miles inside the enemy's lines over infantry and other obstacles, and the 43 survivors of this daring raid fought their way back through guns and soldiers to Masnieres.

The capture of Passchendaele gave the Allied forces a firm footing on a series of great spurs, extending from Gheluvelt to Roulers, and relegated the enemy to lower levels. The apex of the salient was bent back in dangerous proximity to Roulers, the fall of which would have cut Germany's communication from her submarine bases at Ostend and Zeebrugge with the South. Were it not for the sea of mud which lapped around the salient and hindered the Allied operations, the Germans must surely have been expelled from Belgium.

Since July 31st, the Allies had taken 25,000 prisoners, 71 guns and 138 trench mortars. In the early stages of the battle, they had whipped 78 German divisions, but 600,000 fresh German soldiers had arrived from the Russian front, and the enemy now held the superiority in numbers. They could not yet be expelled. The losses on both sides had been unusually severe, mounting into the hundreds of thousands.

ALL NATIONS—AUG. 1

## The Pope's Peace Plan Without Indemnities or Annexations

President Wilson Refuses to Treat with the "Irresponsible Rulers of Germany"

SECTION 22—1917

THE influence of the Papacy was brought to bear upon all the belligerent nations on August 1, 1917, when Pope Benedict XV made his memorable plea for

"a peace based on the principle of reciprocal restitution, of no annexations and no indemnity." In his note to the several powers engaged at war, Pope Benedict set forth his



plan in a number of points which seemed to his Holiness to offer the basis of a just and lasting peace.

Pope Benedict proposed, as a fundamental point, that "the material force of arms shall give way to the moral force of right." He also proposed the simultaneous and reciprocal decrease of armaments by all nations; the institution of arbitration according to rules drawn in concert and under sanctions to be determined against any state which would decline either to refer international questions to arbitration or to accept its awards; the removal of all obstacles in the way of the true freedom and community of the seas, thus opening to all nations new sources of prosperity and progress while eliminating any causes of conflict; the settlement of war indemnities and reparations upon the general principle of entire and reciprocal conditions; the reciprocal restitution of all occupied territory, as that of Belgium and France by Germany, and of the German colonies by the Allies; the settlement of disputed territorial questions in a conciliatory spirit, taking into account the aspirations of the population and adjusting private interests to the general good of the great human society; the examination of other territorial and political questions in the same spirit of equity and justice, notably those relative to Armenia, the Balkan states, and the territories forming part of the old kingdom of Poland.

#### **President Wilson's Reply to the Pope's Plea**

THE objection was at once raised to the Pope's peace plan that it would exempt Germany from every demand for reparation for the destruction she had wrought; it would restore to her the German colonies in Africa, while leaving open for settlement by negotiation the fate of Alsace-Lorraine, Trieste, Poland, Roumania and Serbia; it would enable Germany to take her place at the peace table on an equal footing with the nations she had despoiled; and most of all, that it overlooked the issues for which the Allies were fighting.

As spokesman for the Allies, President Wilson, on August 27, 1917, addressed a note to the Pontiff, which while recognizing "the dignity and force of the humane motives which prompted the Pope's moving appeal,"

nevertheless regarded the plan as one which could not be successfully carried out unless the restitution of the status quo ante furnished a firm and satisfactory basis for it.

"The object of this War," wrote the President, "is to deliver the free peoples of the world from the menace and the actual power of a vast military establishment, controlled by an irresponsible government which, having secretly planned to dominate the world, proceeded to carry out the plan without regard either to the sacred obligations of treaty or the long-established practices and long-cherished principles of international action and honor; which chose its own time for the War; delivered its blow fiercely and suddenly; stopped at no barrier, whether of law or of mercy; swept a whole continent within the tide of blood—not the blood of soldiers only, but the blood of innocent women and children also, and of the helpless poor; and now stands balked, but not defeated, the enemy of four-fifths of the world.

#### **Couldn't Trust the Kaiser**

"THIS power is not the German people. It is the ruthless master of the German people. To deal with such a power by way of peace upon the plan proposed by his Holiness, the Pope, would, so far as we can see, involve a recuperation of its strength and a renewal of its policy; would make it necessary to create a permanent hostile combination of nations against the German people who are its instruments. We cannot take the word of the present rulers of Germany as a guaranty of anything that is to endure unless explicitly supported by such conclusive evidence of the will and purpose of the German people themselves as the other peoples of the world would be justified in accepting. Without such guarantees, treaties of settlement, agreements for disarmament, covenants to set up arbitration in the place of force, territorial adjustments, reconstitutions<sup>o</sup> of small nations, if made with the German Government, no man, no nation, could depend on. We must await some new evidence of the purposes of the great peoples of the Central Powers."

The German nations, Austria in particular, seemed anxious to begin a peace parley



on the basis of Pope Benedict's plan, but with their customary guile, they declined to announce their war aims. The Allied nations unanimously rejected the Pope's plan and indorsed the stand taken by President Wilson.

#### Lord Lansdowne's Peace Proposal

SOME weeks later a mild sensation was created by the proposal of Lord Lansdowne of England, a former British Viceroy of

India and Governor General of Canada, that the Allies restate their war aims as a preliminary to a peace convention, lest "the ruin of the civilized world should result from the prolongation of the War." The English Government at once repudiated Lansdowne's views and gave definite assurance that peace should come only after Germany had been brought to her knees.

WESTERN THEATER, OCT.—DEC. 31

## Italian Armies Retreat 50 Miles to Piave Losing 240,000 Men

Great Disaster Results from Fraternization of Italian and Austrian Socialists

SECTION 23—1917

#### Italian Army, 800,000

Gen. Cadorna  
Duke of Aosta  
Gen. Diaz  
Gen. Badoglio  
Gen. Giardino  
Gen. Cappello

#### Austro-German Armies, 1,000,000

Gen. von Below  
Gen. Boroevic  
Archduke Charles  
Gen. von Hoetzendorf

**I**TALY in 1917 narrowly escaped the fate of Russia, when 240,000 Socialists in the Italian Army, in collusion with the Socialists of the Austrian Army, laid down their arms and submitted to capture, enabling a fresh German Army, numbering 500,000 veterans, to drive back the loyal soldiers of Italy to the Piave River, a distance of 50 miles, and almost destroy them. Italy was saved in this crisis by the valor of the little army that held back the Huns at the Piave River. Had the Austro-Germans succeeded in crossing that river, Italy's doom might have been sealed; the entire Austro-German Army could have been transferred to the Western front, insuring the defeat of the Allies, and civilization might have perished.

#### Earlier Italian Victories

THE successes of the Italian Army, earlier in the year, had been such as to astonish even its admirers. Beginning in May, with an assault on the Austrian lines east of the Isonzo, one by one it had seized the keys of the main doors to Italy. In a series of movements, notable alike for valor and clever strategy, the Italians had forced their way to the Carso Plateau and the lower Alps, and in eleven desperate and ever-victorious bat-

tles had battered their way across the plateau. In one month, along a front extending from Tolmino to the sea, they had taken 20,000 prisoners.

As the Italian offensive developed from Plava to the sea, the formidable Austrian defensive positions began to crumble away. Mt. Cucco and the Vodice Ridge were seized in May, while the diversions attempted by the enemy in the zone of Trent failed miserably. English batteries joined with the Italians in the laborious task of preparing for the attack, while squadrons of Italian and Allied airships poured down upon the enemy's lines tons upon tons of explosives. Powerful counter-defensives by the Austrians, carried out on a vast scale with great masses of men, and under the protection of a powerful artillery, broke against the solid resistance offered by the Italian phalanxes.

#### Italian Engineering Strategy

WITH the arrival of needed artillery in August, it was planned to cross the Isonzo River above Gorizia and launch a new drive against the Austrian line on the Carso Plateau. For many weeks prior to the opening of this offensive, the Italian engineers, at sundown each night, had diverted the water



of the Isonzo River above Anhovo and laid across the shallow bed of the stream ten foot bridges, which were concealed from view when the water had resumed its natural course each morning. On the eve of the crossing, the engineers had supplemented these ten foot bridges with four pontoon bridges which were also laid at night and while their searchlights blinded the eyes of the Austrians on the opposite cliffs. This series of bridges extended from Anhovo north to Loga, a distance of four miles.

### Italians Cross the Isonzo River

ON the night of August 18, 1917, after the waters of the Isonzo had been diverted from their natural course, the Second Italian Army under Gen. Cappello quietly crossed the Isonzo, while the Third Italian Army under the Duke of Aosta was performing a diversion on the Carso Plateau to deceive the enemy. At daybreak, following a heavy bombardment, the Italian Infantry advanced to their objectives, climbing 2,000 feet to the summit of the Bainsizza Plateau and seizing the Austrian first line trenches and 7,500 prisoners.

More than 200 Italian aeroplanes assisted in the battle, attacking with bombs and machine guns the troops assembled in the rear of the Austrian position. Co-operating with the advance of the Italian Army, floating batteries of the Italian Navy, and British and Italian monitors, effectively bombarded the Austrian positions on the lower Isonzo. At the same time Italian monitors were bombarding the Austrian dockyards south of Trieste. The Austrian batteries replied vigorously, but the Allied units were uninjured. Austrian aeroplanes at nightfall unsuccessfully attacked the Italian line, one aeroplane being brought down at the mouth of the Isonzo.

### Italians Seize Mt. Santo

DURING the night of August 24th, the Austrians were forced to evacuate Mt. Santo. Their losses by now had reached a total of 28,000 men and 600 officers, besides 75 large guns. In desperation and by the employment of large forces, the Austrians now sought to prevent the Italians from advancing toward the eastern edge of the Carso

Plateau. Many natural obstacles confronted the Italians, since the Bainsizza upland is traversed by ridges which rise from 1,000 to 3,500 feet in height, affording exceptional protection for the enemy. Nevertheless, the Italians continued their advance, resisting several counter thrusts by the Austrians.

### Daring Capture of Monte San Gabrielle

THE fiercest struggle of all was that for the possession of Mt. San Gabrielle, then held by the Austrians. During the last two days of August, this stronghold was taken and retaken several times. On September 3d, the Italians advanced in three columns to attack San Gabrielle. One column advanced along the crest, another worked along the northeastern slope, while the third advanced on the precipitous right slope. The charge of the Italian troops in the center was irresistible; with an utter disdain of death they rushed a steep glacis 300 feet high, stormed the machine-gun position and reached the rocky caverns, where 1,500 Austrians were caught like rats and made prisoners. In less than an hour the Italians were in possession of the main peak. They had thrust a wedge into the enemy position on the mountain, but their own position was precarious. The enemy still lay around them to the east, south, and southwest, on the lower grounds.

### Austrians Lose 30,000 Prisoners

ON the following day the Austrians, after a most violent bombardment, launched their infantry forces against the Italian front from Castagnevizza to the sea. In the center, between Korite and Celle, the Italian troops resisted seven furious Austrian assaults and maintained their positions. On the Bainsizza Plateau, the Italians obtained new advantages, capturing an important position southwest of Coragio.

The Italians secured immense quantities of booty as a result of their offensive, whole convoys of arms and munitions being abandoned by the Austrians in their flight, while in an armored dug-out near Ravenna, the entire equipment of an Austrian Brigade Staff was found. The prisoners taken numbered 30,671 Austrians, including 858 officers.



### Italians Gain on the Bainsizza Plateau

THE Austrians, during the next two weeks, by desperate counter-attacks, sought to drive the Italians from Monte San Gabrielle. On September 15th, they gained some unimportant ground on the summit, while the Italians had captured two more heights on the Bainsizza Plateau, near Volnik, which they held against repeated attacks. On September 28th, Italian storming parties made a surprise attack on the Bainsizza Plateau, near Podlaka, taking 1,400 prisoners and seizing some high ground.

Early in October, snowstorms and gales began to prevail in the Trentino, while the Isonzo and Carso lines were inundated by rain and the valleys were transformed into lakes of mud. The torrents were so swollen and impetuous as to be impassable. Spasmodic fighting was now the order, varied now and then by intense artillery duels, but the Austrian attacks were on the whole unavailing.

### German Treachery Wins an Inglorious Victory

WITH the Italians almost in sight of Trieste, and her own Armies being pushed steadily back, Austria cried aloud to Germany for aid. Germany was now in a position to render aid to Austria. Her Socialist Allies already had accomplished the downfall of Russia and the ruin of Roumania. She could, therefore, transfer half a million men, veteran troops, from the Eastern front with thousands of heavy guns, to assist Austria in giving Italy her death blow.

In order to make the Italian disaster complete, Germany called again upon her secret ally, the International Socialist Organization, to corrupt the Italian people and the Italian Army, as they had previously corrupted the Russian people and the Russian Army.

Socialist emissaries sneaked into Italy from all directions and began their reptilian work among a war-weary people. They urged the wives to persuade their soldier husbands to lay down their arms and end the War, so that the proletariat might seize and govern Italy in the interests of the "downtrodden masses." They falsely alleged that the

United States and the Allies had abandoned Italy to her fate. They promised that Germany would grant Italy a separate peace if the soldiers would only lay down their arms. They called attention to the Pope's peace message, and said that only by speedy peace could Italy be saved. Above all, they warned the wives of Italian soldiers that if they did not wish to die of starvation, they would better work for peace.

Meanwhile the Socialists in the Austrian Army had assumed fraternal relations with the Socialist soldiers in the Italian Army who faced them among the Alps. They even mingled in each other's trenches between battles. The Austrian Socialists gave their Italian brethren the solemn assurance that if they would lay down their arms and refuse to fight the Austrians would do the same, adding that Germany would then grant them a separate peace and they could return without delay to their families. Leaflets were distributed, conveying the insinuation that France and England were bent on Italy's betrayal.

Nearly the entire Second Italian Army of Gen. Cappello is said to have been seduced by this Socialist propaganda, consenting to lay down their arms to the Austrians, cut their own telephone communications and permit the Austrians to break through their lines. They were not aware, however, that a German Army, half a million strong, was already in readiness behind the Austrian lines to break through and destroy Italy.

### The German Trap is Sprung

THE Germans had laid their plans with devilish ingenuity. They had selected the sector around Caporetta in the Julian Alps as the place to break through into Italy after demoralizing the Italian Army guarding that front. This sector which was thinly protected, had been comparatively quiet and unused to heavy artillery bombardments. Here most of the fraternization between the two armies had taken place.

The Germans had brought to this sector 2,000 pieces of their heaviest artillery, and behind the Austrian line they had massed an enormous force of veteran German soldiers.



On the night of October 23, 1917, they were prepared to spring their trap. The Austrian troops who had been fraternizing with the Italian troops, and who had agreed to lay down their arms in unison with the Italians, were quietly sent to the rear, and their places filled with German troops who had made no such promise to their Italian Socialist brethren.

At the appointed time, on the night of October 3d, the German guns began a terrific bombardment of the Italian position, at first with high explosive shells and then with mustard gas and asphyxiating bombs. The intensity of the bombardment bewildered the Italians. They were reassured when at daylight, the bombardment then having ceased, the German Infantry were discerned approaching through the heavy mist and smoke toward the Italian trenches. Supposing their Austrian Socialist friends were coming as usual to fraternize with them, many of the Italian Socialists threw down their arms.

Whole companies of Italian soldiers are said to have risen from their trenches with outstretched hands, to greet their "brothers," the Germans, who passed them in sullen silence and plunged on toward the Italian reserve lines in the rear.

#### **Ranks Opened to Admit German Soldiers**

IN the front ranks of the German advance were several Germans wearing the uniforms of Italian staff officers, and speaking Italian perfectly, who rushed into the Italian gun emplacements and trenches, shouting orders for an immediate retirement. The Italian Reserves at once opened up their ranks permitting the disguised Germans to pass through. Through this gap in the Italian line the Germans then poured in great numbers with rifles, machine guns and artillery.

Once in the rear of the Italian Second Army, these German Socialist "brothers" turned their guns upon the left wing of the Italian Army which was occupying positions upon the slopes of the neighboring heights, while the German-Austrian main army assailed the Italians from the front.

Caught between two fires many of the Italians were slaughtered, but more of them sur-

rendered. This entire wing was virtually annihilated. The right wing of the Second Army was saved from destruction through the valor of the bersaglieri, or sharp-shooters' division, who charged the German front repeatedly, and held it back till the right wing of the Army had effected its retreat to Cividale and the Venetian Plain.

#### **Retreat of the Italian Army Begins**

MEANWHILE, the retreat of the Italian Third Army, commanded by the Duke of Aosta, was being protected by the cavalry, who charged the Germans repeatedly, breaking the momentum of their advance.

Many of the Italian socialists, who had been betrayed by their German brethren, fought to the death when they realized the awful disaster that had befallen the Army, sacrificing themselves in the vain effort to check the onrushing hordes; but it was now too late. A very heavy mist enveloped the area of battle, making it difficult to distinguish friend from foe; the night was dark, and the Germans had cut the telephone wires, thus preventing communication with Italian headquarters.

After the first ghastly shock had subsided, the superhuman courage and determination with which the remnants of the Second Italian Army sacrificed themselves almost to a man to allow the retreat of the Third and Fourth Armies from the Bainsizza Plains, stands out as one of the most brilliant pages in the history of warfare. In these actions the Bersaglieri and the Alpini won immortal fame.

#### **Germans Pour Into the Venetian Plain**

THE momentum of the Austro-German offensive rapidly increased. Before morning of the 25th, the Italians had been driven back to their boundary line and were preparing to evacuate the Bainsizza Plateau. More than 30,000 prisoners had been taken by the Germans.

By the 26th the Austro-Germans, with stunning rapidity, had expelled the Italians from the Carso Plateau and were within sight of the Plain of Venice; the number of prisoners had now increased to 60,000 and the captured guns to 450. On the 27th, the



German troops had forced their way into the burning town of Cividale on the Venetian Plain.

The whole Italian front, from the Alps to the Adriatic, was now wavering. The town of Goritz, which the Italians had captured in August with so great a sacrifice of men, fell on October 28th. By this time the defeated Second Italian Army was retreating toward the Tagliamento River, while the Third Army was fighting desperately along the Adriatic Sea. North of the sector, at Caporetta, which had been penetrated by the Germans, the Italian line was yielding as far as the Ploesken Pass. In vain the Italian rear guards endeavored to stem the advance of the Huns.

On October 29th, the city of Udine, where Gen. Cadorna had established his headquarters, was taken; the Italian Carnic front had collapsed; violent tempests and heavy rains prevailed along the Isonzo; the roads were choked with retreating columns and the impedimento of the armies; the populace of all Northern Italy were in panic flight. In their distress they were given immediate succor by the American Red Cross.

### **Brief Stand at the Tagliamento River**

THE Italian Army reached the Tagliamento River on October 30th, and here the onrush of the Huns was checked for four days. Ill luck seemed to pursue the Italians. When the main army reached the Tagliamento, it was in flood and difficult to cross, but when the Germans arrived the river bed was almost dry, enabling the Huns to walk across.

On October 31st, the Germans stormed the bridgehead positions at Latisana and Dagnano, taking 60,000 prisoners and hundreds of guns. By evening of the next day the left bank of the Tagliamento had been cleared of Italians from the Fella Valley to the Adriatic Sea.

French and English reinforcements were hurried to the scene, but in too small numbers to influence the action. Only by heroic rear guard defenses was the Italian Army saved from total destruction.

The German divisions forced the middle course of the Tagliamento on November 4th,

compelling a general retreat of the Italian Army on the next day. Yet the brief respite which they had gained enabled the Italians to rearrange their shattered armies, and proceed in orderly retreat. Two days later the Italians reached the Livenza River, where they were rested for a day preparatory to falling back upon the Piave River, their last line of defense. Should this fall, all Italy would soon be in the hands of the barbarians. The Piave was to Italy what the Marne was to France.

### **The Italians Reach the Piave River**

THE glorious episodes of this retreat will never be fully told,—how Italian divisions without guns, left behind to cover the retreat of the main bodies and retard the advance of the Huns, sacrificed themselves to the last man in order to save Italy; how other units, completely surrounded, fought to the death, refusing to surrender even in hopeless struggles. Nothing can eclipse the valor of these Italian soldiers in the long resistance which they made under the crushing impetus of hostile Hun armies. Though outnumbered five to one and confronting fresh troops constantly relieved, the Italians unaided for more than a month repulsed every ponderous attack.

### **Italians Lose 240,000 During Retreat**

AT last, on November 10th, the Italians reached the almost dry bed of the Piave River, halting the Huns in their headlong rush toward Venice. They hastily dug in on the west bank of the stream, while the Austro-German hordes entrenched on the east bank, all the way from the Alps to the Adriatic. During their retreat their losses were at least 240,000 men and 23,000 guns.

### **Gen. Cadorna Gives Way to Gen. Diaz**

MEANWHILE the entire Italian Cabinet had been forced to resign, so inflamed was public opinion. Gen. Cadorna was relieved of his command and Gen. Diaz made Commander-in-Chief of all the Italian armies.

On November 5th, at a meeting of the Allied Premiers, a Supreme War Council was formed to insure co-operation between all the armies. Troops and munitions were rushed



to Italy from France and England, cheering the nation greatly. Italy now prepared to do or die at the Piave as France had so resolved at the Marne.

### Battle of the Lagoons

CHEATED of their prey, the Huns savagely attacked the new Italian position at two principal points—first on the Asiago Plateau, where they were repulsed with heavy losses by the effective fire of the Italian artillery, and then along the lagoons from the lower Piave to the Gulf of Venice.

The Huns made desperate efforts to turn the Italian right wing around the northern limits of the gulf, but were thwarted by Gen. Diaz's strategy. The whole region, with its endless canals and marshes, had been inundated and all the entrances into the gulf protected by mine fields, converting the Gulf of Venice into an isolated sea.

A battle without parallel over this inland waterway was waged during November and December.

The Italians had assembled a "lagoon fleet" for service in this emergency, ranging from swift motor boats with cannon and machine

guns to flat-bottomed British monitors, mounting the biggest guns. Channels had been dug in the beds of the shallow lagoons, and only the Italian pilots could navigate them.

An immense fleet of floating batteries, camouflaged to represent tiny islands or houseboats, had been assembled with guns ranging from 3-inch field pieces to 15-inch fort demolishers. These were supplied from flat-bottomed boats used as munition dumps. After firing upon the enemy, these camouflaged batteries would quickly change position on the surface of lagoons, rendering it difficult if not impossible for the Huns to locate them. In addition, motor boats acted as ambulances and hydro-aeroplanes were used in place of airplanes.

Ceaselessly, day after day, the Huns endeavored to cross the Sile and the Piave by means of pontoons, but as often as they tried, the Italian guns annihilated them. Finally, the Germans gave up the attempt as hopeless, and by Christmas the battle of the Piave was a deadlock. The Huns had been stopped at the Piave as they had previously been halted at the Marne.

WESTERN THEATER, OCT. 27—NOV. 30

## American Soldiers in France Receive First Baptism of Fire

8,000 Shells Used to Isolate 19 Americans—First American Soldiers Killed  
Heroic American Engineers Drop Instruments to Fight

SECTION 24—1917

THE first American soldiers to receive their baptism of fire in the World War were members of a small infantry and machine-gun detachment who had taken over a short stretch of the French first-line trench in the Verdun-Toul sector on October 23, 1917, after some four months' training in the instruction camps. They had quietly entered the trenches the night before, in a pelting rain, their machine guns being drawn by Missouri mules, and were warmly welcomed by their French allies.

The American artillery in the rear celebrated the occasion by a bombardment of the German trenches, the Huns replying vigorously. Sniping occupied the German troops the next few days and American patrols

were sent out into No-Man's Land to snipe the snipers. They potted a German mail carrier who had lost his way in the dark, thus drawing first blood.

### Germans Raid American Trenches

THE Germans, having at length discovered the presence of the Americans, made elaborate preparations to expel them. On November 3d, the Germans shelled the barbed wire front of the American salient, occupied by 19 soldiers, dropping many high explosive missiles of large caliber. Then they laid a most elaborate barrage in a semi-circle in the rear of the small salient, cutting off the retreat of the Americans, spending 8,000 shells of 77 and 115 caliber in the effort.



Before the rear barrage was lifted, a company of 200 German storm troops, machine gunners, artillerymen and wire-cutters penetrated the gaps in the American wire entanglements and stormed the trenches. The Americans fought bravely with pistols, knives and bayonets till overcome by sheer force of numbers. Of the 19 American defenders, three were killed, 12 taken prisoners and the remainder left wounded. The raid lasted only five minutes and was fought in inky darkness.

Of the three Americans killed, one trooper, Private Thomas F. Enright of Pittsburg, Pa., was found with his throat cut from ear to ear on the top of the parapet, evidently having been attacked from the rear. A second trooper, Private Merele D. Hay of Glidden, Iowa, lay dead in the trench, and a third trooper, Corporal James D. Gresham of Evansville, Ind., was killed outside the dugout. Gresham was the sentry at the dugout door. Seeing three men approaching and thinking them friends, he cried out: "Don't shoot; I am an American," "Its Americans we are looking for," answered one of the three Germans in perfect English, and shot him dead with a revolver.

These three Americans—the first of our troops to fall in the War for freedom—were buried with due honors on French soil, Gen. Bordeaux delivering an oration at their graves in the presence of French and American troops, while the battle roared all about them.

#### Americans Retaliate

THE American troops partially avenged this raid on November 14th, when a body of Franco-American sharpshooters, occupying a crater hole near the German lines, ambuscaded a large German patrol, firing a fusillade of bullets into their midst and causing them to flee precipitately, leaving the dead and wounded behind.

#### Heroism of American Engineers at Cambrai

AMERICAN heroism was further exemplified by a body of unarmed American railway engineers during the German encircling movement around the British position at Cambrai on November 30, 1917. These railway engineers, 284 in number, were working in conjunction with Canadian engineers three miles in the rear of the battle line at Gouzeaucourt. All were unarmed. The German barrage fire having suddenly shifted in their direction, a general retirement was ordered.

During the retreat a body of 50 engineers, being cut off, took refuge in dugouts, where they were captured by the German advance. As they were marching along the road to Cambrai, toward the German prison cages, they sighted a small body of British troops who had become separated from their comrades and were wandering about aimlessly.

The prisoners, seeing rescue at hand, turned upon their captors and fought them barehanded until the British troops arrived and vanquished the Germans.

The Americans and their comrades thereupon despoiled the Germans of their rifles and returned to the British lines. Several Americans and Canadians were killed in this engagement. As a result of this surprise, orders were issued that in future all engineers should be armed to enable them to assist the troops in any emergency. The Americans were complimented for their heroism in a French Communique to the government at Washington.

#### Winter Ends the Fighting

DAILY bombardments continued all along the sector, and sporadic raids occurred, resulting in many casualties. With the advent of winter, the roads became impassable with drifts; a thaw in January turned the icy roads into river beds; torrential streams flowed down from the hills, and fighting was suspended on this part of the Western front.



ALL THE WORLD OVER, OCT.

## Sixteen Nations, Including China, Sever Relations with Germany

Siam and Liberia, with South American Countries, Join Allied Cause

SECTION 25—1917

**T**HE lesser nations of the Western Hemisphere, together with China, Siam, Greece and the negro Republic of Liberia, needed but the infectious example of the United States Government to place themselves on record against German barbarism.

Cuba declared war on Germany April 7, 1917, and against Austria-Hungary on December 16, 1917.

Panama declared war on Germany April 7, 1917, and on Austria-Hungary December 10, 1917.

Guatemala declared war on both Germany and Austria-Hungary, April 22, 1918.

Siam declared war on Germany and Austria, July 22, 1917.

Liberia declared war against Germany, August 4, 1917.

Greece (government of Alexander) declared war against Bulgaria and Germany, July 2, 1917.

China declared war against Germany and Austria, August 14, 1917.

Brazil declared war against Germany October 26, 1917.

### Severance of Diplomatic Relations

The nations that formally severed diplomatic relations are as follows:

Austria against Japan, Aug. 26, 1914.

Austria against Portugal, March 16, 1916.

Austria against Serbia, July 26, 1914.

Austria against United States, April 8, 1917.

Bolivia against Germany, April 14, 1917.

Brazil against Germany, April 11, 1917.

China against Germany, March 14, 1917.

Costa Rica against Germany, Sept. 21, 1917.

Ecuador against Germany, Dec. 7, 1917.

Egypt against Germany, Aug. 13, 1914.

France against Austria, August 10, 1914.

Greece against Turkey and Austria, July 2, 1917.

Guatemala against Germany, April 27, 1917.

Haiti against Germany, June 17, 1917.

Honduras against Germany, May 17, 1917.

Nicaragua against Germany, May 18, 1917.

Peru against Germany, Oct. 6, 1917.

Santo Domingo against Germany, June 8, 1917.

Turkey against United States, April 20, 1917.

United States against Germany, Oct. 7, 1917.

Uruguay against Germany, Oct. 7, 1917.

### How China Declared War

CHINA entered the War largely upon the persuasion of the United States Government. On February 4, 1917, the American Ambassador to China, Dr. Reinsch, urged the Chinese Government to join the United States in protesting against the sinking of neutral ships by German submarines. Complying with this request, China sent a note of protest to Germany on February 9th, declaring her purpose of severing diplomatic relations with Germany if the American protest proved ineffectual. A week or two later, 700 Chinese laborers were drowned when the French ship *Atlas* was sunk in the Mediterranean Sea by a German or an Austrian torpedo. On March 10th, the Chinese Parliament was empowered to break with Germany, and on the same day a reply to the Chinese protest was received from Germany.

On the question of declaring war against Germany, a clash occurred between the President of the Chinese Republic and the Premier of China. The latter wished to take the step without consulting Parliament, while the President insisted that Parliament should be consulted. The President's policy prevailed.

Parliament hesitated to declare war, and was threatened by a mob. The Premier was asked to resign, being accused of a de-

sign to "sell out to Japan," and upon his refusal to resign he was dismissed from office. During this crisis, a revolution broke out in Northern China, the governors and generals declaring their independence, but this was quickly suppressed.

The Japanese Government declared itself the friend of China and pledged itself never to violate the political independence of territorial integrity of China, saying it favored the principle of the "open door" and equal opportunity. Japan's professions of friendship toward China were accepted for what they were worth.

Nevertheless, China formally declared war on Austria and Germany, on August 14, 1917. Her part in the World War was a slight but honorable one. She seized the German set-

tlements at Tientsin and Hankow, with the Deutsche Asiatische Bank, and 14 German vessels that had been interned in Chinese ports. Many thousands of Chinese laborers were sent to Europe to perform manual labor behind the battle lines.

### Siam Follows China

THE little kingdom of Siam, on July 22d, officially entered the War, seizing all the German and Austrian ships in her harbors and interning all subjects of enemy countries. Her motives, as announced by Prince Songkla, brother of the King, were: sympathy for Belgium, aversion to German methods of warfare, "natural necessity and moral pressure." Siam assisted in the final expulsion of Germany from Asian soil.

PARIS—NOV.

## America Insists on Army Unity at First Allied War Conference

Supreme War Council Takes Over General Direction of Allied Armies

SECTION 26—1917

THE failure of the Allied forces to expel the Germans from French and Belgian soil, after three years of incessant warfare, had been due in part to a fatal lack of unity among themselves.

It had been an open secret that a condition of disharmony existed among the Allied High Commands, preventing that perfect co-ordination of movement in attack upon which the successful prosecution of the War depended.

In general, the English, French and Italian Armies fought as separate organizations, under their own leaders, with no master mind to survey the battle front as a whole and to direct the several national armies to the best advantage.

The German Army movements, on the contrary, were perfectly co-ordinated and their units unerringly directed by the General War Staff. This unity of movement had enabled the German strategists frequently to thwart the disjointed attacks of the Allies and consequently to prolong the War.

### America Demands Unity of Action

THE Government of the United States, fully cognizant of this lack of unity among

the Allied generals, served imperative notice upon their governments that, henceforth, there must be a surer correlation of forces, a welding of the various national army units into one mighty war-making machine, no longer working at cross purposes through independent leadership, but for a common end.

Moreover, as the principal financier of the War, and the storehouse from which the Allies drew their food supplies, America insisted that the allotments of money and supplies to the nations forming the Alliance should be apportioned on a more equitable basis than in the past, and with particular reference to the immediate needs of each nation.

### America's Delegates

ON the initiative of President Wilson, the first Allied conference of war was convened in Paris on November 9, 1917. The American delegates to that conference included Col. Edward M. House, the President's confidant, Admiral Benson and Gen. H. Tasker Bliss.

On the eve of their departure, Secretary Lansing announced: "The United States, in the employment of its man power and



material resources, desired to use them to the greatest advantage against Germany. It has been no easy problem to determine how they can be used most effectively, since the independent presentation of requirements by the Allied governments have been more or less conflicting on account of each government's appreciation of its own wants, which are naturally given greater importance than the wants of other governments. Though the resources of this country are vast, and though there is every purpose to devote them all, if need be, to the winning of the War, they are not without limit. But even if they were greater, they should be used to the highest advantage in attaining the supreme object for which we are fighting. It is the earnest wish of this Government to employ its military and naval forces and its resources and energies where they will give the greater returns in advancing the common cause."

#### Recommendations of Our Delegates

THE mission proved eminently successful. Under American persuasion, the Allies agreed to focus their powers against the common enemy and co-ordinate their efforts under a single direction. Upon the return of our delegates, they made the following recommendations:

"That the United States exert all their influence to secure unity of effort, military, naval and economic, between themselves and

the countries associated with them in the War.

"Inasmuch as the successful termination of the War by the United States and the Allies can be greatly hastened by the extension of the United States shipping program, that the Government and the people of the United States bend every effort toward accomplishing this result by systematic co-ordination of resources of men and materials.

"That the fighting forces of the United States be dispatched to Europe with the least possible delay incident to training and equipment."

#### Supreme War Council

THE most important result of the conference was the decision to create a Supreme War Council, with full authority to direct all movements in the various theaters of war. An Interallied Naval Council was formed to co-ordinate the naval forces of the United States and the Allies. All military resources of the Allied nations were to be pooled, the expected contributions from each being specified. It was further agreed to restrict the amount of importations to Europe in order to release as many ships as possible for the transport of United States troops to France. America was to have a seat at the Supreme War Council, and to determine the conduct of military operations, naval operations, shipping and food distribution.

EASTERN THEATER, NOV. 20—NOV. 27

## 600 British Tanks Breach the Hindenberg Line at Cambrai

Gen. Byng's Army, After Nearly Reaching Its Objective, Forced to Retreat

SECTION 27—1917

British Forces, 250,000

Field Marshal Sir Douglas Haig, Commander

Third British Army, Gen. Sir Julian Byng

Detail of U. S. Army Engineers

German Forces, 500,000

Gen. von Marwitz, Commander

Bavarian Army—Crown Prince Rupprecht

THE multiple defenses of the Hindenberg zone were breached and deeply penetrated for the first time, on a seven-mile front, west by south of Cambrai, in a brilliant surprise attack launched before daybreak on November 20th by the

Third British Army, commanded by Gen. Sir Julian Byng.

By so simple a stratagem as merely omitting the usual violent artillery "preparation," which would have advertised to the enemy that an attack in force was impending, and



relying instead on the crushing power of 600 armored "tanks" to batter down the concrete works and wire barriers in the Hindenberg zone, Gen. Byng had taken the Germans wholly unawares, overrunning their outer defenses, capturing 10,000 prisoners and in 48 hours advancing eight miles through three parallel lines of defense to the very walls of Cambrai.

Here the British advance was stopped by the interposition of 250,000 Bavarian Reserves, hurriedly sent to the scene. There being no British Reserves available to assist in exploiting his gains, Gen. Byng was compelled at length to retreat out of the German zone. This withdrawal, however, before an enemy force outnumbering his troops two to one, detracts not a single iota from the glory of Gen. Byng's achievement.

Incidentally, it was the good fortune of an American contingent, composed of U. S. Army engineers and physicians, to assist the British during their retreat from Cambrai. Exchanging their engineering tools and medicine packs for weapons of war, at a crucial moment, the Americans jumped into the fray and gallantly assisted in breaking the force of the German counter-attacks. Gen. John J. Pershing, as the guest of Gen. Byng, was an interested observer of the whole operation. Let us now examine the Cambrai maneuver in its strategic details.

### **The British Strategy**

GEN. BYNG'S thrust at Cambrai, across the Hindenberg hurdles, was undertaken in the hope of gaining a quick, notable victory which, as a partial offset to the enemy's alarming successes on all fronts, might tend to restore the lowering morale of the Allied troops.

The Italian disaster at Caporetta, coming so soon after the capitulation of the Russian armies and followed by the British slaughter in the Ypres region and the French fiasco at Craonne, had filled the Allied troops with dismay. Germany already had transferred hundreds of thousands of soldiers from the Eastern to the Western fronts and assuredly, before spring set in, would place 1,500,000 fresh troops in France, Italy and Belgium.

It was necessary at once to strike a blow at Germany which should serve to divert the enemy reserve troops from the Italian front and enable Italy to catch her breath.

Field Marshal Haig accordingly planned the surprise attack on the Hindenberg line, opposite Cambrai, using Gen. Byng's army as the battering ram.

It was his intention, after piercing the outer defences of the Hindenberg line, to advance rapidly through the enemy zone in two columns, one to the capture of the commanding heights of Bourlon Woods, overlooking Cambrai on the west, the other to the seizure of the heights of Creve Coeur, just south of Cambrai. With these key positions in his possession, he might compel the speedy evacuation of Cambrai and possibly start the Germans on a general retreat eastward out of France.

Selecting as his chief point of attack the seven-mile sector of the Hindenberg line, lying between the Bapaume and Peronne Roads, he gave orders that the advance should begin before daylight on November 20th. He emphasized the importance of reaching all objectives within 48 hours, or before the Germans could bring their reserves forward to the relief of Cambrai. The success of the movement depended first upon the quick conquest of the German outer defenses in a surprise attack; secondly, on a swift crossing of the Scheldt River by the column on the right, whose objective was Creve Coeur; third, on the prompt occupation of Bourlon Woods by the column on the left flank.

### **British Tanks Cross Hindenberg Line**

ALL through the night of November 19th, Gen. Byng's army had been quietly preparing for the secret attack. The troops were in tiptoe readiness for the short dash forward; the 600 steel-clad tanks, that could level houses, trees and walls as easily as a child might bend a blade of grass, were carefully concealed from German view.

At 5 o'clock, on the morning of November 20th, the British guns laid down a smoke barrage to conceal the movement of the troops. Then, at a signal, the 600 tanks moved rapidly forward across No-Man's



Land, snapping asunder or trampling down the great belts of wire which protected the German front, and in a jiffy getting astride of the enemy's outer trenches. As the tanks rolled clumsily forward, sending showers of bullets before them, the British batteries in the rear hurled thousands of shells into the Hindenberg zone.

In the wake of the tanks, a large body of British Cavalry swept over the enemy line, some seizing the German batteries, others the machine-gun emplacements and still other squadrons penetrating far behind the line and seizing the nearby villages.

Close on the heels of the cavalry, and yelling like fiends, came the British Infantry. As they entered the German trenches they encountered the bewildered Germans, with the lethargy of sleep heavy upon them, just emerging from their dugouts and coverts. Ten thousand Germans at once threw up their hands in token of surrender, but at several points along the front the Germans attempted to use their machine guns. These were quickly captured. The British casualties were slight. Of all the thousands that participated in the opening assault, only 20 were killed and 100 wounded. The Germans, besides losing 10,000 prisoners, suffered heavy losses.

#### **Mt. Vesuvius Blown Up**

RUSHING through the gaps in the German defenses, one British brigade climbed up and over the knoll known as Mt. Vesuvius. Scarcely had they advanced into the plain beyond when the knoll was blown up by a concealed German mine. Havincourt, La Vacquerie, Bonavis and other points were captured by this brigade within an hour. Before noon the British left flank had reached Flesquires, while on the right the British Cavalry had entered Ribecourt and approached close to Marcoing. At Ribecourt the British surprised the Germans at their morning meal, and the hungry Tommies promptly confiscated the German food.

#### **British Tanks Smashed at Flesquires**

THE first serious resistance was encountered at Flesquires, where a battery of German guns played havoc with the British

tanks. Some of the tractors were smashed by direct hits; others were overturned by shell fire; still some others got bogged; one of them fell into a canal; but the greater number plunged ahead unhindered and without injury.

Between Masnieres and Creve Coeur the Germans managed to destroy several of the important bridges spanning the Scheldt River. This was a matter of vital consequence to the British, since it prevented their right flank crossing the river and occupying the last line of German trenches as had been planned.

The first German counter-attack was launched northeast of Masnieres in mass formation, as in the early days of the War. Waiting until the German squares had approached to within half a mile of their front, the British machine guns opened fire and in a jiffy the German squares were dissolved. An hour later, the Germans counter-attacked at Marcoing, but this attack also was beaten down by heavy artillery and machine-gun fire. Some pretty fighting also took place in the streets of Noyelles, where the belligerent forces met in hand-to-hand encounter. Finally, in a determined bayonet charge, the British forced the Germans back across the canal.

Before the day's fighting ended, the British had advanced nearly five miles in places, and besides 10,000 prisoners had captured 100 guns and liberated many towns. The enemy, however, remained in possession of Bourlon Woods and the heights of Creve Coeur. Because of the destruction of the Scheldt bridges, the British Cavalry were unable to push forward and seize the final German positions.

#### **British Capture Bourlon Woods**

ON the second day of the battle, the British left wing advanced through the village of Fontaine and on to the outskirts of Bourlon Woods, ten miles from Cambrai on the west. Before evening, however, they were compelled to yield Fontaine to the Germans.

The British right flank, on the other hand, had been baffled in their attempt to secure the heights of Creve Coeur, just south of Cambrai. By this time the British were in a



rather precarious situation. They had failed to occupy their objectives and were now locked up in a salient which might be attacked from three sides. Moreover, they knew that German reinforcements were hastening toward Cambrai in overwhelming numbers. One at least of the main objectives must be occupied quickly if the British movement was not to end in failure. With no reserves available to assist him in exploiting his guns, Gen. Byng resolved nevertheless to secure Bourlon Heights at all hazards.

The fighting along the wooded slopes of Bourlon, on November 25th, was spectacular. Tanks and airmen paved the way for the onrushing infantry. It was hard fighting, but the British advance was continued successfully until the northeast corner of the wood was reached, where the tanks were held up by a strong force of the enemy.

British airplanes, meantime, wheeled and rewheeled over the heads of the Germans, sending streams of bullets into the German ranks and forcing the enemy to retire. The tanks then pushed on and the conquest of the wood was completed.

As the British advance entered the village of Bourlon, the Germans delivered a heavy counter-attack, compelling the British to withdraw slightly and enabling the Germans to gain a new footing in the northern edge of the forest.

The British again surged forward, the dismounted cavalry with the infantry, and between them they re-established the old line. Dusk settled down about the contending forces, but they continued to shoot and thrust at one another in gathering darkness. Several times through the night the Germans reformed and swept forward against the village, but were hurled back.

### **The Fighting Near Cambrai**

THE Germans, meantime, had brought up strong reinforcements and massed them near Cambrai, although they could no longer detain them there, as the station was under the fire of the British guns and the town itself had been evacuated by the civilians. Hard fighting continued for a week about Bourlon Woods and village, westward of

Moeuvres and eastward around the half-burned village of Fontaine-Notre-Dame.

Crown Prince Rupprecht, in command of the Bavarian reserves, was attempting to thwart Byng's advance by an encircling movement, but up until December 1st, his attempt had resulted in failure. Although at certain points the Germans pierced the British lines and captured positions, men and guns, they paid dearly for their enterprise, their losses near La Vacquerie in 12 hours' fighting having been greater in number than in any similar period of fighting since the War began. Relatively, the British line remained as it was before the German drive, and tactically it was still as strong as ever.

### **The Battle of Masnieres**

THE Germans now endeavored to pierce the front at Masnieres, launching ten separate counter-attacks. Enemy infantry kept surging forward in waves and as each wave advanced it was broken. The attacking forces were mowed down like wheat before the wind, but with characteristic Prussian discipline they continued to fill their ranks and advance until the last assault failed. Les Roesvertes was captured by the Germans, but a British counter-attack pushed them back again. In the first rush about Gouzeaucourt, the Germans took many prisoners and recovered some of their lost guns, but before they could move this artillery back a British counter-attack swept them eastward again. Some towns in the Cambrai sector changed hands half a dozen times in the rolling, tumbling, shifting fight.

### **American Engineers and Surgeons to Rescue**

AT Gouzeaucourt, where the British line was lightly held, the Germans, on November 30th, had succeeded in breaking through in great masses. Back of the British front, in the devastated Somme region, there were companies of U. S. Army Engineers engaged in building and operating strategic railways close up to the German lines. With them were several American surgeons.

Caught suddenly in the press of battle, these Yankee engineers and medics aided in stemming the German advance. Seizing picks, shovels and what few rifles they could



find, these American professional men "fought like wildcats." They suffered heavily in killed, wounded and prisoners, but they held back the enemy, continued to occupy positions in the back line British trenches until their withdrawal late in January.

### **The Battle of Bourlon Wood**

THE arrival of 250,000 German reserves in the Cambrai sector having made certain a speedy attack on the British salient, Gen. Byng was forced to order a retreat from Bourlon Wood in the hope of straightening out his front. The Germans, now outnumbering the British two to one, pressed their advantage to the utmost.

On December 3d, furious battles were in progress all the way from Gonnelleu to Masnieres. Nowhere, however, did the Germans succeed in penetrating the British line.

In the new salient extending from Queant to Veudhalle, the British fought so valiantly that the fields were piled with the German dead. Fifteen waves deep, the Germans advanced to the attack, but the phalanxes melted away before the British gunfire. Still, as the dead dropped in piles, other Huns filled the gaps, and gradually the British line gave way.

Gen. Byng's withdrawal was so secretly effected that the unsuspecting Germans continued to make attacks on places already vacated, shelling uninhabited territory for hours with a hurricane barrage. Then they attacked in dense masses, but the German storm troops found the forest of Bourlon garrisoned only with their own dead. One sprinkling of British shrapnel sufficed to send them scurrying back, after which came more thick waves of German "shock troops," charging over the crest and on both sides of Bourlon, where they found positions occupied only by rats. The British did not leave any loot in the evacuated section. Every dug-out was destroyed; even telephone wires were neatly rolled up and taken away.

Shattered and plowed with shells, full of stagnant water, and of dead, Bourlon Wood was by this time a loathsome place. The Germans having drenched the forest with

gas-shells, every bush reeked with poison and the floating mists were heavy with it. Though the British had evacuated this sinister forest, they had surrendered nothing vital. The breach in the Hindenberg line was just as wide as before. And in expelling the British, the Germans had paid a fearful price—their casualties being estimated at 100,000.

### **Germans Break Through at Gouzeaucourt**

MEANTIME, the Germans had been assailing the British line on the south side of the salient, just below the Scheldt. This part of the line was being held, as a "quiet sector," by a British division just released from Flanders. The Germans in overwhelming force fell on this wounded division and broke through the line, penetrating westward to the villages of Gonnelleu, Villers-Guisan and Gouzeaucourt. It seemed inevitable that the Germans would saw off the salient and capture Byng's army entire. But they were frustrated by the heroic resistance of the British.

### **Liquid Fire Used**

ON December 12th, the Germans made a vigorous attempt to drive another wedge into the British line, between Bullecourt and Queant. In successive waves, the Bavarians fell upon the sector in an endeavor to overpower the defenders, but the British held tenaciously to their ground. A second attack on the following day proved a complete failure.

As the year drew to a close the Germans renewed their efforts to force the British line. Preceded by liquid fire, the enemy attempted to rush the British positions on a front of 1,200 yards around the Welsh Ridge, south of Marcoing. The first rush carried the Germans into trenches on the ridge, but the British, in a counter-attack, expelled the enemy and restored the position.

So the situation remained on this front until the beginning of the great German drive in March, 1918, which carried them so nearly to victory, described on Page 402.



UNITED STATES—DEC.

## United States Takes Over Operation of All Railroad Systems

Freight Congestion Causes Coal Famine. Suspension of Industries Follow

SECTION 28—1917

**T**HE national necessity of transporting troops to the cantonments and the seaboard, of moving Army equipment and supplies, of distributing food, fuel and other commodities among the people, made necessary the immediate unification of the American Railroads under one system, co-operated under Government control.

In December, 1917, the Interstate Commerce Commission recommended such action, and the President by proclamation took over the railroads on December 28, 1917.

The rights of stockholders and bondholders, and other creditors of the railroads, were not to be impaired by the change in control, and the Government undertook to guarantee to each railroad company such net earnings as would amount to the ascertained net average of the three-year period ending with June, 1917. An appropriation of \$500,000,000 was sought from Congress for the upkeep and betterment of the roads.

### McAdoo Director General of Railroads

THE Secretary of the Treasury, William G. McAdoo, was appointed Director General of Railroads. He at once took the necessary action to insure that all terminals, ports, locomotives, rolling stock and other transportation facilities be utilized for the general convenience and necessities of the nation. All existing railroad compacts for the distribution of traffic by special arrangement were terminated, and the terminals were pooled for the common use of all carriers whose lines or cars could reach them.

### Coal Famine Due to Freight Congestion

THE Government, in its operation of the railroads, was at once confronted by a critical situation. A coal famine of alarming proportions, largely due to freight congestion, had developed. An exceptionally severe winter, with a heavy fall of snow, had resulted in the blockading of many railroads and harbors. In consequence, tens of thousands of coal cars were stalled on side lines

throughout the country and coal-laden vessels were unable to reach their ports of destination. The fuel necessities of the Navy and factories were 100,000,000 tons above the normal, while the individual coal bins of the people were far from filled.

In order to relieve the situation quickly and practically, the Federal Fuel Administrator, Dr. H. A. Garfield, decreed that coal and coke should have the right of way over general freight shipments, and that both should be subordinate to the transit of actual war supplies. This plan, while affording some relief, still was inadequate to solve the coal famine problem. It was necessary to practice strict economy in the use of coal in order that the Navy's needs might be supplied. Accordingly, an imperative call for fuel economy was issued, coupled with the warning that the Government might be compelled to close all non-essential industries in order to issue a sufficient supply of fuel for essential war industries.

### Suspension of Industries for Six Days

IN the end, Dr. Garfield was compelled to resort to more drastic measures. The nation was astonished, though undismayed, by the publication of an order closing all non-essential industries east of the Mississippi River for five days, from January 18th to January 22, 1918, and every Monday thereafter from January to March 25th inclusive. In the distribution of fuel, preference was given to railroads, homes, public service corporations, ships for bunker purposes, government departments, and manufacturers of perishable food. On the designated Mondays, the use of fuel and lights was prohibited in all private business and professional offices, excepting those of bank and trust companies, physicians and dentists.

Theaters, saloons, dance halls, and most office buildings came under the ban. The order was enforced, first amidst a storm of protest, but eventually with the hearty co-operation of the people.



UNITED STATES, JULY

## Gigantic Shipbuilding Enterprise of the United States

\$1,135,000,000 Appropriated—Emergency Fleet Corporation Formed—Goethals and Denman Controversy—Piez and Hurley Take Charge

SECTION 29—1917

THE German submarines had sunk so many English ships, upon which the Allies had depended for the transportation of food, fuel and ammunitions of war, that it became incumbent upon America to make up this maritime loss if the War was to be won.

Congress took immediate steps to meet the emergency. An appropriation of \$1,135,000,000 was voted for the erection of new shipyards and the construction of thousands of steel and wooden cargo ships aggregating 5,000,000 tons within two years.

The Government, through the U. S. Shipping Board, reserved the right of pre-empting the products of every steel mill in the country, and of canceling all their existing contracts with private concerns, so as to divert all steel products to the uses of the Government. This acquisition of every shipyard in the country was proposed.

The Emergency Fleet Corporation was formed to undertake this colossal task. Gen. Goethals, the builder of the Panama Canal, was appointed manager and William Denman president. Instead of working harmoniously together, the two officials disagreed from the start on the important question of whether steel or wooden ships should be built to meet the emergency.

Gen. Goethals preferred building a fleet of steel vessels of standard pattern.

Denman, in July, had contracted for 348 wooden ships, aggregating 1,218,000 tons, while contracts for 100 additional wooden ships were under negotiation.

Goethals had contracted for 77 steel ships, aggregating 642,800 tons, at a cost of \$101,660,356. His program called for steel ships exclusively. Moreover, he proposed to commandeered all the private ships in American shipyards of whatever ownership.

The friction between Goethals and Denman grew so intense and it so greatly imperiled the whole shipping program, that the country was relieved when told that both men had resigned their posts.

Rear Admiral Washington L. Capps, a naval ship constructor of wide fame, succeeded Goethals as head of the Emergency Fleet Corporation, and Edward N. Hurley, former chairman of the Federal Trade Commission, was made chairman of the United States Shipping Board.

Admiral Capps resigned a few weeks later because of ill health and was succeeded by Rear Admiral Harris, a former chief of the Bureau of Yards and Docks, who in turn resigned two weeks later because he had not been intrusted with sufficient authority.

Charles Piez succeeded to the chairmanship of the Emergency Fleet Corporation, and under the combined direction of Piez and Hurley, the ship building program was prosecuted with great vigor.

Before the close of 1917, the number of vessels in the Navy had tripled, reaching a total of 1,000 or more. Scores of fast boats had been tendered to the Government by private owners and had been converted into submarine chasers, mine sweepers and other types needed. The interned German vessels were repaired and put into service as transports. Submarine chasers were built and hurried to the scene of war. Congress appropriated \$350,000,000 for new destroyers and the special plants required for their swift completion. This type of warship was turned out in record-breaking time. Destroyers that formerly required from 20 to 22 months to complete were finished in 10 months. One vessel, the Ward, of 1,000 tons capacity, was launched in 17 days after the keel was laid. So the work proceeded as the year came to a close.



EASTERN THEATER, DEC. 10

## The Holy Land Recovered from the Turks by British Army

Jerusalem Restored to Christendom — Bagdad Captured by British Army  
Babylonian Empire Seized by British in Notable Campaign

SECTION 30—1917

### British Forces, 200,000

Gen. Sir Stanley Maude  
Gen. E. H. H. Allenby  
Gen. Cobbe  
Gen. Marshall  
Gen. Dobell

### Turkish Forces, 150,000

Gen. Liman von Sanders, Commander  
Gen. Ahmed Bey  
Djemal Pasha

**T**HE recovery of the Holy Land from the Turks by a British Army in 1917 was the occasion for universal rejoicing throughout Christendom. But British achievement did not rest with the delivery of Jerusalem from its captivity of 643 years. Another British Army captured Bagdad, the ancient capital of the Moslems, and before the year had closed the whole expanse of the ancient Babylonian Empire was in British hands, while the Turkish Armies were wholly vanquished.

The Turkish triumph over British arms in Mesopotamia, culminating in the surrender of Gen. Townshend's besieged army at Kut-el-Amara in April, 1916, had stirred the British nation into taking steps to retrieve their disgrace. A large British Army, composed principally of Indian troops, and commanded by Lieut.-Gen. Frederick Stanley Maude, moved up the Tigris Valley in January, 1917, pushing the Turks before them. Advancing on Kut-el-Amara, the British found a strong Turkish force occupying both banks of the Tigris and the peninsula in the center created by a "hairpin loop" of the river. The expulsion of the Turks from their entrenched and fortified position occupied the British a full month. On February 25th, after a terrific artillery battle, the Turks evacuated the stronghold, retreating in the direction of Bagdad, 110 miles away.

### Bagdad is Occupied

IN close pursuit the British Army traversed the Syrian Desert, pounding the flank of the Turkish Army incessantly. On the 10th of March the British drove the Turks across the Diala and Tigris Rivers and the same day Bagdad was evacuated, though not

until after the detestable Kurds had looted the city.

Gen. Maude's victorious army, on March 12th, occupied the ancient capital of Haroun-al-Raschid, with its memories of Arabian Nights, receiving a joyful welcome from the Chaldeans, Persians, Armenians, Arabs, and Christians, comprising the population.

In Bagdad, above the remains of an ancient Babylonian temple which Turkish tradition associates with the Tower of Babel, a powerful German wireless station was found, affording direct communication with Berlin. This station the British quickly destroyed. With the fall of Bagdad, the Turks lost their opportunity to establish a naval base on the Persian Gulf.

The next objective of the British was the city of Mosul, some 200 miles further up the Tigris, and directly opposite the supposed site of Nineveh. Mosul was then the terminal of the great railway which the Germans were building between Constantinople and Bagdad.

### The Advance on Ancient Nineveh

THREE Allied armies were now advancing in as many directions on Mosul—Gen. Maude's British Army northward from Bagdad, a Russian Army westward from Persia and another Russian Army southward from the Lake Van Region in Turkish Armenia. After forming a junction, it was the plan of these combined armies to move westward and threaten Constantinople from the north.

By March 18th, Gen. Maude's army had dislodged the Turks from a strong position on the Tigris, and they were now in flight northward toward Samara.



The Russians, in the North and West, were also driving the Turks before them. One entire Turkish column had retreated out of Persia into the trackless mountains west of Kanijaran and the Russian forces had pushed forward almost to the Mesopotamian border at Kermanshot.

In Turkish Armenia the Russians had captured Van and were advancing toward the Diala River, where they afterward joined the English.

Gen. Maude's British Army, on April 20th, defeated an Ottoman Army Corps 70 miles north of Bagdad in Mesopotamia, taking 1,200 prisoners.

In Palestine on the same day, the forces of Gen. Dobell, with the co-operation of a fleet of warships off the Mediterranean coast, had shelled the Turks out of their trenches in front of Gaza and were advancing on the city.

Four days later, Gen. Maude's army surprised an Ottoman division on the Shatt-el-Adhem, driving them 10 miles northward and taking many prisoners. At Iztabilat, Gen. Maude's army gained another signal victory over the Turks, which yielded much loot.

#### **Turks Surrender by Thousands**

DURING the torrid summer months, there was a cessation of fighting in Mesopotamia. In late September, the Turks attempted to cut the communications of the British Army near Mushaid Ridge. The British, however, by a rapid enveloping movement, turned the tables on the Turks. By nightfall of September 27th, the Turks were penned in, with the Euphrates at their backs, with English Infantry on the east and south and with British Cavalry on the west.

When the British began to close in on all sides, the Turks surrendered by thousands, including a general and his staff. The main body of the Turks escaped northward and the pursuit toward Mosul was still in progress as the year closed.

#### **[Death of Gen. Maude**

GEN. MAUDE, the dashing leader of the expedition, died suddenly of cholera in far off Mesopotamia, in November, 1917, after tak-

ing a cup of water proffered him by a native whose guest he chanced to be.

The command of the British forces passed to Gen. E. H. H. Allenby, the gallant cavalry leader who had already gained distinction in Belgium and Northern France, and whose martial deeds were soon again to fill the world with his fame.

#### **Conquest of Palestine Begins**

THE scene now shifts to Palestine, the conquest of which was begun in midsummer, 1917, by a large British force under the command of Gen. Allenby. The Turkish Army in Southern Palestine at this time held a line of trenches 30 miles long, extending from Gaza on the Mediterranean Coast easterly to Beersheba. The British forces occupied a front of 22 miles from near Gaza easterly to Gamli. Gen. Allenby decided to strike his main blow on the left flank of the Turkish Army at Hareira and Sheria, 30 miles inland. As a preliminary to that movement, it was first necessary to march through the Sinai Desert and capture Beersheba, in order to insure a supply of water for his army. On the way to Beersheba, through the Sinai Desert, the water and food supplies for the Army were carried by 30,000 pack camels. At the same time, British engineers were busily employed in laying a line of railroad through the desert, from Gamli to Beersheba, for the transport of guns and ammunition. A railway line was also constructed from Deir el Belha to the Wadi Ghuzze, in rear of a sector held by a division of Gen. Allenby's forces. The Turks, meanwhile, with the aid of German engineers, had greatly extended their railway lines and received strong reinforcements of men, ammunition and guns.

#### **British Cross Desert and Take Beersheba**

DUE to the steep banks of many of the wadis which intersected the desert, the routes passable by wheeled transports were limited, and the going was difficult in many places. Approaching Beersheba, on October 30, 1917, the British Army began its night march to the places of deployment.

Gen. Allenby's plan was to attack the Turkish position between the Khalassa Road and the Wadi Saba with two divisions, masking the works north of the Wadi Saba with the



Imperial Camel Corps and some infantry, while a division of the Welsh Infantry covered the left of the corps further north. A cavalry regiment covered the right flank while mounted troops were posted opposite the southern defenses of Beersheba.

As a preliminary to the main attack, the Turkish advanced position, known as "1040," was taken on the early morning of October 31st, after a brief bombardment. An hour later, the works between the Khalassa Road and the Wadi Saba were in British hands. Then with a yell, the Australian Light Horse galloped over two lines of Turkish trenches and entered Beersheba, followed by the infantry. About 2,000 prisoners were taken, and 500 Turks were killed in the engagement that followed.

#### **Gaza Evacuated by the Turks**

MEANWHILE, an artillery division had begun the bombardment of Gaza, the ancient capital of the Philistines, being assisted three days later by a combined British and French Fleet of warships. After the fall of Beersheba, the infantry attack on Gaza was ordered to take place on November 2d. The attack was made on a four-mile front, the Britishers advancing across a sandy desert dotted with sand dunes 50 to 150 feet in height. The main attack was successful in reaching all objectives, except for a section of trench on the left; 450 prisoners were taken and many Turks were killed. The British could not follow up this advantage for several days owing to the failure of their water supply and ammunition transport. The bombardment of Gaza continued, however, and a second infantry assault was ordered to take place on the night of November 6-7th. When that night arrived, it was found that the Turks had evacuated Gaza. The British at once occupied the city, while the main army continued its pursuit of the Turks toward Jerusalem.

#### **Jerusalem Restored to Christendom**

DURING the next ten days, the Turkish Army, numbering nearly 200,000, was driven back 60 miles on one flank and 40 miles on the other; they had been expelled from their strong position at Junction Station and had lost 9,000 prisoners, 80 cannon, 100 machine

guns and great stores of ammunition. Split in two by the capture of Junction Station, one-half of the Turkish Army had retreated eastward into the Judean Mountains toward Jerusalem, the other half fleeing northward along the Plain.

There was constant fighting, but no general battle, during the remainder of November along the foothills of the Judean Range, in which the Turks lost 12,000 prisoners, 100 guns, 20,000,000 rounds of ammunition and 20 aeroplanes.

The British, early in December, began an enveloping movement around Jerusalem, driving the Turks away from the positions. Finally, on December 9th, when it was apparent that Jerusalem would surely be isolated, the Turks evacuated the Holy City, which they had held for 673 years, and at noon, December 10, 1917, Gen. Allenby's victorious army made its official entry into the city.

#### **Allenby Enters Jerusalem**

FROM the outskirts of Jerusalem, the Jaffa Road was thronged with people flocking westward to greet the conquering general. Many Moslems joined in the expression of welcome, and their faces lighted up with pleasure at the general's approach. Gen. Allenby was received outside of Jaffa gate by the Military Governor and the guard of honor composed of representatives from all of Britain's domains. Within the walls were detachments of French and Italian troops.

Gen. Allenby entered by the ancient gate, not on a gaily caparisoned steed, as would some Oriental conqueror, but reverently and on foot. Preceded by his aids-de-camp, he had on his right the commander of the Italian detachment. American, Italian and French military attaches followed, together with a few members of the general staff. The guards of honor marched in the rear.

The procession turned to the right into Mt. Zion and halted at the Citadel. On the steps, at the base of the Tower of David, which the feet of Christ once traversed, the Proclamation of the Military Law was read, in the presence of the Commander-in-Chief and of many notables of the city.



Reforming, the procession moved up Zion Street to the barrack square, where Gen. Allenby received the notables and the heads of the religious committees. The Mayor and the Mufti were presented, likewise the Sheiks in charge of the mosques of Omar and Aksa, and Moslems belonging to various ancient tribes. The patriarchs of the Latin, Greek, Orthodox and Armenian churches, and the Coptic bishop, had been directed by the Turks to leave Jerusalem, but their representatives were introduced to Gen. Allenby, as were also the leaders of the Jewish committees, the Syrian church, the Greek Catholic church, the Abyssinian bishop and a representative of the Anglican church. The last presentation was that of the Spanish Consul, who was in charge of the interests of almost all of the countries at war.

#### **Religious Freedom Guaranteed**

IN the Proclamation announcing the establishment of martial law, Gen. Allenby assured the inhabitants that they might pursue their lawful business without fear of interruption. Furthermore, he declared, "since your city is regarded with affection by the adherents of three of the great religions of mankind, and its soil has been consecrated by the prayers and pilgrimages of multitudes of devout people of these three religions for many centuries, therefore do I make known to you that every sacred building, monument, holy spot, shrine, traditional site, endowment, pious bequest, or customary place of prayer, of whatsoever form of three religions, will be maintained and protected according to the existing customs and beliefs of those to whose faiths they are sacred."

Guardians were established at Bethlehem and on Rachel's tomb, while the tomb at Hebron was placed under exclusive Moslem

control. The hereditary custodians at the gates of the Holy Sepulchre were requested to take up their accustomed duties in remembrance of the magnanimous act of the Caliph Omar who protected that church.

#### **Turks Fail to Recapture Jerusalem**

THE British, after the capture of Jerusalem, continued their pursuit of the Turks, driving the Moslems north and east and taking many towns during December. Early on the morning of December 27, 1917, the Turks, with German assistance, made a determined attempt to retake Jerusalem, attacking with great vigor. They were finally repulsed and driven back 12 miles north of the city, leaving 1,000 dead and 600 prisoners behind.

#### **Grand Sherif of Mecca Joins the Allies**

THE Arab revolt against Turkish rule in Arabia was meanwhile spreading. The Grand Sherif of Mecca had united with the Allies in July, 1917, and his Arab bands made frequent attacks on Turkish posts and detachments, besides destroying the Turkish railroad communications. Late in November, 1917, a train in which Djemal Pasha, the Turkish general, was traveling to Jerusalem, was blown up with a mine and destroyed. Djemal escaped, but his aid-de-camp and the staff officers accompanying him were killed.

#### **The War in Mesopotamia**

SINCE the fall of Bagdad, March 11, 1917, there had been little activity in Mesopotamia, until September 29th, when the British Expeditionary Force captured Ramadie in a spirited engagement. The British took 3,455 prisoners, and great stores of ammunition and arms.



ALL OCEANS, JAN.—DEC.

## Appalling Losses to Allied Shipping Caused By Submarines

Many Hospital Ships, Belgium Relief Ships, Transports and Merchant Vessels Sunk

SECTION 31—1917

**G**ERMANY expected to starve England into submission, when she inaugurated her ruthless submarine warfare in February, but the unexpected arrival of the American fleet shattered her hopes. Within three months after the American destroyer appeared, the losses from U-boat attacks had diminished 50 per cent, and half the German submarines operating in the North Sea and the Atlantic had been destroyed. Still the U-boats during the year caused appalling losses to shipping.

In all, 7,000,000 tons of Allied and neutral vessels were sunk. Britain lost 1033 vessels, France and Italy a total tonnage of 1,000,000, and America lost 69 vessels.

To offset these losses, the United States Government seized 686,494 tons of German and Austrian ships in her harbors.

An even harder blow to Germany than that which resulted from England's blockade was the embargo order of President Wilson which made it impossible for those neutral nations which had been supplying Germany with foodstuffs and other supplies to replenish their own stores.

On January 29th, British ships laid new mines in the North Sea to cope with the submarine menace, yet in the first week of the new blockade the Germans sunk 60 vessels, mostly British.

### Hospital Ships Torpedoed Without Warning

**E**VEN hospital ships were not spared by the brutal Germans. On March 20th, the *Asturias* was torpedoed without warning, many casualties resulting among the medical staff and the crew. On March 30th, the *Gloucester Castle* was also sunk without warning and 52 of her passengers were drowned.

### Neutral Cargo Ships Sunk

**O**NE of the immediate effects of the establishment of the submarine zone was to tie up in various harbors 100 or more neutral cargo ships of American, Danish, Swedish, Nor-

wegian, and Dutch registry. Thus 80 cargo ships were detained in the harbors of New York and Halifax. Notwithstanding the war zone decree, many merchant ships braved the hazards of the trip across the Atlantic. American exports to Europe in 1917, despite the submarine activities, exceeded those for 1917 by \$60,000,000. It is true, however, that passenger traffic to Europe was practically suspended.

In the week ending February 28th, seven Dutch cargo vessels sailing from England with grain consigned to Holland, were sent to the bottom. Three others were fired upon, but escaped. All these vessels had been guaranteed safe passage by the German admiralty. They were fired upon in broad daylight, though fully marked and unarmed.

### Belgium Relief Ships Attacked

**E**QUALLY indefensible was the sinking, early in April, of three Belgian Relief Ships near the coast of Holland. These were the *Trevior*, the *Haelon*, and the *Felstein*. All three had cargoes of wheat for the starving Belgians and carried written guarantees of safe conduct through the prescribed area from the Imperial German Government. Not content with sinking these vessels of mercy, the German U-boat gunners shelled the passengers who had sought safety in lifeboats, killing many of them.

The German Government, on March 15th, had assured the Belgian Relief Committee that no more Relief Ships should be molested by the U-boats, but before the middle of April, four more relief ships were sent to the bottom. All were torpedoed without warning in broad daylight, and had safe-conduct passes issued by the Vandal Government in Berlin.

### Allied Transports Sunk

**T**RANSPTS were of course legitimate prey for the German U-boats and many of them were sunk during 1917. On January 1st the British transport *Iverina* was sunk



in the Mediterranean, 183 soldiers going down. January 28th, the French transport Admiral Magon was sunk with a loss of 150 lives. April 3th, the French transport Sontag went down with 45 of her passengers. March 19th the British mail steamer Alnwick Castle was torpedoed, 320 miles off the Scilly Islands, and five boatloads of her crew were lost. March 30th, the Gloucester was sunk, with 52 of her crew. May 4th, the British transport Transylvania was sunk with the loss of 413 lives. The French transport Media was sunk in September, with a loss of 250 lives. December 30th, the British transport Aragon went down off the coast of Holland with 809 soldiers and sailors.

### **American Ships Attacked**

WITHOUT a single exception, every American ship in Admiral Sims' fleet was attacked by submarines, but only two were hit by torpedoes—the Jacob Jones, which was sunk, and the Cassin, which was damaged. This immunity from torpedoes was ascribed to "the alertness of the American naval men and their keenness in defensive tactics."

In June, the American armed merchant liner, Mongolian, carrying 60 Red Cross nurses and 200 surgeons to France, was attacked by a submarine when 200 miles off Falmouth, England. Three shots failed to hit her. The Mongolian promptly gave battle to the U-boat, but the sudden arrival on the scene of a British torpedo boat caused the German submarine to vamoose.

On October 17th, the American transport Antilles, homeward bound under convoy, was torpedoed and sunk in the war zone. Seventy of her 237 passengers were sent to the bottom.

With the sinking of 69 American merchant vessels, 300 lives were lost.

### **Warships Destroyed or Damaged**

ON May 15th, a squadron of Austrian cruisers and destroyers attempted to break through the British cordon in the Straits of Otranto. They sank 11 British and 3 Italian patrol boats before the main Allied squadron hove in sight. In the running fight that ensued, while the Austrians were scurrying back to their base at Cattaro, the British

cruiser Dartmouth was damaged and one Austrian cruiser was set afire.

The German raider, Seeadler, foundered off one of the Society Islands in the Pacific in October. The crew subsequently seized a French schooner, and resumed their raiding.

The British cruiser Drake sank, October 2d, off the coast of Ireland, with a loss of 19 men.

On October 15th German naval forces were landed on three islands in the Gulf of Riga. A Russian fleet gave them battle, but in the engagement lost one battleship.

On November 1st, a British patrol sank 11 small German vessels in the Cattegat.

December 9th, Italian ships entered the harbor of Trieste and sank the Austrian battleship Wien.

### **Cold-Blooded Slaughter**

ON July 31st, the British steamship Belgian Prince was torpedoed in the Atlantic. Thirty of the crew were mustered on the deck of the German submarine and their lifebelts removed. Then the dastard Germans submerged their boat and the British sailors left on the deck were swept into the sea. Only four of the crew, who had managed to secrete their life-belts under their coats, survived the cold-blooded slaughter.

### **Ostend and Zeebrugge Bombarded**

ON June 5th, British warships bombarded the German submarine bases at Zeebrugge and Ostend, Belgium, with "good results." Subsequently, the British ships in a running battle with six German destroyers, off the Belgian coast, sank one by gunfire, damaged another and dispersed the remainder.

On May 18th a number of Japanese gunboats arrived at Marseilles, France, to act as convoys to French merchantmen and aid in suppressing the German U-boats.

On December 12th, German destroyers attacked a convoy of merchantmen in the North Sea, sinking six of them, after disposing of a British destroyer and four armed trawlers.

On December 30th, the British transport Aragon and a destroyer coming to her assistance were torpedoed and sunk with a loss of 450 lives.



WESTERN THEATER. MAR. — OCT.

## Zeppelin and Airplane Raids on London and the Coast

Count Zeppelin, Inventor of the Dreaded Dirigible, Dies of Disappointment

SECTION 32 — 1917

**G**ERMAN air-raids on London and the east coast of Britain were renewed during 1917, causing much loss of life. The Zeppelins, on the whole, proved a failure, and the Germans placed their chief reliance on their airplanes. But comparatively few of these machines were able to get through the English sky-barrage and bomb London. Many of the German machines were brought down by British anti-aircraft guns. Count Zeppelin, the inventor of the airship bearing his name, died on March 8th, largely of disappointment because of the failure of his dirigible balloons.

The first air-raid on London in 1917 occurred on the night of March 17th, but no casualties were recorded. On May 25th, a squadron of 16 airplanes raided the east coast in broad daylight, killing 76 persons and injuring 174, of whom 85 were women and children.

The most murderous raid on London occurred on June 14th, when a squadron of German planes dropped bombs containing acid fluids in the East End, where live the poorer classes. Nearly 100 were killed and 437 injured, including 60 children in a school-house. The victims were terribly burned by the acids.

On July 7th, 20 airplanes bombed London in daylight, killing 37 and injuring 141 persons. Three of the airplanes were brought down at sea on their return trip.

On August 12th an airplane raid on London killed 32 persons; August 21st, the East Coast was again raided and 11 persons were killed at Dover and Ramsgate. In this raid a hospital was damaged.

Two air attacks were made on September 4th. At the Chatham naval station 108 persons were killed and 92 wounded, all sailors and non-commissioned officers.

Four groups of hostile airplanes attempted to reach London on October 1st, but only two succeeded in penetrating the British sky barrage. Many bombs were dropped on the villages over which the machines flew, but no casualties were reported.

Again on November 1st, 30 German airplanes planned an early morning raid on London, but only three succeeded in reaching the heart of the city. Eight persons were killed and 21 others injured.

Retaliatory raids on German cities and aviation stations were made by British and French airmen, those on the Essen works bringing "good results", to quote the British reports.

WESTERN THEATER. NOV.

## Important Political Events in Germany and France During 1917

Kaiser Grants Equal Suffrage to Prussia—Chancellor Bethmann-Hollweg Resigns  
Overthrow of Three French Ministries—Clemenceau Becomes Premier of France

SECTION 33 — 1917

**T**HE year 1917 was marked by political tumults and the consequent downfall of political leaders in the belligerent countries. In July, a political crisis arose in Germany, when Erzberger, the leader of the Catholic party, attacked the Government for its failure to win the War. Hoping to pacify the masses, Kaiser Wilhelm issued a decree granting immediate and equal suffrage to Prussia. This sop did not satisfy the people,

and through Erzberger they demanded a statement of the Imperial war aims. On July 19th, the Reichstag adopted a declaration endorsing a peace of conciliation "without annexation or indemnity." Fortunately for the German military party, Russia's sudden collapse enabled the Junkers to promise a speedy German victory, and for a time to stifle the protests of the German people. In the midst of this tumult, Chancellor Beth-



mann-Hollweg resigned and was succeeded by Dr. George Michaelis. Dr. Kuhlmann became Foreign Secretary. They at once put forth hypocritical "peace feelers", but dropped the mask after the Italian disaster at Caporetta.

### Clemenceau Becomes Premier of France

IN France, too, there was dissatisfaction over the conduct of the War. On March 17th, Premier Briand, whose flirtations with the Greek King had brought him into disfavor, resigned and was succeeded by Ribot, an old man who at once became involved in a quarrel with the Socialists. Ribot resigned September 14th and Paul Painleve became premier. Painleve proved too weak to cope with the situation and he in turn gave way on November 16th to Georges Clemenceau, who so admirably guided the Ship of State until the close of the War.

Clemenceau was in his 76th year when called upon to direct the destinies of France as War Premier. Once before he had occupied the same exalted position of power, but after a tempestuous three years' reign his Ministry had been overthrown in 1909. During the intervening years he had been a Senator of France and a journalist. When the war broke out Clemenceau was a member of the Viviani Ministry. Through his journal, *L'Homme Libre*, he "became the critic of every man and the destroyer of every Cabinet that failed to attain what he

thought best for France." The scourge of fools and knaves, he earned among the French masses the soubriquet of "Tiger." His paper was first censored, then suspended. Resuming its publication under a new name, he attacked in succession each new Ministry that was formed, criticizing the sanitary service, protesting against the influence of shirkers, opposing the Dardanelles and Salonika expeditions, and attacking also the Commander-in-Chief and the General Staff after Verdun as "powers of unpreparedness." When Clemenceau assumed the office of Premier, President Poincare said to him: "You have broken down Ministries. Now make the Ministry you have called into existence so great that the walls will shake." When asked to define his war aims, he answered: "I have only one aim—to win the war!" How much he contributed to winning the war, the whole world has had ample proof. Perhaps his greatest contribution to the Allied cause was his selection of Gen. Ferdinand Foch as generalissimo of all the Allied armies, at a time when the politicians of France had contrived to demote that greatest of all strategists.

On July 6th, the Canadian Parliament passed a Conscription Bill, which was confirmed on December 17th. The Province of Quebec refused, however, to consent to conscription and much ill feeling was engendered thereby. The Australian people also voted against conscription.



# FIFTH YEAR OF THE WAR 1918

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### WESTERN THEATER

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## CHRISTIANITY TRIUMPHS OVER PAGANISM

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Germany Surrenders Her Navy, but the Ships Are Afterward Sunk  
German Armed Forces, After the Armistice, Attempt to Seize the Baltic States

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### Survey of Events During 1918

**B**EHOLD, in 1918, the predicted fall of Babylon, foreseen 3000 years ago by the holy prophets of Israel! Behold the inevitable victory of the Soldiers of the Cross over the leagued forces of infidelity! Behold the triumph of Christianity over Paganism, of the Cross over the Crescent! Behold the tyrannous Empires of Germany, Austria, Russia and China passing quickly into oblivion! Behold the downfall of despotism, the liberation of enslaved peoples, the exaltation of our common humanity! Behold the onward march of Democracy, the rebirth of Freedom throughout the Earth! And lest the picture be



overfilled with promise, behold also the forces of Antichrist oversweeping Russia and the Near East, preparing for that dread day of the Lord—Armageddon!

The horizons of Christendom, at the dawn of the year 1918, were packed with dismal portents. Soviet Russia having surrendered to Germany and accepted an ignoble peace, the Teutonic Allies were enabled to transfer the greater part of their armies from the Eastern Theater and marshall them on the Western battlefront for a final overwhelming drive against the Allied line in France and Belgium.

In its initial phases, the German offensive proved irresistible. The armies of France, wearied and decimated, were pushed back across the Marne, while the British line was broken and all but destroyed.

At the critical moment, when France was in despair and England all but beaten, the American Saviours appeared. Planting themselves solidly in the path of the German invasion, the American Marines and Doughboys halted the German drive at the very gates of Paris, and pushed the enemy back across the Marne.

Thwarted in this direction, the German battering ram was moved farther north, aiming a blow at the point where the British and French lines joined. Again the line was breached, but when the enemy attempted to pour through the gap, they were stopped by a resolute band of Yankee engineers, who had dropped their instruments for the moment and become soldiers. For six days this heroic company of engineers held the line intact until reinforcements arrived.

Thenceforward the American soldiers were in the van of every advance. It was American troops chiefly that expelled the Huns from the Marne salient and started them on their memorable retreat toward the Rhine.

It was two American divisions of shock troops, brigaded with a British Army, that smashed the great Hindenberg line at St. Quentin Tunnel and opened the way for the subsequent pursuit of the Huns by the Allied forces.

It was an American Army that, in 36 hours, wiped out the dangerous St. Mihiel salient, a feat which the French had striven in vain to accomplish during four long years.

It was an American Army that finally drove the flower of the German Army from their last stronghold in the Argonne Forest, and by closing this avenue of retreat into Germany, compelled the hasty surrender of all the German forces.

What England and France together had been unable to accomplish after four years of incessant warfare, and at a terrible cost in life, the American Army performed in as many months.

The American Navy, meanwhile had triumphed on the seas. To our invincible Navy, in alliance with American inventive genius, is due the chief credit for the destruction of the German submarine peril.

Previous to the arrival of our Fleet off the coast of England in 1917, the German submarines had been destroying the ships of the Allied and neutral nations much faster than the world's shipyards could possibly replace them.

England, though possessing the most powerful navy afloat, had been impotent to cope with the submarine peril. The British admiralty confessed to Admiral Sims that England could not hold out three months longer, if the ship losses continued at the prevailing rate.

Behold, then, a miracle of American naval efficiency! Immediately after the arrival of the American Navy, the German submarine peril began to subside! So persistent was the American pursuit of the U-boats, and so efficient were the devices of American inventors for the location of the piratical craft, that within three months the seas were rid of fully half the German submarines, and the losses had been reduced 75 per cent! Coincidentally, the American shipyards were producing vessels overnight in such numbers as to amaze the shipmasters of the world.

In other theaters of war, during 1918, the Allies were uniformly successful. Italy, recuperating from the disaster at Caporetta, had demolished the military power of Austro-Hungary, taking 300,000 prisoners in a single whirlwind campaign and recovering all her lost territory.

The Turkish armies had been similarly destroyed by the British, who had made themselves masters of all Syria, Arabia, Persia and Egypt.

The collapse of the Empires of Germany and Austria were followed by the flight of the Emperors, William and Karl, and the establishment of pseudo democratic governments under Socialist control.

Many new republics were set up on the ruins of the Russian, Austrian and Turkish Empires.

The Bolsheviki, now in control of European Russia, soon became involved in war with the Siberian republics, Poland, Ukrainia and the new Baltic States, the battle lines extending 7000 miles through the Czar's former domain.

Following the Armistice, which was declared on November 11, 1918, the terms of peace were reluctantly accepted by all the Teutonic Allies, Germany,



Austro-Hungary, Turkey and Bulgaria. Germany's humiliation was complete when, by the terms of peace, she surrendered her powerful Navy to the Allies. The German vessels were subsequently sunk.

The deliberations of the Peace Congress sitting at Paris, the steps taken in the formation of a League of Nations and the rejection of the League Covenant by the American Congress round out the survey of events in the year 1918. The history in detail of this epochal year in the world's history is given in the following pages.

EASTERN THEATER, JAN.—MAR.

## Germany Imposes an Ignoble "Peace" on Soviet Russia

President Wilson Lays Down the "14 Points" on which Durable Peace Might be Based  
Germany and Austria Reject the President's Plan—Great Britain States Her War Aims

SECTION 2—1918

**I**N the opening days of 1918, while the Russian Bolsheviks were visioning a "democratic peace," the scheming diplomats of Germany were plotting to partition Russia anew and seize upon her fairest provinces.

The peace parleys between Soviet Russia and Germany were resumed on January 4th. The Bolshevik delegates proposed to withdraw the Russian troops from Austria-Hungary, Turkey and Persia if the Germans would withdraw theirs from Poland, Lithuania and Courland. This proposal was in accordance with the Bolshevik declaration of the right of all the diverse races living in Russia to self-determination, including separation. These races were to be given opportunity to decide whether they would set up independent governments or unite with Russia, Germany or Austria.

Previously, Germany had submitted the test of a preliminary peace treaty to the Bolsheviks. The dodger in this treaty lay in Article II, which assumed that Russia had taken cognizance of the "decisions expressing the will of the people" of Poland, Lithuania, Courland, and parts of Esthonia and Livonia, demanding a full state of independence and separation from the Russian Empire.

To this proposal the Russians demurred; it savored too much of a German plot to control the elections in those provinces, separate them from Russia and annex them to Ger-

many. A reply to the German proposal was sent to this effect: "Our standpoint is that only such manifestation of will can be regarded as a de facto expression of the will of the people as results from a free vote taken in the districts in question with the complete absence of foreign troops. We, therefore, propose and must insist thereon, that a clearer and more precise formulation of this point be made. We consent, however, to the appointment of a special commission for the examination of technical conditions for the realization of such referendums and also for the fixing of a definite time for evacuation."

On January 4th, Germany announced that the failure of the Allies to notice the invitation to take part in the negotiations at Brest-Litovsk relieved the Central Powers from all obligations and left them free to conclude a separate peace with Russia, and furthermore that Germany was no longer bound by the general peace proposals submitted to the Russians.

The Bolsheviks, meantime, had sought in vain to transfer the seat of the peace conference to Stockholm, but hearing that the German delegates were already sitting at Brest-Litovsk they went there on January 5th.

### British War Aims Disclosed

LLOYD GEORGE, addressing the English trade unions on January 5th, made a clear statement of the British war aims and on



what terms the British would consent to peace. He declared that Britain was not fighting a war of aggression; was not seeking the destruction of Germany or Austria; did not seek to despoil Turkey of Constantinople or of the Turkish possessions in Asia Minor and Thrace. Instead, Britain was fighting for the complete restoration of Belgium, with full indemnity for the devastation of her towns and provinces; for the restoration of Serbia, Montenegro and the occupied parts of France, Italy and Roumania; for an independent Poland; for a restoration of Alsace-Lorraine to France; for self-government among the several Austro-Hungarian nationalities; for the restoration of the seized Italian provinces; for justice to Roumania, "in her legitimate aspirations."

He proposed that Constantinople should remain the capital of Turkey; that the Dardanelles and Bosphorus should be neutralized and internationalized; Arabia, Armenia, Mesopotamia, Syria and Palestine recognized as separate nations, and the German Colonies in Africa and Asia be held at the disposal of a conference whose decision must respect the wishes and interests of the inhabitants of each colony. Reparation must be made for injuries done in violation of international law; especially as regarded British seamen who had lost their lives through submarine warfare; the sanctity of treaties must be re-established; and a tribunal set up to limit the armament of all nations and lessen the chance of war.

Analyzing the speech of Count Czernin to the Bolsheviks, Lloyd George showed that under its terms, almost any scheme of conquest and annexation could be perpetrated by Germany; that reparation for wanton damage inflicted on Belgian towns and their inhabitants was wholly repudiated; that the question of self-government for the Arabs, Armenians and Syrians was declared to be entirely a matter for the Sublime Porte to settle; and that Germany refused to depart from her demand for the restoration of her African colonies. In fact, Germany's so-called "offer" consisted chiefly of a refusal of all concessions.

### President Wilson's Program of World's Peace

ON January 8, 1918, President Woodrow Wilson electrified the world by his proposal to Congress of a program of the world's peace, embodying 14 principles or points, as follows:

1. Open covenants of peace, openly arrived at, after which there shall be no private international understandings of any kind, but diplomacy shall proceed always frankly and in the public view.
2. Absolute freedom of the seas.
3. The removal of all economic barriers and equality of trade conditions among nations.
4. Reduction of national armaments to the lowest point consistent with domestic safety.
5. Impartial adjustment of all colonial claims.
6. Evacuation of all Russian territory, and co-operation of the other nations in enabling the Russian people to determine their political development and national policy, assuring Russia of a welcome into the society of free nations under institutions of her own choosing.
7. Evacuation and restoration of Belgium without limitation of her sovereignty.
8. Restoration of the invaded portions of France, and the righting of the wrong done to France by the seizure of Alsace-Lorraine in 1871.
9. Readjustment of the frontiers of Italy along clearly recognizable lines of nationality.
10. Assuring the freest opportunity of autonomous development to the peoples of Austria-Hungary.
11. Restoration of Roumania, Serbia and Montenegro; free access to the sea accorded to Serbia; international guarantees of the independence and integrity of the several Balkan states.
12. Turkish portions of present Ottoman Empire assured a secure sovereignty; nationalities under Turkish rule given security of life and unmolested opportunity of autonomous development; Dardanelles permanently opened as a free passage to the ships and commerce of all nations under international guarantees.
13. Erection of an independent Polish state, which should include the indisputable Polish territories, having access to the sea, and guaranteed by international covenant.
14. A general association of nations, formed under specific covenants, to guarantee political independence and territorial integrity to great and small states alike.

### German Chancellor Rejects Wilson's Program

PRESIDENT WILSON'S equitable program for the re-establishment of peace with justice did not suit the covetous Germans who were intent upon the "prizes of war." On January 24th, Count Hertling, the German Chancellor, answered both Lloyd George and President Wilson. Germany could, he said, ac-



cept the first four points of President Wilson's program.

As for the fifth point, assuring the impartial adjustment of colonial claims, it was sure to "encounter some difficulties in any case," and "for the present, it may be left for England, which has the greatest colonial empire, to make what she will of this proposal of her ally."

Concerning point six, which demanded the evacuation of Russian territory, the Germans held that this was a matter to be settled only between Russia and the Germanic Allies. Furthermore, since the Entente Allies had refused to negotiate with Russia and Germany in this matter, he must, in the name of Germany, decline to allow any subsequent interference.

The restoration of Belgium, he contended, "belongs to those questions the details of which are to be settled by negotiations at the peace conference." So long as the Allies held that the integrity of their territory could "offer the only basis of a peace discussion," he must "refuse the removal, in advance, of the Belgium affair from the entire discussion."

As for evacuating France and restoring Alsace-Lorraine, the former proposal was one to be settled between Germany and France, while the latter was out of the question. Never would Alsace-Lorraine be given up.

Germany proposed to refer the acceptance of points 9, 10 and 11, dealing with the Italian frontier, and the restoration of Roumania, Serbia and Montenegro, to her ally Austria.

All matters concerning "our brave, loyal ally, Turkey," especially those embodied in point 12, must be the exclusive affair of Turkish statecraft.

Poland, which was to be liberated under the provision of point 13, already had been freed "from the Czaristic region by the German Empire and the Austro-Hungarian Empire. Therefore, it was Germany, Austria and Poland that must settle the future of that country."

The proposal of a League of Nations, in point 14, drew from the German Chancellor his most haughty rejoinder. If, on close examination, the League proposal proved to be

conceived in the spirit of justice and impartiality to all, "then the German Imperial Government is gladly ready, when all other pending questions have been settled, to begin the examination of the basis of such a bond of nations."

### **Austria Declines the American Peace Plan**

COUNT CZERNIN, the Austrian Chancellor, declared that President Wilson's offer could not be accepted in all its details. The proposal to dispense with secret diplomacy he considered impractical. Points 2, 3 and 4 he approved, and point 5 he ignored. Concerning point 6, he averred that Austria had no designs on Russian territory. So far as point 7 affected Austria's allies, whether in the case of German possessions, or those of Belgium and Turkey, Austria "will go to the extreme in defense of her allies. She will defend the pre-war possessions of her allies as she would her own."

Ignoring the eighth point, he dwelt upon the ninth point rather vaguely, declaring that Italy had neglected an opportunity of realizing a great territorial expansion without firing a shot, but by joining in the War she had sacrificed all those advantages which she would have been able to gain.

Point 10, conceding the people of Austria-Hungary the freest opportunity for autonomous development, and point 11, assuring the restoration of Roumania, Serbia and Montenegro, were rejected.

As to point 12, Austria would be in agreement with Germany on any disposition of the Turkish question. Point 13, he regarded as settled, since "Austria also supported the creation of an independent Polish state." Finally, the basic idea of a League of Nations "would very probably meet with no opposition in this monarchy."

### **President Wilson's Rejoinder**

IN his eloquent rejoinder to the notes of the German and Austrian diplomats, on February 11th, President Wilson solemnly reminded them that they were speaking in the "court of mankind," and that all the awakened nations of the world now sit in judgment on all their words and deeds.

The Reichstag resolutions of July themselves frankly accepted the decisions of the



court. There shall be no annexations, no contributions, no punitive damages. Peoples are not to be handed from one sovereignty to another by an international conference or an understanding between rivals and antagonists. National aspirations must be respected; peoples may now be dominated and governed only by their own consent.

"Self-determination" is not a mere phrase. It is an imperative principle of action, which statesmen will henceforth ignore at their peril. All the parties to this War must join in the settlement of every issue anywhere involved in it, because what we are seeking is a peace that we can all unite to guarantee and maintain; and every item of it must be submitted to the common judgment, whether it be right and fair, and act of justice, rather than a bargain between sovereigns.

The United States entered this War because she was made a partner in the sufferings and indignities inflicted by the military masters of Germany against the peace and security of mankind. She cannot see her way to peace until the causes of this War are removed, its renewal rendered, as nearly as may be, impossible.

This War had its roots in the disregard of the rights of small nations and of nationalities which lacked the union and the force to make good their claim to determine their own allegiances and their own forms of political life. Covenants must now be entered into which will render such things impossible for the future; and those covenants must be backed by the united force of all the nations that love justice and are willing to maintain it at any cost.

The principles to be applied are these: Each part of the final settlement must be based upon the essential justice of that particular case. Peoples and provinces are not to be bartered about from sovereignty to sovereignty as if they were mere chattels and pawns in a game, now forever discredited, of the balance of power.

Every territorial settlement involved in this War must be made in the interest and for the benefit of the populations concerned, and not as a part of any mere adjustment or compromise of claims among rival states. All well-defined national aspirations shall be

accorded the utmost satisfaction that can be accorded them without introducing new or perpetrating old elements of discord and antagonism that would be likely in time to break the peace of Europe, and consequently the world.

### **Bolshevists Break Off Negotiations**

MEANWHILE, on January 28th, Bolshevik delegates to the peace conference at Brest-Litovsk had returned home to lay before the Congress of Soldiers' and Workingmen's delegates the peace terms proposed to them by Germany. On January 30, 1918, the conference was resumed and continued until February 10th, when the Russian delegates broke off negotiations with Germany, refusing to sign a treaty of peace, and formally withdrawing Russia from the War. In a wireless announcement flashed to the whole world Trotzky declared peace negotiations were at an end. "The German capitalists, bankers and landlords, supported by the silent co-operation of the English and French bourgeoisie, submitted to our peace delegates conditions such as could not be subscribed to by the Russian Revolution. The Governments of Germany and Austria possess countries and peoples vanquished by force of arms. To this authority the Russian people, workmen and peasants, could not give its acquiescence. We could not sign a peace which would bring with it sadness, oppression and suffering to millions of workmen and peasants. But we also cannot, will not and must not continue a war begun by czars and capitalists in compliance with czars and capitalists. We will not and we must not continue to be at war with the Germans and Austrians, workmen and peasants like ourselves. We are not signing a peace of landlords and capitalists. Let the German and Austrian soldiers know who are placing them in the field of battle, and let them know for what they are struggling. Let them also know that we refuse to fight against them."

Simultaneously the Russian troops received an order for complete demobilization on all fronts.

On February 25th, Chancellor von Hertling pretended an acceptance of the general principles enunciated by President Wilson in



his speech of February 11th, adding that these principles must be proposed by President Wilson alone; they must be definitely recognized by all states and nations.

### **Germans Invade Russia**

THE breaking off of the peace negotiations by the Bolshevik delegates on February 10th was the signal for a resumption of hostilities against Russia by Germany. Ostensibly the German armies acted in response to a call for help against the Bolsheviks from the "Ukrainian People's Republic," which had been proclaimed on November 20, 1917, had sent delegates to the Brest-Litovsk Conference in January, and had signed a separate peace with Germany on February 9th. But the Germans, while marching to the relief of the Ukrainians, also resumed the offensive in the North, where an advance was made against the great fortress of Dvinsk.

### **Bolsheviks Accept German Peace Terms**

THIS new invasion compelled the Bolsheviks to capitulate. On February 19, 1918, a wireless proclamation was sent out by Trotzky and Lenine denouncing the invasion but declaring that, in the circumstances, the Council of People's Commissaries was forced to accept the terms of peace which Germany had dictated to Russia at the Brest-Litovsk Conference.

Gen. Hoffman, in his reply, demanded that the acceptance of Germany's peace terms be reduced to writing and sent to the German Commander at Dvinsk.

Trotzky and Lenine, without delay, signed the formal acceptance of the peace terms and sent it post haste to Dvinsk.

But the unscrupulous Germans had no intention of abiding by their peace terms. The German armies continued their advance, occupied the Province of Esthonia, took the fortresses of Lutsk, Minsk and Rovno, and on February 23d, dictated new and even more drastic peace terms to Russia, allowing only two days for their acceptance, three days for

the signing and two weeks for the ratification.

The Bolshevik leaders, without protest, accepted the new treaty, which they signed on March 3d, and then only was the German advance halted when within 70 miles of Petrograd.

The German armies were then in control of Finland, Esthonia, Livonia, Courland, Lithuania, Poland, Ukraina and Russian Armenia.

### **America Expresses Her Sympathy**

ON March 14, 1918, the Pan-Soviet Congress, assembled at Moscow, accepted the humiliating terms imposed upon Russia. President Wilson wired a message of sympathy to the Soviet Congress, assuring the Russians that, though the Government of the United States unhappily was not in a position to render "the direct and effective aid it would wish to render," it would avail itself of every opportunity to secure for Russia once more "complete sovereignty and independence in her own affairs and full restoration to her great role in the life of Europe and the modern world."

Samuel Gompers, President of the American Federation of Labor, also cabled the All-Russian Soviet, assuring them that every blow struck at Russian freedom was felt as keenly by the working people of the United States as if it were struck at their own; that the American nation ardently desired to assist Russia in her present distress and eagerly awaited to be told how its help could be most effectual.

### **Roumania Forced to Accept Peace Terms**

GERMANY, on March 6th, coerced the Government of Roumania into signing a preliminary treaty of peace, which provided for the cession of Dobrudja as far as the Danube, changed the Roumanian frontier, required the partial demobilization of the Army, and the evacuation of all Austro-Hungarian territory.



EASTERN THEATER, JAN. 18—19

## Bolsheviki by Force Expel the Russian Constituent Assembly

Red Guards in the Galleries Overawe the Unarmed Deputies,  
Adjournment Compelled—Massacre of the Populace

SECTION 3—1918

THE death knell of Constitutional Liberty in Russia was sounded on the night of January 18, 1918, when the Constituent Assembly at Petrograd was dissolved at the point of the bayonet by an armed body of Bolshevik assassins, who expelled the majority delegates from the convention hall and set up a "dictatorship of the proletariat." Thus was inaugurated in Christian Russia the reign of Anarch—the tyrannous rule of the Bolsheviki.

Unlike the blameless dispersion of the British Parliament by Cromwell's cohorts, this Bolshevik coup de force had for its object rather the destruction than the safeguarding of popular liberty. In any event, the illegal dispersion of the Russian Constituent Assembly, which represented the will of an enfranchised people, proved to be the debacle of democracy in Russia.

### Arrival of the Delegates

WHEN the delegates to the Constituent Assembly arrived in Petrograd on that eventful day, they had formed in columns and from different parts of the capital marched forth to range themselves in front of the Tauride Palace where the convention was called. Preceded by bands, and with Freedom's banners waving above their heads, these happy Russians gave themselves up to rejoicing. Thousands of workmen, students, minor functionaries, unarmed soldiers, countless women, young girls, even children, appeared in these Liberty processions. Not a rifle or a sabre or a revolver was to be seen in any hand.

### Massacre of the Russian Populace

LURKING in the background, and fully armed, were the criminal cohorts of the Bolsheviki, who were determined that the will of enfranchised Russia should not prevail. In that murderous band there were apostate Jews from America and Poland, atheistical Letts and Lithuanians, pagan Tartar and

Chinese mercenaries, besides many desperadoes newly released from the prisons of Russia.

As the joyous bands of Russians advanced toward the Tauride Palace, singing their patriotic hymns, they were suddenly assailed with fusillades of bullets. Machine guns, mounted on adjacent roofs, sent spattering death into the ranks of the paraders, while Bolshevik Red Guards, deploying into the main streets, fired volley upon volley at close range into the disarmed crowds of citizens.

Thousands fell in that massacre of the Russian innocents. Yet through that hail of death, with fatalistic indifference, many stoical Russians marched orderly, keeping their ranks intact until the entire procession withered away to nothingness.

Thus did the anti-Christian Bolsheviki, led by apostate Jews, with the aid of ruffianly Chinese, Tartars, Letts and the scum drawn from the emptied prisons, attempt to murder Russian freedom at its birth.

### Delegates Imprisoned and Impeded

THE massacre at Petrograd was the sequel to the failure of the Bolsheviki to win the indorsement of the Russian people at the polls. The peasants of Russia and the delegates chosen to the Constituent Assembly were overwhelmingly opposed to Bolshevism. Unable to control the Assembly by constitutional methods, the Bolshevik minority were determined to dominate or wreck it by finesse and force. Control of the Russian railroads enabled them to prevent the transportation of many of the anti-Bolshevist delegates chosen at distant points. It is estimated that fully half the delegates were thus denied passage by train to Petrograd and their constituencies consequently were unrepresented.

The Social Democrats, a party of moderate Socialists who held the Bolshevists in abhorrence, were also treated roughly, many



of their delegates being seized by the Red Guards and thrust into prison, there to remain until after the Constituent Assembly had adjourned.

These miserable expedients, however, failed to prevent the arrival in Petrograd of a considerable number of loyal delegates who could outvote those chosen by the Bolshevik minority.

### **Assembly Coerced by Bayonet**

WHEN the Assembly convened, in the Tauride Palace, at 4 P. M., the Bolsheviks were in an ugly mood, giving vent to savage clamor and demoniac outcries. The Constitutional Democrats, on the contrary, were grave and silent.

A moderate Socialist, one Schnetzer, advanced to the President's chair and rang the bell to call the Assembly to order. The Reds raged and hissed to drown the sound of the bell.

Suddenly a Bolshevik delegate, one Sverdlov, leaped forward and tore the bronze bell from the hands of old Schnetzer, whose troubled eyes filled with tears. At the same time, the Reds in the gallery arose and aimed their guns at the moderate delegates in the center of the hall, while other Reds with bombs in hand threatened the majority delegates.

Confronted by the circle of bayonets and bombs, the majority of the Assembly could only protest in silence at this demonstration of force.

Still the forms of parliamentary procedure were used in the election of a permanent President, and Tchernov, the candidate of the moderate Socialists, was chosen over Mme. Spiridonova, the choice of the Reds, by a vote of 244 to 151. When the result of the ballot was announced, the galleries snarled and the Red Guards in the hall fingered their guns nervously.

### **Reds Show Their Teeth**

PRESIDENT TCHERNOV, in a voice of thunder, announced the program of the majority delegates. He admonished the covetous Reds by recalling to their minds how German imperialism had unmasked all its aggressive greed.

Asked whether he recognized the supremacy of the local Soviets over the Constituent Assembly, which was elected by popular vote, Tchernov replied that, until very recently, the Soviets themselves had taken for their principal article of faith the necessity of endowing a Constituent Assembly with national sovereignty as soon as possible, and that when this had been done the present Assembly, elected by the majority of the people, need fear no injury.

The Bolshevik deputies shook their fists at Tchernov and at the base of the Tribune the armed guard moved about in a disquieting manner.

Angered by the villification directed at him by the Bolsheviks, President Tchernov declared that he might be obliged to compel the respect due the assembly by expelling all those who disturbed its deliberations.

"Try it, then," retorted Krylenko, the "generalissimo" of the Red Army.

Frenzied applause greeted the sally of this Bolshevik bravo. The frenzy was increased every moment by the speeches of the Bolshevik deputies, who made up in vice and belligerency what they lacked in numbers.

Proclaiming the necessity of civil war as a sovereign remedy for all the ills from which the people were suffering, these atheist plotters in Christian Russia hurled their maledictions against their compatriots, while their murderous Allies, the Red Guards, in the neighboring streets, were killing unarmed workingmen by hundreds.

### **How Tseretelli Silenced the Reds**

WHILE these demons were venting their fury in the convention hall, a patriot arose who had spent many years in prison for having tried to defend the cause of proletariat. It was Tseretelli, the noblest figure and one of the principal authors of the first revolution. Casting a look of sorrow and pity upon that sea of faces in delirium, whose rage was implacably bent on destroying the work created through many sufferings, Tseretelli begged the assembly to return to reason, not to ruin by madness the common work for which so much blood has been shed.

Denouncing the policy of the Bolsheviks, he showed that their opposition, their in-

tolerance, their tyranny were inspired only by their fear of criticism and by their lack of confidence in the righteousness of their cause. Finally he hurled at them his gravest accusation when he boldly declared that "The greatest enemy of the Russian Revolution was German imperialism."

### Suspension of the Session

THE Bolshevik traitors, with German gold jingling in their pockets, made no reply to Tseretelli. Instead, they forced a suspension of the session and retired to consult in an ante-room reserved for their faction. Nor did they return to the convention hall where the session was resumed. Plainly they intended to win by force what they could not win by argument. But their armed cohorts still occupied the galleries, prepared to point their guns at the delegates on the floor below.

This desperate band jeered, howled and threatened when, some moments later, Delegate Skobelev put through a vote for an investigation of the massacres perpetrated by the Red Guards a few hours before.

Soon there appeared in the tribune an emissary from the Bolshevik leaders, one Roskoilukov. He declared that the Bolshevik party could not tolerate the supremacy of the Constituent Assembly. It was for the local Soviets, he said, to rule Russia. He denounced the Constituent Assembly as counter-revolutionary and threatened Soviet reprisals.

Steinberg, another Bolshevik, also reproached the majority with having ignored the German-controlled Soviets. He demanded, in the name of Lenine and Trotzky, that the Constituent Assembly approve without reserve the policy of negotiating a sep-

arate peace with Germany. The loyal delegates at first maintained a solemn silence, but under duress of the armed ruffians in the galleries the majority at last yielded to the minority amid the bellowings of the Bolsheviks.

Having gained their point and done the bidding of their German masters, the Bolsheviks interrupted President Tchernov in the midst of his speech and demanded that the session be adjourned, "as the Red Guards in the gallery are tired."

In vain Tchernov objected that the deputies must continue the work which the nation had intrusted to them.

The Red Guards in the gallery, at a signal from the Jewish leaders, aimed their rifles at the delegates below and shouted that they would let loose a storm of bullets unless the assembly quickly dispersed. Under this coercion the delegates to the Russian Constituent Assembly were driven from the convention hall, after a session of 17 hours.

The Bolshevik Soldiers and Sailors, outside the hall, formed a lane through which they forced the representatives of Russia to march amidst terrible threats and imprecations.

Thus did a band of alien and apostate Jews, mostly from America, with German gold jingling in their pockets, dissolve the Constituent Assembly elected by the universal suffrage of the Christian Russian people.

Liberty in Russia perished on that day and in its place was erected the reign of Antichrist, with "dictatorship of the proletariat" as its motto. German Socialism had won, by treachery and guile, in 17 hours what it had failed to accomplish after four years of warfare.



EASTERN THEATER, JAN. — JULY

## Finland and Germany at War with Allies on Murman Coast

Reign of Terror in Finland Inaugurated by Red Guards and White Guards

SECTION 4 — 1918

### Allied Forces

Gen. Poole, British Forces  
Gen. Gurko, Murman Forces

American Contingents

### German-Finnish Forces, 40,000

White Guards, Gen. Mannerheim  
Germans, Gen. von der Goltz  
Germans, Gen. Sasnitz  
Red Guards, Gen. Kullervo Manner

**G**ERMANY, while nursing her unholy ambition to acquire dismembered Russia by piecemeal, also cast covetous eyes on the Grand Duchy of Finland, bordering on the Baltic Sea, whose 3,000,000 inhabitants for centuries had groaned, first under the Swedish, then under the Russian yoke, ever since their conversion from paganism in the 12th century.

Czar Alexander I in 1809, had granted the Finns a Constitution, which was confirmed in 1863 by Czar Alexander II and suspended by Czar Nicholas II in 1899. The old constitution was restored in 1907 when Finland adopted universal suffrage, and the whole country was included for military purposes only in the Petrograd military district of Russia.

One of the first acts of the Russian Revolution in 1917 was to put in force the Constitution of the old Grand Duchy granted to the Finns in 1863. The Grand Duchy was proclaimed on March 21, 1917, to be a free and independent state in a Russian federation, authority being vested in the Emperor of Russia, who was also Grand Duke of Finland.

The Finnish Diet, or Parliament, on July 19, 1917, passed a bill giving Finland a government independent from that of Russia. Kerensky's Russian Provisional Government (Socialist), on August 3, 1917, ordered the dissolution of the Finnish Diet and the summoning of a new one on November 1, 1917.

This new Diet had just begun its sessions when Kerensky's government was overthrown by the Bolsheviki, who at once declared the right of the subject peoples of Russia to secede without waiting for the decision of the Constituent Assembly.

On November 23d, the Bolshevist Commissaries (Lenine and Trotzky) confirmed the right to freedom and self-determination on the part of the various nationalities in Russia, further declaring that "this right of the Russian peoples to their self-determination is to be extended even as far as separation and the forming of independent states."

By Bolshevist sanction, therefore, and with German approval, the Finnish leaders declared their independence apart from the rule of Russia. Four days later, the President of the Finnish Senate issued a proclamation declaring that the Finnish Diet had assumed sovereign power and designating the Senate as the supreme executive authority.

The President of the Senate had submitted to the Diet a bill instituting Finland an independent republic and he declared that no legal Russian authority existed in Finland.

The declaration of independence was recognized by Sweden, France, Norway, Denmark and Germany in the order named and on January 9, 1918, by the Russian Provisional Government (Bolsheviki).

### Germans Seize the Aland Islands

FINLAND, in a little while, was swarming with German agents whose efforts were directed, first toward fomenting Finnish separation from Russia, and then seizing control of the Finnish Government.

As a means to this end, the Finns, who had served in the German armies, and become thoroughly indoctrinated with German "ideals," were returned to their native country to form the nucleus of a pro-German Army known as the White Guards.

This army, commanded by Gen. Mannerheim, had the support of the Finnish Diet



and of all the propertied class. Many Swedes enlisted in the ranks.

The Socialist majority, with Russian Bolshevik aid, organized a Red Guard Army whose aim was the overthrow of the Diet and the establishment of a Socialist Republic. Hundreds of working girls fought in the ranks of this Red Guard Army.

The Red Guards seized Helsingfors, setting up a radical government with Kullervo Manner as Premier.

The White Guards fled to Vasa, where a pro-German Government was proclaimed with M. Svinhufud as Premier. A period of civil strife ensued, in which the White Guards were butchered by the Reds.

The White Guard Government on January 20th appealed to Sweden for military aid against the revolutionists. A Swedish military expedition was sent on February 18th, to Aland Island to expel the bands of Russian and Finnish radicals who had been terrorizing the population, but it met with stubborn resistance. At the request of the Finnish Diet, a German naval squadron, consisting of 36 warships, on April 3d, arrived off the Peninsula of Hango and landed a force of 40,000 men, 300 cannon and 2,000 machine guns, with Gen. Sasnitz in command. Other German detachments were landed at Abo.

The Russian Government protested to Germany against the landing in Finland. In reply, the German Government insisted that all Russian warships in Finnish territorial waters should either leave for Russian ports or else disarm, in accordance with the terms of the Brest-Litovsk Treaty. The Bolshevik leaders, thereupon, ordered the Commander of the Baltic Fleet to withdraw.

Instead of obeying, however, the Russian sailors blew up their warships, including four submarines, to prevent their falling into the hands of the Germans.

A second German armed force, of 40,000 men, was landed at Helsingfors on April 13th and three days' battle followed between the Red Guards and the Germans. The Reds were finally expelled from the capital on April 17th, withdrawing to Viborg, 75 miles southwest of Petrograd. About the same time, the city of Abo was stormed by the White Guards and the Reds expelled.

The German and White Guard Armies, from two directions, advanced on Viborg, which they captured on April 30th. Of its Red defenders, 6,000 were butchered. The entire Red Guard Army was enveloped on May 4th after suffering heavy losses. Twenty thousand surrendered to the White Guards and were shown no mercy. It is estimated that 50,000 Finns, of all shades, perished during the brief period of this civil strife. The Finlanders, however, were by no means pacified; isolated bands of Red Guards continued to offer resistance at many points.

### A German King Chosen for Finland

THE Germans presently warned the astonished Finns of their intention to proclaim a monarchy in Finland with Prince Oscar, the fifth son of the German Emperor, as King. They also declared their intention to invade the Russian Province of Karelia.

Gen. Mannerheim, Commander-in-Chief of the Finnish White Guards, after an ineffectual protest against the Germanization of the Finnish Army, resigned his command. Two days later the Finnish Cabinet also resigned as a result of the appointment of former Premier Svinhufud as temporary dictator.

### Germans and Finns Plot to Seize Murmansk

THE Germanization of Finland went on apace. Early in April the Germans proposed, with their White Guard allies, to create a "Greater Finland" by the seizure of the entire Murman coast, together with the Petrograd-Murman Railroad reaching to the Arctic.

At the same time the Germans decided to extend the Finnish railway system so as to establish direct connection from North Cape to Budapest and Constantinople. The Finnish White Guards boasted that they would take Petrograd and the whole south coast of the Baltic Sea.

Already a movement was under way in favor of the annexation of Russian Karelia on the basis of the principle of self-determination. Karelia includes parts of the Governments of Petrograd, Olonetz and Archangel. Possession of the Murman coast would give the Germans control of the only



Russian ports that are free from ice the year round, together with control of the 800-mile railroad line whose terminus is at Kola.

In anticipation of the seizure of the Murman coast the Germans had completed a railroad to Kem, over which they proposed to transport some 40,000 troops stationed at Viborg.

### **Allied Naval Forces Landed at Kola**

THE Allies had taken steps to forestall the German-Finnish occupation of Murmansk. Early in March, British and French naval forces had landed at Murmansk, at the head of the Kola inlet and at Pechenga, the Russian port nearest to the Finnish border.

Their object was to protect the vast supplies of war munitions at Kola and Archangel, valued at \$500,000,000, which had been sold to the Czar by the Allies but never paid for.

At first the local Soviet Government worked harmoniously with the Allies, but the Germans protested so strongly that Trotzky made a show of mobilizing a force of Bolsheviks for transportation to the Murman coast.

The German-Finnish invasion of Russia incurred the wrath of the local Soviet Governments. A state of war was proclaimed in the Province of Archangel on June 23d, due to the Finnish attempts to take Kola.

On July 3d, the Germans and Finns, advancing through Karelia, had threatened the Murman Railway. Delegates from the Murman coast and the White Sea coast appeared before the Allied Consuls asking for protection. On July 7th, the entire population of the Murman coast broke with Russia and joined the Entente. On the same day, Finnish White Guards occupied Yaroslav, 173 miles northeast of Moscow, and cut communications between Moscow and Vologda.

### **Allied Forces at Murmansk**

THE Allied governments hitherto had refrained from interfering in Russia's internal affairs, hoping that the newly awakened Russian democracy would "find itself." But after it had become apparent that the leaders of the Bolsheviks were betraying Russia into the hands of the Germans and Finns, the Allies hesitated no longer.

On July 15, 1918, the northern section of the Murman coast was occupied by British, American, French, Serbian and Russian forces, under command of Rear Admiral Kemp of the British Navy. The American contingent to this army consisted of a small body of marines.

Admiral Kemp announced that the Allied forces would move southward "in accord with the local Soviet authorities and at the request of the local population for help." The primary object of this movement was to prevent the seizure by the Germans of the vast stores of American munitions and supplies at Kola, purchased by the Czar's government.

The Allied forces quickly captured Kem, a railway station on the White Sea, declared the Murman coast to be Russian territory under Allied protection and took over control of the Murman Railway connecting with Petrograd.

Ambassador Francis and the Allied legations meanwhile had removed from Vologda to Kandalaska on the White Sea, in order to be within the zone protected by the expedition. The Bolshevik Government sent a note to Great Britain demanding the withdrawal of the Allies from Russian soil, but no attention was paid to it. The several ambassadors of the Allied governments, however, had previously notified Lenine that they desired no longer to maintain relations with a government which was assisting Germany in the spoilation of Russia.

### **The Archangel Expedition**

A LARGER Allied force, including an American contingent, landed at Archangel on August 4th, and under command of the British General Poole, occupied the White Sea coast as far north as Murmansk.

Coincident with the arrival of this army, the various anti-Bolshevist elements in the Provinces of Novgorod, Archangel, Vologda, Viatka, Kazan and Samara organized a Supreme Government of the Northern Territory, with headquarters at Archangel and with Nicholas Tchaikowsky as Premier.

This government, composed wholly of members of the former Russian Constituent Assembly which Lenine had dispersed by



force, abolished all the Bolshevik institutions and ordered the arrest of all Soviet officials.

By proclamation they proposed the regeneration of Russia, the defense of the whole nation against all territorial violations by Germany, Finland and other enemies, the re-establishment of the Constituent Assembly and the local Zemstvos, security of the rights of agricultural workers, defence of the interests of labor and suppression of famine.

The new government cordially welcomed the Allied troops who had come to fight against the common enemy and solicited their aid in combating famine and relieving the financial situation.

The Allied governments took precautionary steps to save the inhabitants of Northern Russia from famine. Shipments of regular supplies were made from the United States to Archangel, and the Red Cross arranged to send immediate supplies of foodstuffs and necessities to the stricken region. Ambassador Francis and other Allied ministers left for Archangel on August 7th.

### **Driving the Bolsheviks Southward**

THE Allied Expeditionary Force, in co-operation with volunteer detachments of Russian White Guards, pursued the Bolshevik forces southward, toward Vologda, hoping to form a junction with the Czecho-Slovak forces which were fighting the Reds along the line of the Trans-Siberian Railroad. By August 31st the Allies had advanced 75 miles and captured the city of Obozerskaya from the Reds.

The Provisional Government at Archangel was overthrown on September 8th by a rival Socialist faction, but under compulsion of Allied troops the insurgents resigned and the Tchaikowsky Government was reinstated on September 12th.

### **Bolsheviks Seize \$40,000,000 in Gold**

AFTER their expulsion from Archangel, the Bolshevik Army retreated southward by way of the Dvina River, pursued on both banks by the American, British, Serbian and Russian troops. Before leaving Archangel they looted the banks of \$40,000,000 in gold. As they retired down the river, their warships sowed mines to hinder the pursuit of the Allied vessels. Several of these Soviet

ships were sunk by the Allied guns and some hundreds of Red soldiers were captured.

By late September, the Reds had been driven 235 miles south to Kotlas. Many towns along the Dvina River were occupied by the American and Allied forces.

Other Allied forces, operating from Archangel, drove the Finnish White Guards and their German allies out of the Province of Karelia and across the border of Finland. In the province of Archangel, the Allies were equally successful, seizing Kadish and forcing the Reds and Germans to withdraw.

The Bolshevik Army, strongly reinforced by German troops, made slight advances along the Dvina River in October, and the peasants of the whole region were in constant fear of their return. On the Archangel front, the Allied troops had pushed forward six miles from Kadish along the Archangel-Vologda Railway.

Assisted by local tribes, the Allies drove out the Bolsheviks from the Ugor district in the Province of Vologda.

Meanwhile, the United States Government had sent a shipload of food to relieve the wants of the population of Northern Russia who were now facing starvation.

### **Americans Fighting the Bolsheviks**

THE signing of the Armistice on November 11, 1918, did not bring peace to Russia. Many bloody clashes took place on the Archangel front during November. The Bolshevik gun-boats constantly shelled the Russo-Allied posts on the Dvina River, and several infantry attacks were launched but without avail.

In these engagements the American troops, holding the center of the front, played an important role.

Toward the end of November, when ice began to form on the river, the Soviet gun-boats were withdrawn from the Dvina. The naval guns, however, were removed and mounted on the river bank south of the Allied armies.

### **American Troops Pursue the Reds North**

TOWARD the end of November, an American-Russian force advanced up the Pinegra River in pursuit of the Bolshevik Army. Marching over frozen swamps and snow-



covered roads, the Americans captured the town of Shetogorskie. The Soviet troops retaliated on November 28th by seizing the towns of Pskov and Dunaburg and bombarding Narva.

Continuing their advance, up the Pinegra, over snow-covered roads, the Russo-Ameri-

can forces on December 2d, after a sharp battle with the Bolsheviki, captured the town of Karpagorskoï. But as the year 1918 drew to a close the Bolshevik forces were being strengthened, while those of the Allies in this ice-bound region were being steadily depleted.

EASTERN THEATER, JAN. — DEC.

## Germany Attempts to Coerce New-Born Ukrainian Republic

Peasants Arm for War Against 500,000 Austro-Germans and the Bolsheviki

SECTION 5—1918

Ukrainian Forces, 200,000

Gen. Korniloff, Cossack Leader  
Gen. Denekine, Cossack Leader

Austro-German Forces, 500,000

Gen. Morgen, Commander-in-Chief  
Gen. von Eichhorn  
Gen. Skoropadski

THE "Ukrainian People's Republic," with an assertion of sovereignty over a vast domain in Southern Russia comprising a population of 25,000,000, had been proclaimed on November 26, 1917, after the dissolution of the Russian Empire. A popular assembly, known as the Rada, assumed the supreme authority until such time as a Constituent Assembly might be assembled.

The Governments of Kherson, Ekaterinoslav, Kharkov, Taurida and parts of the Governments of Voronesh and Kursk, gave their allegiance to the Rada. A part of the Black Sea Fleet also recognized the same authority. In general, the revolutionary leaders adopted the moderate Socialist principles enunciated in Russia by Kerensky, including the division of the landed estates among the proletariat. But they were strongly opposed to Bolshevism.

From the outset, the extreme radical wing of the Revolutionary party sought to Bolshevize the Ukrainian Republic, but at first they made little headway against the opposition of the rich landowners who dominated the Rada.

On December 16, 1917, the radical element among the Ukrainian troops stationed at Odessa, attacked the Arsenal, but they were repulsed. They did gain control of the waterfront, however, and were supported by some of the sailors from the Black Sea Fleet who endeavored to seize all the vessels in the harbor. After much bloodshed, this rebellion was quelled.

Throughout this period, Russian Bolsheviks had co-operated with the Ukrainian radicals in the attempt to seize the reins of government. This coalition so alarmed the wealthy leaders in Ukrainia that they made secret overtures to Germany for aid, preferring the tyranny of Teutonism to the anarchy of Bolshevism.

When the Brest-Litovsk Conference was called on February 9, 1918, the Germanic powers signed a treaty of peace with the Ukrainian Rada. This settlement aroused the wrath of "Trotzky" (Leber Braunstein), the Russian Bolshevik Minister of War, who was himself seeking a "democratic peace" with Germany and who now denounced the treaty with the Ukrainian Rada as a "bourgeois peace." Asserting that the Rada had been dissolved, he warned the German diplomats that no treaty with Ukrainia could be binding that was not signed by a Bolshevik delegation.

The German Government not only ignored Trotzky's protest, but avowed that Germanized Ukrainia should have the right of "self-determination."

Trotzky retorted that Bolshevik Russia would neither sign the treaty nor carry on the War. Meantime, the menace of Bolshevism had become so serious in Ukrainia that the pro-German Rada Government was transferred from Kiev to Zhitomir, leaving the Reds in control of the capital.

Germany at once renewed hostilities with Bolshevik Russia, her armies seizing the



strongholds at Dvinsk, Werder and Lutsck. This new invasion by the Huns brought Trotzky to his knees and he quickly suppliated for peace.

The new terms, as drawn up on February 23, 1918, were extremely harsh. The provinces of Livonia and Esthonia were to be cleared immediately of Russian troops and policed by Germans until such time as they might set up "independent" governments of their own, of course under German control. Ukrainia and Finland were to be evacuated by the Bolshevik forces and a peace arranged between Russia and Ukrainia.

The Russian Army was to be completely demobilized and the Russian Fleets interned in Russian harbors. Bolshevik propaganda among German soldiers and civilians was to cease. Ukrainia, "the granary of Europe," was to turn over to Germany 85 per cent of all its wheat supplies and all its sugar.

These iniquitous terms were abjectly accepted by the Bolshevik Central Executive Committee on February 24th, coupled with a request that Germany grant an armistice to continue until the conclusion of the peace negotiations. This request the Germans flatly refused and the German armies continued their advance into Russia. Again the Russians flew to arms, an army of 100,000 Red Guards being led by some of the Czar's old generals, acting from motives of pure patriotism.

### **Germany Takes a Fourth Part of Russia**

HOSTILITIES in the North came to a sudden halt on March 3, 1918, when the Bolshevik delegates at Brest-Litovsk signed a new peace treaty, surrendering to Germany all of Poland, Ukrainia, Finland, Lithuania, Esthonia, Courland and a part of Transcaucasia. This concession comprised a quarter of all the area of European Russia, with dominion over a third of the total population.

It was further required that Bolshevik Russia should conclude an immediate peace with the Ukrainian Republic and recognize the treaty of peace between Ukrainia and Germany, Austria, Hungary and Ukrainia was forbidden, absolutely.

Finland and the Aland Islands were to be evacuated by all Russian armed forces, both

military and naval. Russia was required to evacuate the Anatolian provinces taken from Turkey, as well as the districts of Kars, Erivan and Batum.

Russia also agreed to relinquish all claims to territory occupied and held by the Germans, the fate of these countries to be decided by Germany. The Bolshevik Government was given two weeks in which to ratify this treaty.

Opposing this ratification, "Trotzky" resigned as Minister of Foreign Affairs and was made Chief of the Petrograd Commune, in which capacity he directed the massacre of thousands of civilians, men, women and children. The treaty was finally ratified by a vote of 704 to 261.

### **Germans Overrun Ukrainia**

ALTHOUGH the Germans had promised to stop their military activities on the Eastern front when the peace treaty with Bolshevik Russia was signed, they nevertheless resumed hostilities under the pretext of "establishing order" along the new frontier. On invitation of the Ukrainian landlords who controlled the Rada, the German Army invaded Ukrainia, supported by units of the old Russian Army, all under German command.

On March 21st, the Germans were in possession of Kiev, Zhitomir, Nicholaiev and Odessa. The Bolshevik Red Guards, a few days later, drove the Germans out of Odessa, but on the arrival of Austrian reinforcements, the city was recaptured by the Germans. Some 2,000 Russian vessels, great and small, lying in this port, were seized, together with great quantities of war material.

### **Germans Dissolve the Rada**

STILL the Germans were unable to obtain the wheat supplies they coveted from the Ukrainian peasants. In retaliation, the German Military Commander in Kiev, on April 24th, announced that the Ukrainian Rada was to be dissolved and another government established in its place.

The Germans found a pretext for their action in the failure of the Rada to investigate the reported arrest of a pro-German banker by the Committee of Ukrainian Safety. Thereupon Gen. von Eichhorn, Com-



mander-in-Chief of the German-Austrian forces in Ukraina, proclaimed a state of "enhanced protection" equivalent to martial law.

On April 28, 1918, a body of German soldiers entered the Chamber of the Rada, brutally assaulted the President, and seized several of the members, including the Minister of War.

The bankers and land-owning gentry of Ukraina, who had invited the Germans to enter their land, thereupon organized a new government, declared the Rada non-existent, and set up as Hetman a pro-German tool named Gen. Skoropadski, giving him dictatorial powers, subject to German approval. Ukraina had been betrayed by her landowners and usurers, and had consented to become a German province.

#### **How Germany Bled the Peasants**

THE Germans disarmed the troops of the overthrown Rada and supported Skoropadski's dictatorial regime with bayonets. Austro-German Regiments assisted the land-owning traitors in raising large indemnities from the peasants.

With the object of enforcing payment of "contributions," the German troops were wont to descend at night upon the peaceful villages, announcing their arrival with bombs and machine guns. The panic-stricken population were dragged from their beds, assembled before the town hall and at the point of the bayonet ordered to pay at once hundreds of thousands of rubles, being threatened with the pillage and burning of their villages in event of refusal. If the money forthcoming proved insufficient, the soldiers beat the peasants with rifles and whips.

#### **Whole Communities Asphyxiated by Gas**

DISARMED though they were, and threatened by an army of 500,000 Austro-Germans, the Ukrainian peasants still defied the Huns. Organized in many scattered bands, each numbering 500 to 5,000, they waged guerilla warfare against the invaders of their homes.

Rather than supply the Germans with food, they destroyed their stores of grain and left their fields untilled. Consequently, less than 15 per cent of the required amount of grain was secured by the German agents.

Against several revolted villages the Germans used gas bombs and whole communities are said to have been asphyxiated. In retaliation the peasants blew up ten German ammunition depots at Kiev, killing or wounding 1,700 Austrian soldiers.

#### **Von Eichhorn Assassinated**

BY the middle of June there were 200,000 armed and officered insurgents in Ukraina. From Kiev, the revolt spread into the Poltava and Chernigor districts. At the village of Krinichki, in the Province of Ekaterinoslav, the peasants defeated the Germans in a pitched battle, the Germans losing 1,000 men.

The Ukrainian Government, set up by the German Military pro-Consul, von Eichhorn, found that the enforcement of the Brest-Litovsk decree was attended with peril.

Von Eichhorn, the German Commander in the Ukraine, and his adjutant, Dressler, were mortally wounded on July 31st by a bomb thrown into their carriage while they were driving through the streets of Kiev, and died that night. The assassin, a youth of 23, declared that he came that day from the Province of Ryazan on orders from a committee of the Social Revolutionists to kill von Eichhorn.

#### **Gen. Korniloff Leads the Ukrainians**

THE German Army in Ukraina was now reinforced by 35 divisions, or a total of 420,000 men, while the peasants were organized in military units of 15,000 to 20,000 each. In July, Gen. Korniloff, the Cossack leader, and former Commander-in-Chief of the Russian armies, offered his services to the Ukrainians, making the one proviso that negotiations should be opened with the Allied Powers.

Early in September Ukrainian peasants exterminated the German garrison in the village of Brusilovka. A bloody clash also occurred between the Germans and Ukrainians in the Government of Mohilev.

On November 20th, Kiev was captured and the Ukrainian Government overturned by a force of Cossacks commanded by Gen. Denekine. The Ukrainian dictator, Gen. Skoropadski, surrendered and Gen. Denekine was named as his successor.

By December 6th, the Unionist forces had seized all the power in the Ukraine after a battle at Kiev in which Skoropadski was killed.

WESTERN THEATER, FEB. 9—MAR. 15

## American Troops Engage the Enemy on Three Sectors

Yankee Boys Drive Germans from Their Trenches at Badonville

Germans Use Mustard Gas and Liquid Fire

SECTION 6—1918

**A**MERICAN troops, in ever-increasing numbers, were occupying front line trenches in the St. Mihiel, Champagne and Chemin-des-Dames sectors as the new year opened. During January, 1918, they repulsed numerous trench raids.

Early in February, during a dense fog, the German batteries dropped hundreds of high explosive shells on three sides of an American listening post in the Toul sector, cutting off the detail. The American batteries at once laid a barrage which silenced the German fire. The detail was presently rescued.

A few days later the Germans began a heavy bombardment of the sector, the American gunners responding shell for shell, wrecking several of the enemy's dugouts and pulverizing the German front line trenches.

On another occasion, the Germans concentrated their fire on a section of the American line, hoping to obliterate it, but the American batteries swept the enemy's lines with a heavy barrage, which compelled the German gunners to cease firing.

The Yankee soldiers had their first experience with German duplicity on the night of February 9th, when an American patrol encountered a body of Germans in No Man's Land. The Germans cried "Kamerad" as a token of surrender, but when the Americans went forward to disarm them, the treacherous Huns shot them down in cold blood.

On February 14th, American artillery participated in a bombardment preparatory to a French attack on the German lines between Tahure and the Butte de Mesnil.

### The First Gas Attacks

THE Americans received their baptism of gas on February 15th, when German minenwerfers aimed hundreds of gas shells at the American lines. Before the boys could ad-

just their masks, the trenches were filled with the deadly fumes. Many of the troops were partially overcome by the fumes while asleep in their dugouts. The gas lingered for hours in the area, disabling men who ventured to work in the vicinity. Swift retribution was visited upon the Germans. The American artillery opened fire on the German batteries, blowing guns and gunners into fragments, the ground all about the batteries being churned many feet deep.

On February 23d, our troops joined with the French in a raid in the Chemin-des-Dames sector. Again, on February 26th, the Germans drenched the American trenches with gas, 60 soldiers being overcome with the fumes.

### Americans' First Pitched Battle With Germans

THE first pitched battle between American and German soldiers was fought March 1st in the St. Mihiel salient north of Toul. During a driving snowstorm, the German guns threw a multitude of shells, containing poison gas, into the Yankee trenches. The trees behind the salient were cut down by the terrific artillery fire. Suddenly the barrage was raised on the trenches to the right of the salient and 300 Germans charged the American line. Eager to engage the enemy, our boys climbed out of their trenches and grappled with the Germans in a hand-to-hand fight, driving them back with heavy losses. After the skirmish, the ground was found littered with enemy hand grenades, boxes of explosives and incendiary bombs which the fleeing Germans had been unable to use.

Some time later, a patrol of Germans approached the American line with liquid fire projectors, but when a squad of Yankees opened fire on the Huns, the enemy fled precipitately, dropping their flaming projectors as they ran.



**Americans Make Their First Direct Attack**

HERETOFORE the American troops had confined their activities to defensive operations. Their first direct attack on the German line was made at midnight of March 9, 1918, near Badonviller, with the co-operation of a small French detachment. Their orders were to cut off the two ends of a salient in the German line, reduce the salient itself with artillery fire, and then sweep the German trenches.

Following a four hours' bombardment of the German line, the Franco-American troops went "over the top" in two columns, behind a creeping barrage, each on a front of half a mile.

Finding the German first-line trenches vacated, they charged the second line, but most of the Huns had decamped. However, they took a few prisoners with a large quantity of military stores, and, after blowing up a number of concrete dugouts, returned to their own trenches.

A similar raid on another part of the line was carried out by the Yankees without French assistance. A preliminary bombardment swept the German first line trenches, tearing gaps in the barbed wire emplacements and working destruction generally.

Advancing behind a "box" barrage, the American Infantry routed the Germans from their dugouts, and in a fifteen-minute skirmish, without the loss of a single man, they put the Germans to flight, pursuing them 300 yards. The enemy left a number of dead and wounded in their trenches. This was the first advance made by Americans in German territory.

The trenches evacuated by the Germans were afterward consolidated with the Franco-American lines. Certain German ambush posts connected with these trenches were wiped out. The Germans then constructed a number of concrete "pill boxes" opposite the American front, from which

they directed their gunfire at the American trenches.

**German Aeroplane Drops Mustard Gas**

THE Germans tried a new form of attack on the American line in the Toul sector early in March. A German aeroplane soared above the trenches, dropping rubber balls filled with liquid "mustard gas." At the same time, the German batteries attacked the American position with shell-fire. The Yankee guns returned the compliment, smothering the Germans with gas shells and silencing their batteries.

Some days later, the Germans concentrated a mustard gas attack on a town behind the American lines. Our guns sent back a double dose of gas. So altogether superior was the American gas, that the Germans were forced to evacuate the town of Rechicourt. German snipers, meanwhile, had given the American troops much trouble, but one by one they were exterminated by the accurate fire of the 37-millimeter guns.

**Our Losses Already 1,722**

ON March 15, 1918, the War Department announced that the American losses on land and sea, since America entered the War, were 1,722. Of these, 136 had been killed in action, 237 lost at sea, 641 had died of disease, 475 had been wounded, 21 captured, 14 were missing, 6 had been gassed, 26 had died of wounds, and a variety of causes accounted for the deaths of the others.

**Secretary of War Arrives in France**

NEWTON D. BAKER, American Secretary for War, with a staff of seven men, arrived in France early in March to confer with General Pershing, visit the American Expeditionary Army, inspect its lines of transportation, storage and supply system and acquire such information as would enable America most effectively to supply the needs of her Army and the Armies of her Allies.

EASTERN THEATER, FEB.—OCT.

## Turkish Forces in Palestine Destroyed by British-Arabian Army

Damascus, the Oldest City in the World, Wrested from Turkish Control  
 Turks Sue for Peace—Surrender Dardanelles—Sever Relations with Germany

SECTION 7—1918

British Forces, (70,000 infantry, 130,000 unarmed)

Gen. Allenby, Commander-in-Chief

Corps Commanders

Gen. Edward Bulfin

Gen. Harry Chauvel

Gen. Philip Chetwode

Gen. Edward Chaytor

Arab Forces, 10,000

Sherif Feisal, Commander

Sherif Magin

Sherif Nasir

French Cavalry Brigade

Turco-German Forces (36,000 Infantry, 68,000 un-

Gen. von Sanders, Commander

[armed

Gen. Falkenhayn, Adviser

Fourth Army—Jevad Pasha

Seventh Army—Djemal Pasha

Eighth Army—Ahmed Bey, Ihsan Bey

German Contingents

THE surrender of the Bulgarian armies, in the autumn of 1918, was quickly followed by the capture or dispersion of all the Turkish forces in Palestine by British and Arabian armies commanded by Gen. Allenby. Turkey humbly implored the United States Government to intercede with the Allies to grant her an immediate armistice, but was properly ignored. Great Britain and France finally consented to an armistice, though not until after the Turks had released from captivity Gen. Townshend, who had surrendered to the Turks at Kut-el-Amara.

In this memorable campaign, Gen. Allenby and his Arab allies delivered all of Palestine from the rule of the Turks, destroyed three Turkish armies, and took possession of Damascus, the oldest city in the world.

The defeat of the Turks in Palestine was due to the superior strategy of Gen. Allenby, resulting in the complete envelopment of the Turkish forces. In turning the flank of the Turkish armies, the British Infantry had first to break through the enemy line where it touched the Mediterranean coast near Jaffa, and through the gap thus opened, the Desert Mounted Corps dashed forward, making a forced march of 90 miles in 36 hours. At the same time the communications of the Turks, east and south, were cut by the Arabs and British, compelling a complete surrender. Let us now review the Palestine campaign in detail.

After the triumphal entry of Gen. E. H. H. Allenby into Jerusalem on December 9, 1917, the Turkish forces had retired northward in two columns, the right wing resting on the Mediterranean shore, at Jaffa, and the left wing occupying the Nablus and Jericho Roads six miles from the Holy City.

Before pursuing the Turks further, Gen. Allenby took steps to secure his bases at Jerusalem and Jaffa. On the night of December 20th, a British division, 20,000 strong, crossed the El Auja River on pontoon bridges and occupied the northern bank. Two days later another division advanced to the capture of the village of Rantich and Fejja, driving the Turks back to a position eight miles from Jaffa.

On the night after Christmas, the Turks attempted to retake Jerusalem, but were signally defeated. The condition of the roads rendered further military operations unadvisable until the following February.

Gen. Allenby meantime had perfected his plans to drive the Turks across the River Jordan as a preparation for the northern advance of his main army. On February 19, 1918, a British division assaulted the strong ridge occupied by the Turks, carrying El Muntar and the Hill of Blood. The city of Jericho was captured two days later, the Turks retiring across the Jordan. With his right flank now secured, Gen. Allenby pushed north of Jerusalem on both sides of the Nablus Road so as to prevent the Turks us-



ing any of the northern routes in the lower Jordan Valley. By March 21st, all the British objectives were gained, in the face of many obstacles, and the way was now prepared for the seizure of the Hedjaz Railway. Co-operating with the British was an Arab Army commanded by Sherif Feisal, son of the King of the Hedjaz. This Arab Army, advancing from the south, had raided and cut the railway near Maan and seized Tafle; but a strong force of Turkish and German soldiers had dispossessed them in March. Due to the drenching rains of early spring, and the natural difficulties of the mountain region, progress was slow, but by midsummer, Gen. Allenby was able to report that the Turks had lost their communications with the Hedjaz Railroad, together with 6,418 prisoners.

### Piercing the Turkish Line

THE decisive struggle for possession of the Holy Land was now approaching its climax. The Turkish Army of Syria, numbering 100,000 men, but only a third of them armed with rifles, held a front extending from the city of Jaffa on the Mediterranean coast, eastward through the hills of Ephraim to a point half way between Nablus and Jerusalem and thence to the Jordan and along its eastern bank to the Dead Sea.

Facing the Army of Islam were the forces of the British Empire, 70,000 strong, few of whom were Europeans. These liberators of the Holy Land comprised Algerians, Moslems from India, Arab tribesmen, African negroes, zealots representing the varied creeds of Hindustan and several Jewish battalions. East of the Dead Sea, and co-operating with the British, was a force of Arabs under command of Sherif Feisal.

With the exception of a small and scattered reserve, the whole of the Turkish force west of the Jordan in September, 1918, was enclosed in a rectangle 45 miles in length and only 12 miles in depth. The northern edge of this rectangle was a line from Jisr ed Damich on the Jordan, through Nablus and Tul Keram, to Jaffa in the Mediterranean Sea. All the Turkish communications to Damascus ran northward from the eastern half of this line, converging on El Afula and Beisan,

some 25 miles to the north. Thence, with the exception of the roads leading from El Afula along the western shore of the Sea of Galilee, the Turkish communications ran eastward up the valley of the Yarmuk to Derea, the junction of the Palestine and Hedjaz Railways. Thus El Afula, Beisan and Derea were the vital points on his communications. If these points could be seized, the enemy's retreat would be cut off.

Leaving the Arab Army to seize Derea, east of the Dead Sea, and thus prevent the retreat of the Turkish forces in that area, Gen. Allenby planned the capture of the two Turkish armies west of the Jordan. El Afula in the Plain of Esdraelon, and Beisan in the valley of Jezreel, were within reach of the British Cavalry, provided the infantry could break through the enemy's defensive system and create a gap for the cavalry to pass through. It was essential that this gap should be made at the commencement of operations, so that the cavalry might reach their destination, 45 and 60 miles distant, before the enemy could escape. Moreover, whichever route the cavalry followed, the hills of Samaria had to be crossed before the Plain of Esdraelon and the valley of Jezreel could be reached, and it was most important that the enemy should not be given time to man the passes. For this reason, Gen. Allenby decided to make his main attack in the coastal plain rather than through the hills north of Jerusalem.

By reducing the strength of the troops in the Jordan Valley to a minimum, and withdrawing his reserves from the hills north of Jerusalem, Gen. Allenby was able to concentrate 35,000 men and 383 guns against the Turkish position held by 8,000 men and 130 guns. With this force of infantry at his command, Gen. Bulfin was ordered to break through the enemy's defences between the railway and the sea, to open a way for the cavalry and at the same time to seize the foothills east of Jilgulich. Gen. Chauvel, commanding the cavalry, was ordered to advance along the coast, after the British Infantry had broken through the Turkish line, cross the hills of Samaria, seize El Afula to intercept the Turkish retreat there, and later advance down the valley of Jezreel to



seize Beisan. Whilst this concentration in the coastal plain was nearing completion, the Arabs, in co-operation with the British air-planes, destroyed the railway line north and west of Derea, ending all through traffic to Palestine.

### Two Turkish Armies Captured

THE attack in the coastal plain was begun on September 19, 1918, and was attended with complete success. Within 36 hours, the greater part of the Turkish 8th Army had been overwhelmed, and the troops of the Turkish 7th Army were in full retreat through the hills of Samaria, whose exits were already in the hands of the British Cavalry. Pressing relentlessly on the heels of the retreating Turks, the infantry drove them into the arms of the cavalry, with the result that practically the whole of the two armies were captured, with their guns and transport. This phase of the battle also witnessed the capture of Haifa and Acre, the occupation of Tiberias and of the country to the south and west of the Sea of Galilee.

As the result of the rout of these two Turkish armies, the Turkish 4th Army east of the Jordan retreated after evacuating the town of Maan. A British force under command of Gen. Chaytor closely pursued the Turks, capturing Amman and intercepting the retreat of the garrison of Maan, which surrendered.

### The Flight of the Turks

THE Desert Mounted Corps, on September 25th, advanced on Damascus in two columns—one along the south end of the Sea of Galilee by way of Irbid and Derea; the other, round the north end of the sea by way of El Kuneitra.

Opposition was met with on the eastern side of the Jordan Plateau, at El Kuneitra, and the column was continually fired on by the Circassians who dwelt on the plateau. The Arab Army, meanwhile, had given battle to the Turkish 4th Army in its retreat northward, forcing the Turks to abandon guns and transport.

Moving rapidly northwards, the Arabs on September 27th entrenched themselves at Sheikh Saad, 17 miles north of Derea, across the Turkish line of retreat.

Sharp fighting took place all day, in which heavy casualties were inflicted on the retreating Turks and Germans, numerous prisoners being taken.

After breaking up the retreating columns of the Turkish 4th Army, the Arabs captured Derea and on September 28th united with the British 4th Cavalry Division near Er Rempte. Both continued to press on the heels of the remnants of the Turkish 4th Army. In this way a Turkish column, 1,500 strong, was driven into the hands of the 14th Cavalry Brigade at Sahnaya.

By the evening of September 30th, all the exits to Damascus had been closed and the 5th British Cavalry had reached the southern outskirts of the town.

### Capture of Damascus

AT 6 o'clock on the morning of October 1st, Sherif Feisal's Arab Army, with Gen. Chaytor's Desert Mounted Corps, entered Damascus, the oldest city in the world, which was a flourishing trade center when historic Tyre was born. Of the 45,000 Turkish and German troops that guarded Damascus, only 17,000 remained. These surrendered to the Arabs without resistance. After guards had been posted in the ancient city, the troops were withdrawn.

Gen. Allenby's campaign had been crowned with success. Three Turkish armies had been captured or destroyed; 50,000 prisoners and 350 guns were in British hands, and all that remained of the armed forces of Turkey in Palestine was a fleeing mob of 17,000 men, not one in four of whom were armed, a mass of individuals without organization, without transport and without any of the accessories required to enable it to act even on the defensive.

Gen. Allenby decided to exploit his success by advancing his line northward along the coast. Occupation of Beirut would give him a port with a road and a railway leading inland to Rayak and Damascus.

Leaving the Australian Mounted Corps at Damascus, the Desert Mounted Corps moved on Rayak and Zahle, October 5th; no opposition was encountered and both places were occupied on the following day.

The 7th British Division reached Beirut on October 8th, where it was warmly wel-



comed, 660 Turks surrendering their arms. Ships of the French Navy had already entered the harbor. Armoured cars occupied Baalbeck on October 9th, taking over 500 Turks. Along the coast, Homs, Tyre, Sidon and Tripoli were successively occupied, no opposition being encountered.

At Homs, the British were told that 20,000 Turks and Germans occupied Aleppo, 100 miles away. Only 8,000 of these, however, were under arms and they were completely demoralized. The 5th and 15th Cavalry Divisions were sent forward to capture Aleppo. On October 25th, a detachment of the Arab Army forced their way into Aleppo on the east, inflicting heavy casualties on the enemy. On the west side of the town, October 26th, the 15th Cavalry Brigade encountered a Turkish rearguard of 2,500 infantry, with 150 cavalry and 8 guns. The Lancers charged gallantly and broke the Turkish ranks, but lacking strength to complete the victory, they withdrew. That night the Turks retreated to Deirel Jemel, 20 miles northwest of Aleppo. Before British reinforcements arrived, however, the armistice between Turkey and the Allies had been concluded, being in force on October 31, 1918. So ended Turkish rule in Palestine.

Gen. Allenby and his Arab allies, between September 19th and October 26th, had taken 75,000 prisoners, of whom nearly 4,000 were Germans or Austrians. In addition, 360 field guns, 800 machine guns, 210 motor lorries,

44 motor cars, 3,500 animals, 89 railway engines and 468 carriages and trucks

### Turkey Sues for Peace

TURKEY now found herself in a helpless condition. Her armies in Palestine had been destroyed; British and French troops were marching on Adrianople; and the Greeks were advancing on the Turkish capital between Kavalla and Dama.

On October 14th, the Turkish Government begged President Wilson to use his influence to secure an armistice and to begin negotiations for peace. The appeal went unanswered.

Then the Turks released the British General Townshend, who had been a prisoner since the fall of Kut-el-Amara, and sent him to Admiral Calthorpe, commanding the British forces in the Ægean, to request that negotiations should be immediately opened for an armistice. On October 30th an armistice was signed and hostilities ceased the next day.

The terms of peace included the opening of the Dardanelles and the Black Sea, the release of all Allied prisoners, the demobilization of the Turkish Army, the severance of all relations with the Germanic powers, and the placing of Turkish territory at the disposal of the Allies for military purposes. Thus ended the power of the Turks in Europe, after a misrule of nearly 500 years.

RUSSIA, FEB.—DEC.

## War Against Bolshevism Inaugurated Throughout Russia

Czar and His Family Brutally Assassinated by the Bolsheviki—Czecho-Slovak Troops  
Liberate Parts of Russia—U. S. Troops Take Part in Struggle

SECTION 8—1918

### Anti-Bolshevist Forces, 300,000

Gen. Kolchak, Commander

### Czecho-Slovak Army, 100,000

Gen. Dieterichs

Gen. Kedlets

Gen. Gaida

### Siberian Forces, 100,000

Gen. Semenoff

Gen. Ivanoff

Gen. Dutoff

Gen. Horvath

Gen. Pleshkoff

Gen. Boldyreff

### Cossack Forces, 100,000

Gen. Korniloff

Gen. Denekine

Gen. Alexeieff

Gen. Skhuro

Gen. Griegorieff

### Ukrainian Peasant Army, 40,000

Gen. Petlura

### United States Forces, 8,000

Col. George D. Stewart

Allied Contingents

### Bolshevist-German-Austrian Forces, 500,000

Trotzky, Commander-in-Chief

Ensign Krylenko, Chief of Staff

Gen. Muravieff (Russian)

Gen. Antonoff (Russian)

Gen. Blucher (German)

Gen. Eberhardt (German)

Gen. Hoffman (German)

Gen. Kressenstein (German)

Gen. Skoropadsky (Ukrainian)

**R**EVOLUTIONARY Russia, in 1918, endeavored to throw off the incubus of Bolshevism which was smothering the national life. Too late, the deluded artisans and peasants discovered that, in overthrowing the tyranny of the Czars, they had yielded to a new tyranny more oppressive than the old.

The power of government in Christian Russia, under Lenine and Trotzky, had been seized by a desperate band of apostate Jews, many of them out of the ghettos of New York, Philadelphia, Buffalo and other American cities, all friendly to Germany, and supported by atheists, Socialists, anarchists, desperadoes released from prison, German and Austrian prisoners of war who had been interned in Russia, the dregs of the Army and the Navy, Chinese and Lettish mercenaries and other disorderly elements of Russian life.

By a policy of massacre, assassination, treachery and stealth, these apostles of Anti-christ had made themselves temporary masters of the Government and the larger cities

of Russia. Now they were aiming at the subjugation of the whole vast domain of the Czars.

By seizing control of the food supplies and the tools of industry, they had been able to coerce many thousands of starving peasants into joining their ranks. Posing as the friends of freedom, they had massacred thousands of workingmen, women and children who had refused to accept their irreligious and anarchical doctrines.

Atheists, infidels or Jews themselves, they plotted to extinguish the Christian faith in Russia. Many bishops, hundreds of priests, scores of nuns, thousands of Christians had been murdered by them in the streets of Petrograd, Moscow and other cities. Russia had been betrayed by them into the hands of the German warlords and was now being dismembered.

They had seized the bank deposits of Russia and sent vast sums in gold to neutral countries to be held for them until they had completed their nefarious mission. By force of arms, they had dissolved the Constituent



Assembly, which was representative of the Russian people's will, and had substituted for this a Council of Soviets, dominated by 300,000 armed German and Austrian prisoners of war who roamed at will through Central Russia.

The onward march of Democracy was to be halted. Instead of government by popular consent, these conspirators aimed at establishing government by the unfit, which they called the "dictatorship of the proletariat." Only the ignorant, the unruly, the uncouth among the Russian masses were to have a voice in government. The learned, the wise, the wealthy, the thrifty folks were to be disfranchised.

### **The War Against Bolshevism Begins**

THE inevitable war against Bolshevism was inaugurated with much difficulty, because of the rivalries of ephemeral governments proclaimed in the various provinces of Russia by more or less patriotic leaders, including some of the generals in the armies of the martyred Czar. Among these hopeful agencies for the redemption of Russia from Bolshevik control were the governments set up at Archangel, on the Murman coast, in the Ural, Ufa, Samara and Orenburg provinces, in various sections of Siberia, in Ukraina, Transcaucasia and the Cossack regions.

### **The Government at Samara**

Two hundred members of the abortive Constituent Assembly, which had been throttled and dissolved by the Bolsheviks, met in the city of Samara and formed a government whose purpose was to wrest control of Russia from the Reds. A triumvirate with dictatorial powers was set up, consisting of Generals Alexeieff, Stepanoff and Axentieff.

This government soon came to an understanding with the Orenburg and Ural Governments on a basis of the establishment of a Federated Russia and resumption of war against Germany in alliance with the Entente Powers. It was unable, at first, to form a similar agreement with the Omsk Government in Siberia.

### **Gen. Horvath's Siberian War Cabinet**

A PROVISIONAL WAR CABINET for Siberia was proclaimed at Harbin on July 14th by Lieut.-Gen. Horvath, the anti-Bolshevik military leader in Eastern Siberia. In his name General Pleshkoff, on August 25th, assumed control of all the Russian troops in the Far East, thus flouting the authority of the Siberian Government at Omsk.

This attempt at dictatorship lasted scarcely an hour. The Allied representatives at Vladivostok promptly warned Gen. Horvath that as against his attempt at dictatorship they should uphold the authority of the Siberian Government. Thus admonished, Gen. Horvath made his submission and his small following of Russian volunteers were disarmed and removed from Vladivostok.

### **The Government of the North**

THE North Russian delegates to the Constituent Assembly foregathered soon after the dissolution of the Assembly and formed a provisional government known as the Supreme Administration of the Region of the North. The control was vested in the moderate wing of the Social Revolutionary and Social Democratic parties, with Nicholas Tchaikowsky as President.

Tchaikowsky's political program was modeled on American lines. He proposed the re-creation of Russian democratic power, the re-establishment of local self-government with universal suffrage, a reorganization of the National Army and a renewal of the War against Germany with repudiation of the Brest-Litovsk Treaty as a first duty.

This government was overthrown on September 8th, and Tchaikowsky, together with several other members of the government, were imprisoned. The Allied representatives at Archangel, however, demanded the immediate restoration of Tchaikowsky's government and the request was complied with.

### **Kolchak's All-Russian Government at Omsk**

THE most promising of all the earlier agencies for the redemption of Russia was the All-Siberian Government proclaimed at Omsk on July 25th by Admiral Kolchak. This government asserted its authority over all Siberia, disputing the powers of the Hor-

vath War Cabinet at Harbin. Gen. Horvath, on August 25th, declared himself dictator of all Siberia, but a warning note from the Allies cleared his brain of that delusion. Nevertheless, on October 7th, he attempted a coup d'état at Omsk, but this, too, was frustrated by Czecho-Slovak troops.

Two days later, these Siberian rivalries apparently were composed through a merger of the Harbin and Omsk Governments. But though the whole of non-Soviet Russia apparently had rallied round the Omsk Government, there still were radical forces at work attempting to undermine the new government.

In this emergency a coup d'état was accomplished on November 18th. Three of the Omsk Directorate, including President Axentieff, suspected of revolutionary leanings, were kidnapped by a counter-revolutionary group. Then the Council of Ministers, headed by Premier Vologodsky, declared that it assumed all power and named Admiral Kolchak as dictator. At Ekaterinberg, on the following day, Gen. Gaida, the 28-years-old Czech Commander, arrested several members of the Omsk Assembly, on the charge of inciting a revolt of the peasantry. On November 22d, a group of members of the Omsk Assembly issued a proclamation declaring that "the departments adhering to democratic principles assume all power to enter into negotiations with the Czecho-Slovak Council and the military commanders."

On November 26th, the dissolved government of Omsk informed the Allied representatives that it would not support Kolchak's dictatorship. General Semenoff, after defying Kolchak, cut the wires between Omsk and Vladivostok and asserted his jurisdiction over the Amur, Ussuli and Transbaikalian region, with headquarters at Chita. He also sent an ultimatum to Kolchak demanding that he should give up his dictatorship.

In reply, Kolchak deposed Semenoff from the command of the Fifth Army, naming Col. Valkoff as his successor and ordering him to arrest the rebel general.

Semenoff at length consented to recognize Kolchak's dictatorship, provided the latter would agree to retire in favor of General Denekine, leader of the Don Cossacks, as

soon as it was possible to effect a junction of the two forces.

### The Ufa Government

OTHER delegates to the dissolved Constituent Assembly held a national convention in the city of Ufa and on October 7th set up a central government for the whole of Russia, to succeed the Provisional Government which had been overthrown by the Bolsheviks.

Besides the delegates to the Constituent Assembly, this national convention was composed of representatives of the Temporary Government of Siberia, the Regional Government of the Urals, the Temporary Government of Esthonia, representatives of the Cossacks of Orenburg, Ural, Siberia, Irkutsk, Semiretchensk, Enissen and Astrakhan, representatives of the Government of Kirjulo, Turkestan, and the Turko-Tartars of interior Russia and Siberia, representatives of the Convention of Municipalities and Zemstvos of Siberia, the Ural and the Volga regions, representatives of the following parties and organizations: Socialist Revolutionists, Social Democrats (Mensheviks), Socialist Labor, Constitutional Democrats, and the "Rebirth of Russia Party."

The supreme power, pending the convention of a Constituent Assembly, was vested in a Provisional Government composed of five persons: Axentieff, Astroff, Boldyreff, Vologodsky, Tchaikowsky.

The immediate aims of this government were the liberation of Russia from the power of the Bolshevik Soviets, the reintegration in Russia of all regions which were detached or separated, the repudiation of the Brest-Litovsk Treaty, the restoration of treaties with Allied nations, the continuation of war against the German coalition, the creation of a single military power beyond the influence of political parties and the interdiction of political organizations into the Army, the securing to the liberated parts of Russia of democratic municipalities and zemstvos.

This government began at once the training of 200,000 young recruits by 30,000 officers, in the Academy of the General Staff at Tomsk. Kerensky supported this government.



Early in November a fusion of the Ufa and Omsk Governments took place, with Vologodsky as President. Its seat was established at Omsk, and its authority extended over practically the whole of Siberia and parts of the provinces of Samara, Orenburg, Ufa, Ural and Archangel as well.

Under this new fusion, steps were taken to organize an army of 380,000, with Gen. Boldyreff as Commander-in-Chief.

This All-Russian Provisional Government, early in November, appealed to President Wilson to extend aid quickly to patriotic Russia.

### Other Governments Formed

THE Transcaucasian peoples also declined to accept the Brest-Litovsk peace, declaring themselves in favor of war against Germany. The independence of the Caucasus was proclaimed on March 29th and the local Diet approved the project of a separate peace with Turkey. But when, several days later, the Turks began the military occupation of the Caucasian districts mentioned in the Brest-Litovsk Treaty, the Armenians and Georgians rose against the invaders.

Separatist tendencies revealed themselves likewise in the rich provinces of Bessarabia, whose Diet on April 11th voted in favor of union with the Kingdom of Roumania. This act provoked the Ukraine to protest on the ground that the Ukrainians, as a large element in the population of Bessarabia, should have had a voice in the fate of that province.

The province of Kazan, situated in the east of European Russia, and having a population of 2,000,000, proclaimed a Republic on April 9th.

### Czecho-Slovaks Begin March Across Russia

THE first military force to wage effective warfare against the Russian Bolsheviks was the Czecho-Slovak Army, comprising at the start some 50,000 prisoners of war who had been interned in Central Russia.

As subjects of the Austro-Hungarian Empire, the Czecho-Slovaks had been compelled, in 1914, to enter Emperor Karl's army, but being Slavs, and therefore kin to the Russians, their sympathies were wholly with Russia and the Allies.

As the War progressed, they neglected no opportunity to desert from the Austrian Army. Whole regiments surrendered to the Russians and other regiments were massacred while trying to desert.

In all there were 350,000 Czecho-Slovak prisoners of war in Russia. Of these, the great majority were subsequently employed in the munition factories or on the farms of Russia, but 100,000 of them were organized into special military units to fight in the Russian ranks.

In the last weeks of the Kerensky regime, when the Revolutionary armies were in panic retreat before the Germans, it was the Czecho-Slovak Corps alone that lent stability to the Russian line.

When Russia was betrayed anew by Lenine and Trotzky, at the Brest-Litovsk Conference, and the Russian armies were disbanded, these Czecho-Slovak soldiers found themselves beleaguered near Kiev, Ukrainia, on both banks of the Dnieper River. They resolutely refused to make peace with Germany, their sole desire being to reach France and assist the Allies.

President Masaryk, of the Czecho-Slovak National Council, meanwhile had come to Russia and negotiated with Lenine and Trotzky a safe conduct for the Czech soldiers across Siberia. Sixty trains, of 40 freight cars each, were to be placed at their disposal. The Government of France already had provided the money for the provisioning, equipping and transporting 40,000 Czech soldiers 6,000 miles. A complication arose, however, which interfered with the carrying out of this program.

A government favorable to Germany had been set up previously in Ukrainia and the patriotic Ukrainians, together with the Bolshevik Ukrainians had attempted to overthrow it. When the Brest-Litovsk Treaty was under discussion, the Ukrainian Reds sought peace with Germany, but without success. Instead, a German Army, 200,000 strong, was directed to march on Ukrainia. In this emergency, the Reds asked the aid of the Czecho-Slovaks, but the latter declined to interfere in the internal affairs of Russia.

As the German Army drew near to Kiev, the Ukrainian Reds took possession of most



of the military trains reserved for the Czecho-Slovaks and retreated eastward.

Pursuing the Reds in the few locomotives and coaches left them, the Czecho-Slovaks in four days overpowered the Ukrainians and recovered their rolling stock. Then they resumed their retreat by rail toward Moscow on their trip "round the world to France."

### **Czechs Win the Battle of Bakhmach**

WORD came to the Czechs, about this time, that 200,000 German soldiers had reached Gomel, 150 miles up the Dnieper, and that one German division, following the railroad, had advanced to Gorodnia and was striking across country to seize the city of Bakhmach, through which the Czechs must pass on their way to Moscow.

A Czech division, by forced marches, was sent to seize Bakhmach and hold it against the Germans. A hard battle was fought, lasting four days, in which the Czechs were victorious. The Germans lost 2,000 men and were driven back several miles from the railroad. The German commander was granted a truce of 48 hours to enable him to bury his dead, but this truce was quickly canceled by the German High Command and the battle was resumed. Though the Germans were strongly reinforced, the Czechs were able to hold Bakhmach until the last of their trains from Kiev had passed through on the way to Moscow.

### **Czechs Give Up Arms to Bolsheviks**

THE Czecho-Slovaks were now in the territory of Bolshevik Russia, but they had no misgivings, since their relations had been fairly cordial with the Reds. Indeed, after the battle of Bakhmach, Gen. Antonoff of the Bolshevik Army had issued an order thanking them for their "brotherly co-operation against the common enemy," and wishing them a successful journey. Lenine, too, had issued an order requiring all the Soviets along the Trans-Siberian Railway to assist the Czecho-Slovaks in their journey eastward.

On reaching Moscow, however, a change of attitude on the part of the Bolshevik leaders was apparent. Reports were current that the Czechs had come to Moscow intending to depose the Bolsheviks. To allay the

fears of the Reds, the Czechs turned over to them 100,000 rifles and 300 machine guns. They also promised not to take any firearms out of Russia, but to leave all weapons with the Bolsheviks. Thus placated, the Bolsheviks bade the Czechs to proceed on their journey.

Then began the Czechs' 6,000 retreat eastward over the Trans-Siberian Railroad. At every station along the route, they were met by committees of Russians who begged them to rid Russia of the Bolsheviks. At that time the Czechs might have overcome the Reds and freed Russia, but having given their word not to intrude in Russian internal affairs, they kept their faces turned resolutely eastward.

At Penza, 400 miles east from Moscow, by orders from Bolshevik National headquarters, the Czech advance was stopped. Four trains, carrying 3,000 Czecho-Slovaks, had pulled into the station. Some 80 other trains, conveying the remainder of the Czecho-Slovak Army, were scattered westward along the railroad at intervals of 50 to 100 miles. Encamped on a hill at Penza, with 200 cannon and hundreds of machine guns placed in position, was a Bolshevik Army.

Upon the arrival of the Czechs, they were despoiled of nearly all their arms, being allowed to retain only ten rifles for each 1,000 soldiers, as a protection against brigands. In return the Bolsheviks promised to aid the Czechs to get to Vladivostok quickly.

With a Bolshevik chaperone on board to remove all future challenges, the advance trains proceeded on their pilgrimage, reaching Vladivostok in 57 days without mishap. Not so the remaining trains westward to Moscow.

### **Germany Orders the Czechs Detained**

THE long arm of Germany, meanwhile, had reached forth to prevent the escape of the main Czecho-Slovak Army out of Russia. From the German High Command, orders issued to Lenine and Trotzky to arm all the German and Magyar prisoners of war who were interned in Russia and make war against the Czecho-Slovaks.

Pursuant to these orders, Russian rifles and machine guns were furnished to 200,000



Germans and Magyars, and 50,000 other rifles to the Lettish and Chinese mercenaries employed in the murderous work of the Bolsheviks.

At the same time, and by German duress, the Bolsheviks were induced to cancel the guarantee of unmolested passage given to the Czechs and stop all the trains on which the Czechs were journeying eastward.

In consequence of this order, 60 trainloads of Czechs were isolated, at an average distance of 50 miles apart, all along the Siberian Railroad. Meantime, the armed German and Magyar prisoners of war had occupied many of these isolated stations, and were prepared to attack Czechs with rifles and machine guns.

### **Red Guards Defeated at Irkutsk by Czechs**

AT Irkutsk, a train carrying 400 Czechs, with only 10 rifles and 20 hand grenades at their disposal, was surrounded by several thousand Red Guards armed with rifles and machine guns. The Czechs were given ten minutes to surrender.

Upon their refusal to do so, the Reds opened fire on the train. The unarmed Czechs, debarking from the train in five minutes, captured all the enemy machine guns, disarmed the cowardly Bolsheviks and killed all the Germans and Magyars.

Despite this treacherous attack, the Czecho-Slovaks again proved their good faith toward Russia by restoring the captured arms to the Russian Reds on condition that all German and Magyar mercenaries should be disarmed and not permitted further to impede their passage eastward.

The Bolsheviks were not to be trusted, however. All the Czecho-Slovak forces west of Irkutsk, then under command of Col. Kedlets, were obliged to fight their way eastward, to Omsk, seizing many railroad stations en route and dismissing the Bolshevik Soviets that offered resistance. They also freed the Trans-Siberian Railroad westward to the Urals.

Meantime, with the resumption of hostilities to the eastward, the Czech contingents journeying between Krasnoyarsk and Irkutsk had found themselves hard pressed and near the end of their resources. By a series

of flanking movements, Col. Kedlets' Czech troops fell upon the Bolsheviks in the night, stampeding them again and again. In this way the Czechs were enabled to push through to the relief of their beleaguered brethren at Krasnoyarsk and Irkutsk.

### **The Battle of the Tunnels**

BETWEEN Irkutsk and Lake Baikal, the Trans-Siberian Railroad passed through a series of 41 tunnels. East of the lake, a large body of Red troops was advancing toward these tunnels intending to blow them up and prevent the further passage eastward of the second group of Czecho-Slovak echelons crossing Siberia. Anticipating such a move, a column of Czecho-Slovak troops had hurried overland to intercept the Reds before they reached the eastern terminus of the tunnels. The Red troops already had arrived and blown up one tunnel, but before they could do any further damage they were attacked and driven northward, leaving their machine guns behind them. The destruction of the tunnel held up the Czech echelons three weeks and almost proved their undoing.

In a battle fought 20 miles beyond Lake Baikal, the Czechs were beaten by a strong force of Reds and pushed back to the first tunnel.

Gen. Gaida now succeeded Col. Kedlets in command of all the Czecho-Slovak troops in this region. By a simple stratagem he lured the Reds to destruction. Decoy messages were flashed by wireless, addressed to a distant Czech station, representing Gaida's troops as in desperate straits and asking assistance. The deceived Reds, throwing all caution aside, hastily advanced, expecting an early victory. A few miles east of the tunnel they ran into an ambush and were almost annihilated. The tattered remnant of the Bolshevik force fled northward.

### **Czechs Triumph in Western Siberia**

A COLUMN of Czech troops, led by Gen. Dieterichs, gained possession of vital parts of the Siberian Railroad. On the eastern slopes of the Ural Mountains, in Russia proper, they were established in force. Late in June, France recognized the Czecho-Slovaks as an independent nation. On the same



day, English and Japanese troops were landed at Vladivostok, ostensibly to guard their consulates.

By the middle of July the Czechs were in control of the Trans-Siberian railway from Samara to Irkutsk.

### Murder of the Czar and His Family

It was while the Czecho-Slovak army was advancing on Ekaterinburg, in July, that the murder of the Imperial Russian family by the Jewish Bolsheviks occurred. After five months in captivity at Tsarskoe Selo, near St. Petersburg, where they had suffered many humiliations, the royal family and their servants had been removed on August 26, 1917, to a new prison at Tobolsk, Siberia, where two houses had been set apart for their occupancy. Their only food was the coarse rations doled out to common soldiers. Here, too, the royal prisoners were subjected to many obscure insults by the Bolshevik soldiers quartered with them. On May 1, 1918, the eighth month of the Czar's confinement at Tobolsk, an emissary from the Moscow Central Executive Committee, named Sverdlov, arrived with orders to convey the Czar to Moscow. Instead of taking his royal prisoner to Moscow, however, Sverdlov conveyed him to Ekaterinburg, where on May 22d the Imperial Russian family found themselves prisoners of state in a private mansion, round about which a wooden stockade had been erected, reaching to the eaves. Sentries were posted round about the prison and machine guns covered every point of exit. Day and night, for the next two months, the royal family were under ceaseless surveillance, and subjected to the grossest indignities. Their drunken keepers "forced their loathsome familiarities upon their helpless victims, sat side by side with them at table, elbowing them and lolling against them, nauseating them with the malodors of their unclean bodies, sang obscene songs, and wounded the modesty of the girls in many ways." The prisoners were allowed only a quarter of an hour daily in the open air. Religion was the sole consolation of the royal family. "Above the vile songs sung by the guards at night, the voices of the family

could be heard chanting the Song of the Cherubim, the Russian Gloria."

Early in July, the humane Russian guards were replaced by twelve Jewish assassins, all former soldiers in the Hungarian and Austrian armies. Their commandant was one Yurovsky, a small shopkeeper in Ekaterinburg and son of a Jewish convict, said to have been in the pay of the Germans. At 1 o'clock on the morning of July 16th, Yurovsky awoke the Imperial family, saying that "the Czech army was expected to enter the town before daybreak and it would be better for them to come down into the cellar to avoid the risk of flying bullets." Thanking Yurovsky for his "consideration" the unsuspecting Czar and his family hurriedly dressed and then descended to the basement, one of the Grand Duchesses carrying in her arms the crippled son of the Czar. All looked haggard and strange, the entire Imperial family having shorn their hair because of the verminous condition of their prison. Yurovsky and his twelve associate assassins now entered the cellar and by the garish light of a lantern Yurovsky shrieked rather than read an order of the Soviet Tribunal calling for the execution of "Nicholas Romanov the Bloody and all his family." With the exception of the Czar, the royal victims at once fell on their knees and crossed themselves. The Czar, advancing in front of the Jewish regicide, uttered the solemn prophecy: "For the murder of the Czar, Holy Russia will curse the Bolsheviks," a prediction whose fulfilment will not be long delayed. Yurovsky at once drew his revolver and shot the Czar through the brain. This was the signal for a bloody scene of carnage. The Bolshevik assassins first shot the defenceless members of the royal family one by one. Then, as if insane with blood lust, they thrust their bayonets through the dead bodies, or beat in the skulls of the corpses with the butt ends of their guns. The little Princess Tatiano, still alive and crying her mother's name, was thrust through with bayonets and her head beaten in by rifle butts.

The bodies were afterwards taken to a nearby woods, stripped of their clothing and jewels, hacked to pieces, soaked in sulphuric acid and burned to cinders.



The Czecho-Slovak Council in Russia warned the Siberians that "violent changes in the Government could no longer continue," adding that "the crisis in the Government caused by the arrest of members of the All-Russian Provisional Government will be adjusted lawfully."

The Allies, on the other hand, failed to define their attitude toward this crisis, pursuing instead a policy of watchful waiting.

Shortly after the establishment of Kolchak's dictatorship, the Omsk Government pledged itself "as soon as Russia is reunited," to pay all the national obligations, together with interest on internal and external state loans, payments on contracts and salaries of employees, pensions and all other payments arising from law, contract or other legal foundations.

Gen. Semenoff, on December 21st, made his peace with Kolchak, agreeing to recognize him as dictator provided he would retire in favor of Gen. Denekine, Hetman of the Cossacks, as soon as a junction of the forces could be effected.

### **Denekine Expels Bolsheviks and Germans**

THE power of the Germans and their Bolshevik allies was gradually waning in Ukrainia, but the country remained in a disturbed and almost chaotic condition, until November 20th, when a strong force of Cossacks, under Gen. Denekine, advancing from Astrakhan, expelled the Ukrainian National Assembly and the Hetman Skoropadski, seized Kiev, and established a Provisional Government.

### **Admiral Kolchak's Successes in Siberia**

IN Siberia a number of resolute men had raised the banner of rebellion and thereafter from all over Russia, volunteers had flocked to Admiral Kolchak's flag. Though nominally a Siberian, it was really an All-Russian Army that Kolchak was leading. With Czecho-Slovak support coming to his aid by way of Moscow, Kolchak began a scientifically planned campaign, his army moving forward in three columns. By the end of May, Kolchak's army, in co-operation with the Czecho-Slovaks and the Japanese, had captured every town or position where the

Bolsheviki might have made a stand before Samara. Previously the Archangel Government of the North had recognized the supreme authority in Russia of the Omsk Government, as represented by Kolchak, and all the anti-Bolshevist forces from the Arctic to the Don, and from Samara to Vladivostok, were working in unison.

### **Transbaikial Region Cleared of Reds**

FOR months the Czecho-Slovak Main Army had been holding the Volga River line, from Kazan on the north through Simbirsk (the home of Lenine) to Samara. Czecho-Slovak forces also had appeared on the outskirts of Nijni-Novgorod, in the heart of Great Russia, some 250 miles northeast of Moscow. Other Czechs, co-operating with anti-Bolshevist Russians, were making rapid progress toward the Vologda Junction. Advancing east from Lake Baikal, they had captured Chita, the capital of Transbaikial, and the Chief Red Guard base in that province.

Transbaikial had been practically cleared of the Bolsheviks, their only line of retreat being northeast from Chita, following the Amur branch of the Siberian Railroad into the Amur Province, where they could be isolated and captured. North of Vladivostok, the Japanese, American and British forces were pushing down the Ussuri Valley toward the Amur.

### **Czechs in Retreat in the Volga Front**

THE Czecho-Slovaks, in October, met with reverses, being forced to evacuate Samara and retreat along the Samara-Cheliabinsk Railway. Many fierce battles were fought on the Volga front and events in this area took a turn favorable to the Soviet Army. These Soviet troops consisted mostly of German war prisoners. Exhausted by the strain of five years of uninterrupted fighting, the Czech troops showed a loss of morale. Winter was setting in, they were poorly clothed, they lacked food and they dreaded the hardships that loomed in front of them.

One regiment, resting at Ekaterinburg, when ordered to entrain for the front, flatly refused to march. Their refusal drove the commander, Col. Schmidt, to commit suicide. Only a week later, soldier delegates from



each echelon and each regiment of the Czechs, arrived in Ekaterinburg to demand of their war government that they be sent home.

Before the end of the year, the Bolshevik Army, and the German-prisoner allies had driven the Czechs out of Ufa, the central point in the demoralization of the Czech Army. Orders issued to replace all Czech troops with Siberians. The Czechs were then sent eastward to guard that portion of the Siberian Railroad lying between Novo Nicholaevsk and Irkutsk.

### Third Soviet Army Captured at Perm

Two corps of Siberian troops supplanted the Czechs. One corps, led by Gen. Gaida, who had resigned the command of the Czechs to become a lieutenant general under Kolchak, operated in the northern field; the other, under Gen. Hanjine, occupied the Ufa front. Gen. Gaida's Siberian troops, in a battle fought at Perm on December 24th, practically annihilated the Bolshevik Army. Thirty thousand Red prisoners were taken, together with much rolling stock and other loot. The remnant of the Third Red Army was driven across the Rama River.

A week later, the Soviet forces captured the city of Ufa, the former seat of an anti-Bolshevist Government.

### United States Troops in Arctic Russia

ON December 30th, the Allied forces advanced 15 miles up the Onega River, west of Archangel on the Northern front, capturing the village of Kadish. Participating in this victory were 8,000 American troops, under Col. George D. Stewart, also a body of Polish Legionnaires, a French detachment, Canadian artillery and a force of Russian volunteers.

The American losses in this engagement were only six officers and 121 enlisted men. Fighting continued in this sector for several days, the American Doughboys being in the forefront of battle.

The American forces in Northern Russia were scattered over a front of 400 miles at distances from Archangel varying from 100 to 300 miles.

Meanwhile an Allied movement against Kiev was taking shape. Advancing from

their base at Odessa, a French and Russian Army was seeking a junction with a Cossack Army under Gen. Krasnoff, which was moving from Rostov toward Kiev.

At the same time, two Bolshevik armies were invading Esthonia and Lithuania, looting and burning as they went. The important city of Riga fell to the Reds on New Year's Day, 1919.

Other Bolshevik armies had continued their destructive march into Poland, capturing Vilna as the New Year dawned and massacring many civilians.

On December 27th, the Japanese Government announced the withdrawal of 24,000 troops from Siberia, in conformity with its plan of maintaining a constantly diminishing force in Russia.

### Unity of Command in Siberia

UNITY of command on the Siberian front was arranged in the closing days of 1918. The French general, Jules Janin, a former commander of the Czecho-Slovak Army, was appointed to the Chief Command of all the Allied forces in Russia.

### Proposal to Withdraw the Allies

BOTH in America and in England, strong parliamentary protests had been made against the further retention of Allied troops in Russia. Lord Milner, in the British Parliament, answered the criticism by reciting that the Bolsheviks were openly assisting the Germans in every possible way. Due to Bolshevik aid, the Germans had been able to withdraw hundreds of thousands of troops from the Russian front and employ them against the Allies on the Western front.

The Bolsheviks, he reminded them, had betrayed Roumania to Germany, handed the Black Sea Fleet over to Germany and treacherously attacked the Czecho-Slovaks. It was an obligation of honor to save the Czecho-Slovaks; a military necessity of the most urgent kind to rescue the vast sections of Russia that were struggling to escape the tyranny of the Bolsheviks, and a chief duty to safeguard the enormous quantities of military stores at Archangel and Vladivostok, sent to Russia by the Allied governments and in danger of being seized by the Reds.



RUSSIA, FEB.—DEC.

## Korniloff's Volunteer Army Gives Battle to the Bolsheviki

Seven Russian Generals, Escaping from Prison, Organize Army of 1,000,000

SECTION 9—1918

First Russian Volunteer Army, 3,000—50,000  
(Afterward increased to 1,000,000)

Gen. Korniloff, Commander-in-Chief  
Gen. Alexeieff, Chief of Staff  
Gen. Denekine  
Gen. Romanovski  
Gen. Erdelli  
Gen. Elsner  
Gen. Markoff  
Gen. Lukoniski

Bolshevist Forces, 250,000

Gen. Vacetis, Commander  
Gen. Antonoff  
Gen. Stupin  
Gen. Horokin  
Gen. Nessaroff

**I**N February, 1918, when the frightful incubus of Bolshevism was pressing most heavily against the heart of Russia, smothering the soul of the nation, a group of loyal generals who had escaped from prison were rallying the Cossacks of the South to their standard, determined to save Russia from anarchic ruin or die in the attempt.

To the tireless efforts of this band of noblemen, now reduced to rags and penury, was due the organization of the Russian Volunteer Army, that valiant force which first gave battle to the Bolsheviki and all but succeeded in overthrowing the Beast.

From its humble beginning as a brigade of 3,000 men, chiefly composed of officers who waived their various ranks, the Volunteer Army rapidly grew until in a few months it numbered 100,000 resolute men. By that time more than 30,000 of these Russian patriots had fallen on the battlefield in their efforts to redeem Russia.

The origin of this Volunteer Army takes us back to the Kerensky regime which assumed power after the overthrow of the Czar's government. Many leading generals in the Czar's army had accepted the Revolution and led the Russian forces in the last campaign against the Germans. Gen. Korniloff, the dashing Cossack leader, had become Commander-in-Chief of the Revolutionary troops, but when those troops fell under the sinister influence of the Soviets and the death penalty for insubordination was abolished, demoralization set in, followed by the shameful retreat and defeat of the Russian Army.

### Escape of Generals from Prison

GEN. KORNILOFF appealed to Kerensky to grant him full power, promising if the death penalty were restored to save Russia. Instead, Kerensky branded Korniloff as a traitor and consigned him to the Bukhoff fortress prison, together with Generals Denekine, Romanovski, Erdelli, Elsner and Markoff. Another eminent general, Alexeieff, the former Chief of Staff of the Czar's army, escaped in the disguise of a peasant and after weeks of hiding made his way into South Russia.

It so chanced that the Bukhoff prison, in which Korniloff and the other generals had been confined, was guarded on alternate days by a regiment of Cossacks from Transcaucasia, who regarded Korniloff, the "Cossack Peasant General," almost as a god. One night in December, 1917, this regiment opened all the prison doors, released the general and with him galloped away southward.

To avoid certain capture at a railroad crossing, where Kerensky's Guards were lying in wait, the generals and the Caucasian soldiers dismounted, turned their horses loose, discarded their uniforms, donned the attire of peasants and disbanded, each man agreeing to fend for himself and all agreeing to meet at Rostov. After a thousand perils and adventures, the heroic band succeeded in reaching Rostov in late December, 1917.

Korniloff wore a mechanic's working shirt, Gen. Denekine appeared as a coal heaver, Romanovski was disguised as a chauffeur, and the others as peasant laborers. Gen. Alexeieff, the former Chief of Staff of the

largest army the world has ever known, had preceded them.

### Small Volunteer Army Set in Motion

THE call was sounded for Volunteers and the response was immediate. Loyal Russians from all walks of life, bankers, physicians, lawyers, business men, rallied to the standard. Many school boys also volunteered. While the organization of the Volunteer Army was in progress, the Bolsheviks bore down upon Rostov in overwhelming numbers.

Forced to evacuate Rostov, the little Volunteer Army, then numbering scarcely 3,000, withdrew along the single road that led to the territory of the Kuban Cossacks, where they would be among friends. Colonels and majors served willingly in the ranks as privates; generals of world-wide fame, who had commanded huge armies, were content to lead small companies or battalions. Each man of that band of noblemen carried his bag, his weapon and his staff for the journey.

With the Volunteers was a part of the famous Korniloff shock regiment which Kerensky had disbanded. These troops had retained their flag and boasted 32 machine guns and 6,000,000 cartridges. In the Army was also Czar Nicholas' St. George Regiment and the Gershelman Division of Cavalry. There were also three battalions of officers commanded by Gen. Markoff.

In the depth of a Russian winter, and lacking food and sufficient transport for the wounded, this little Volunteer Army took up the march for Ekaterinodar, the capital of the Kuban Government, 200 miles away. The Bolshevik forces had now overtaken them and there were rear-guard and advance-guard actions every day. Their wounded filled a thousand carts. As their food diminished, their only hope of sustenance was to seize the enemy's rations. This they did repeatedly. Forty attacks on the Bolsheviks were made in 42 days, and each attack yielded much loot, including food and munitions.

After two months of fighting and when 50 miles from Ekaterinodar, where they had hoped to be relieved, the soldiers were stunned by the news that the Kuban capital

had fallen to the Bolsheviks and the Government had fled to the mountains.

### Korniloff Killed, Army Defeated

WITH unfailing courage, the little band kept on, traversing swampy ground knee-deep in water, their clothing hardened with ice, compelled to plunder the Bolsheviks daily in order to obtain food to keep them alive, and with their faces set for Ekaterinodar. They swam the swollen and icy cold Kuban River with Gen. Markoff in the lead, while all about them fell the shells of the Bolshevik artillery, taking a heavy toll. Here they were joined by a column of Kuban Cossacks.

The combined Army, numbering 7,000 rifles, though attacked in the rear by a Bolshevik force, nevertheless resolved to march on the Bolshevik stronghold at Ekaterinodar. It was a fatal decision. For four days the unequal conflict raged. The losses of the Volunteers were staggering, averaging 70 per cent of each regiment.

Before daylight, on the last day of battle, April 1st, when the ammunition of the Volunteers was exhausted, a shell exploded in Gen. Korniloff's bedroom, killing him outright and on his 63d birthday, as had been predicted years before by a gypsy soothsayer.

### Gen. Denekine in Command

GEN. DENEKINE, who succeeded to the command, began a retreat northward with the remnants of the Volunteers. Though opposed by a force outnumbering his army four to one, besides being handicapped by 1,200 bed-wounded soldiers, and compelled to cross three railroad lines in possession of the enemy, he nevertheless led his force to safety on the Kalmuck and Astrakhan Steppes. Here they were joined by a band of Don Cossacks representing 14 villages, who had thrown off the yoke of Bolshevism. Many other volunteers helped swell the diminished ranks. Here they received the astonishing news that counter-revolutions had been launched in various provinces, that the Reds were in retreat everywhere, and that the Bolsheviks had surrendered the Ukraine to Germany at Brest-Litovsk. Already South Russia was in the grip of Germany, and the Cossacks



beseeked Denekine's army to help free the homeland.

Denekine and Alexeieff consented to begin a campaign to free the Kuban Government. Volunteers from all the provinces of Russia flocked to their standard. Huge supplies of food and war material were accumulated. Armored cars, motors, all the machinery of war, were acquired. Two thousand seasoned soldiers, who had journeyed 1,200 miles out of Roumania to join Korniloff's forces, agreed to throw in their lot with Denekine and Alexeieff.

In June, with a large army at their command, Denekine and Alexeieff laid siege to Ekaterinodar, intent upon avenging Korniloff's death. After a three days' battle,

the town capitulated. With Ekaterinodar as a base, the Volunteer Army occupied every town in the region, closing every road of retreat in the Caucasus except the railroad line to Vladikavkas. Along this road the Bolsheviks and their sympathizers retreated toward the Caspian Sea, occupying 40,000 wagons with their families and their loot.

Gen. Alexeieff died on September 25th, the day before Bulgaria surrendered, and Gen. Romanovski succeeded him as Chief of Staff.

The Volunteer Army grew to enormous proportions. As winter was setting in 1,000,000 resolute soldiers were obeying the commands of Gen. Denekine, prepared to launch a great offensive against the Bolsheviks in the following spring.

WESTERN THEATER, MAR. 21—APRIL 9

## British Driven Back 30 Miles During Great German Offensive

Gough's Army is Totally Annihilated and the French Line Dislocated

Gen. Foch Given Supreme Command—Gen. Pershing Offers U. S. Troops to France

SECTION 10—1918

### British Forces, 570,000

Gen. Robertson, Chief of Staff (Succeeded by  
Gen. Sir Douglas Haig, Commander [Gen. Foch  
Third British Army—Gen. Byng  
Fifth British Army—Gen. Gough  
Fourth British Army—Gen. Rawlinson  
First British Army Divisions—Gen. Plumer  
Second British Army I Divisions—Gen. Horne

### French Forces, 360,000

First French Army—Gen. Debeney  
Third French Army—Gen. Humbert  
Second French Army—Gen. Fayolle

### German Forces, 1,350,000

Gen. Ludendorff, Chief of Staff  
Prince Rupprecht, Group Commander  
Seventeenth Army—Gen. von Below  
Second Army—Gen. von Marwitz  
Eighteenth Army—Gen. von Hutier  
Seventh Army—Gen. von Boehm

FOR the Allies, the darkest hour of the entire War befell in that perilous period, beginning in March, 1918, which saw the launching of Germany's mightiest offensive; the total annihilation of the Fifth British Army; the enforced retreat of the British forces in the Somme sector, full 30 miles in ten days; the resultant rupture of the French line; and the advance of the German hordes almost to the gates of Amiens.

Not merely had the Germans in their great drive toward Amiens thrown into confusion the British line, they had opened a gap between the British and the French Armies and uncovered all the main roads leading to Paris. If now they could widen that gap, separate the British and French Armies, and turn their flanks, they might dispose of them

in detail, then take possession of Paris and the Channel Ports and dictate harsh terms of peace to all Europe.

The catastrophe which threatened the Allied armies was barely averted by the wisdom of the Inter-Allied Military Council, in overriding the objections of the British High Command and appointing Gen. Ferdinand Foch Supreme Commander of all the Allied forces then retreating on the Western front. This incomparable commander, turning defeat into victory, definitely halted the German grand offensive in front of Amiens and repulsed the two subsequent German drives north and south of Amiens. Gen. Foch then held the Germans, virtually as prisoners, in the three deep salients which marked the limits of their sensational advance, until the



American Marines and Doughboys had arrived in sufficient numbers to rout them out and start them on the run back to the Rhine.

### **Causes of the British Disaster**

THE causes of the British disaster in the Somme sector are not difficult to trace. In a word, the British line was insufficiently defended against a foe attacking in overwhelming force. There were fewer than 800,000 British soldiers holding a front, 125 miles in extent, extending from the Belgian coast southeastward to the River Oise in France.

The heavy losses sustained by Britain on this front during 1917, and estimated at 500,000, had not been replaced, although there were more than 400,000 soldiers detained on English soil, ostensibly to repel an expected "invasion," but in reality to overawe the Irish. The British, had, however, sent three full corps to the assistance of Italy, immediately after the Caporetta disaster.

France had complained bitterly that England was not doing her full duty in the War. To appease the French the Britishers had taken over 28 miles of French line. This extension of front, which still further weakened the British line, had not escaped the observation of the Germans.

The weakest part of the British line was the sector, 60 miles long, lying between Arras and Barisis. To guard this long front, only two armies had been assigned—the Third British Army under Gen. Julian Byng, and the Fifth British Army under Gen. Hubert Gough, with a combined strength of 320,000 men. Byng's army held 20 miles of the front, from Arras to Gouzeaucourt, while Gough defended 40 miles of the front from Gouzeaucourt to Barisis, where his right wing joined with the left wing of the French Army under Gen. Humbert.

### **Germans Outnumbered British Three to One**

THE Germans knew, of course, that the most vulnerable point of attack in the whole line was the place of junction between Gough's British Army and Humbert's French Army, and there they decided to strike their heaviest blow.

Early in February, 1918, four German armies, with a total strength of 1,000,000 men, were assembled in this sector. Opposing Gen. Byng's army of 160,000 men, from Arras to Gouzeaucourt, was the army of Gen. Otto von Below, composed of 250,000 picked troops. Opposite Gen. Gough's thin line from Gouzeaucourt to Barisis, were two German armies—Gen. von der Marwitz with 250,000 men, and Gen. Oscar von Hutier with 250,000 men. Below the Oise and facing the left wing of Humbert's French Army, was the German Army of Gen. von Boehm, numbering 250,000 men.

Subsequently, by the use of Reserves, the strength of both combatants was increased—that of the Germans to 1,350,000 men and of the British and French to 930,000 men. But at the outset of the battle the Germans outnumbered the British in the ratio of 3 to 1.

### **Germans Feared the Americans**

IT had been the hope of the Germans to win a decisive victory before the American Army could be assembled in full strength on the Western front.

When the American legions began pouring into France, in the early spring of 1918, the braggart soul of Kaiser Wilhelm shrank with a secret dread. His "nervous collapses" were now of daily occurrence. Despite his jibes at the "Boy Scouts of the American Republic," he felt in his heart that these fearless young Crusaders from overseas were the appointed agents of his inevitable destruction. He could not hope to awe them, as he had awed certain Europeans, with the bogey of Prussian invincibility. In the Yankee view, a Boche was merely a Boche, as a snake was a snake.

One only ray of hope illumined the horizon of the Kaiser's vain ambition; the Americans were not yet arrived in sufficient numbers to offset his numerical advantage over the Allies. If he could quickly drive a wedge in between the French and British Armies, and separate them by rolling back their flanks, he might be able to annihilate them both before the American Army was able to function perfectly on French soil. The march of events had favored his ambition. Not only had the shameful exit of the Russians from



the Eastern theater of war removed his last enemy in that direction, it had enabled him to transfer to the Western front an army of 500,000 veteran storm troops for his final drive. In addition he had assembled endless batteries of heavy guns to pulverize the Allied line—one for every twelve yards on a front of 125 miles. If the Allied lines survived the hurricane of shell fire, his storm troops would complete the work.

### **British Defense System**

THE British front was protected by three lines of defense. In the first zone were established the outposts who were to fall back upon a well-wired line of resistance, in which were built redoubts a mile apart and so arranged that the advancing enemy would come under cross fire of machine guns. A mile behind this was the battle zone, arranged on the same plan, except that there were no outposts here. One mile further to the rear lay the final defensive zone, which was incomplete when the battle opened.

It was the theory of the British strategists that the resistance of the first zone would break up the cohesion of the enemy's attack and that the subsequent advance of the Germans could be held in the battle zone. Confident in the strength of these defenses, the British had failed to prepare alternative positions in the rear, and the omission spelled disaster.

Of the two British commanders, Gen. Byng enjoyed the higher reputation. As commander of the Canadian troops, in April, 1917, he had taken Vimy Ridge and later had developed new tactics of surprise in the battle of Cambrai.

Gen. Gough, who had achieved sudden fame as commander of the Fifth Army in the first Battle of the Somme, had largely lost the confidence of his soldiers by his wastage of men in the Third Battle of Ypres. As for the German commanders, many of them were veterans of the Eastern front who had achieved fame in the campaigns against Russia and Roumania.

### **The Von Hutier Tactics**

THE German strategists hoped to put a wedge between the British and French Armies, roll up the British right flank, drive

the British Armies across the lower Somme River and with a small force of men keep them in this area, while the main German armies would turn about and deal the isolated French Armies a death blow. Then, either a peace would be arranged at Paris, or the British Armies in the "pocket" between the Somme River and the coast could be annihilated at their pleasure.

The Germans were to try out the von Hutier tactics that had proved so successful on the Russian front but were new to the Western theater of war. Secrecy was the key note of the new tactics. Instead of assembling masses of troops for days in front of the point to be attacked, the troops were to be brought up secretly by night marches just before the assault was begun, thus gaining the advantage due to a surprise attack.

The actual attack was to be preceded by a brief and intensive artillery bombardment, deluging the enemy's back areas and support lines with shells. Finally, instead of attacking in mass formation with walls or waves of men, picked troops were to be sent out to make gaps in the enemy's line, through which others would pour until each section of defence found itself outflanked and encircled.

By a system of flares and rockets, the "follow" troops were informed where the picked troops had made the breach. Each column of troops had unlimited objectives; when one division had gone as far as possible, it was relieved by another, and so on, as in a game of leap-frog. In other words, the Germans planned to "filter" their army through the British lines to positions in the unprotected areas in the rear. The effect would be cumulative, as the momentum would grow with each advance.

### **1,400 Airplanes Brought Down**

ALL through February and early March there had been aerial activity along the entire British front. Thousands of airplanes had been diligent in spying out the opposing positions and many encounters had taken place among the clouds. During this period of six weeks which ushered in the grand offensive, the Germans lost 800 and the Allies 600 planes.

### Feeling Out the Allied Line

IN those early weeks of 1918, before the great battle was begun, trench raids were a daily pastime of the Germans all along the battle front of 125 miles. For the most part these were merely sorties having for their object the "feeling out" of the Allied disposition.

Two serious engagements, however, occurred. Early in March the Germans tried to gain possession of Fort La Pompelle, southeast of Rheims, attacking from five points on a front of ten miles and showering the Allied trenches with gas, but without gaining their objective.

Again, on March 6th, the Germans attacked the Belgian position in the flooded zone northwest of Dixmude, but eventually they were driven back to their own line. Twenty raids in ten days in the French sector were repulsed without difficulty, but similar raids on the British front developed several weak points, as when the British advanced posts at Polderhoek were penetrated on a front of 200 yards.

### The Bombardment Opens

ALL through the night of March 20th, under cover of a thick white mist, the Germans had been advancing their troops to positions within a mile and a half of the British outposts on a front of 60 miles. Shortly before 5 o'clock the next morning, a bombardment of great intensity, with gas and high explosive shells, was opened against the whole British front, from the Scarpe to the Oise. Road centers and railways 20 miles to the rear were deluged by shells fired from high velocity guns.

Violent bombardments were opened also on the French front, in wide sectors east and northeast of Rheims, and on portions of the British front between the Scarpe River and Lens. The British positions south of the La Basse Canal to the River Lys were heavily shelled with gas and battle areas between Messines and the Ypres-Commines Canal were actively engaged. At the same time, Dunkirk was bombarded from the sea. So intense was the enemy's bombardment that the British communications were severed.

### Fog Aids the Germans

FAVORED by a thick white fog, which hid from the British gunners the S. O. S. signals sent up by their outpost line, 750,000 Germans moved forward to the attack, the advance columns forcing their way into the foremost defensive zone.

The fog concealed all objects 50 yards away, rendering the British machine guns and field guns ineffective. British detachments holding the outposts were consequently overwhelmed or surrounded in many cases before they were able to signal word of the enemy's attack.

Nevertheless, on all parts of the battle front, the little bands of Britishers holding the redoubts in the forward zone held out with the utmost gallantry for many hours, taking heavy toll of the enemy.

So rapidly had the Germans advanced under the covering blanket of the mist, that the British advanced batteries found the enemy close upon them before they had received warning from their own infantry that the expected attack had been launched.

### Germans Sweep Through the First British Line

BEFORE noon the British front zone had been penetrated in various places. In quick succession the Germans had captured Bullicourt, Doignies, Louverval, Noreuil, Longatte and Ecoust St. Mein. A part of the German advance had pushed forward two miles to the battle zone and seized Ronssoy. At midday Templeux-le-Guerard, Hargicourt and Villeret were entered.

By early afternoon the enemy's infantry had broken through the entire forward zone and reached the first line of battle positions in strength on practically the whole front except at the Flesquiers salient, where his assaults were not pressed with the same weight as elsewhere. Excepting at Ronssoy, which Gen. Byng defended successfully, and at Esigny and Noreuil, the battle zone itself had not yet been entered.

Fighting in and in front of the battle zone continued with the greatest intensity throughout the afternoon and evening. By evening, the British had been forced back, between Benay and the Somme, to the rear line of their battle positions.



Near Roupy and Savy, the Germans with tanks endeavored to crumple up the line, but were repulsed with heavy losses. The most serious progress made by the Germans on Gen. Gough's front was south of St. Quentin, where they pressed on to the Crozat Canal and captured Cressy.

On Gen. Byng's front, the Flesquieres salient remained practically intact. Lagnicourt fell during the afternoon and the enemy had reached the outskirts of St. Leger and Croisilles.

At the end of the first day, the battle zone still held, though the enemy had gained a toehold in Ronssoy, Essigny and Noreuil. The Germans had made their greatest advance of four miles in the St. Quentin sector, where Gen. Gough was greatly outnumbered.

Owing to the lack of reserves, and because the Germans were known to be concentrating huge masses for the second day's battle, Gen. Haig decided to withdraw the divisions of the corps defending that sector behind the Crozat Canal. The movement involved the withdrawal of the 36th Division to the line of the Somme Canal, and the abandonment of Flesquieres salient.

### Second Day of Battle

WHEN the second day of battle dawned, the ground was again enveloped in thick mist, under cover of which the Germans renewed their attacks in great strength all along the line. Though the British short-range fire caused enormous losses to the enemy, yet the momentum of the German attack, combined with the impossibility of engaging with artillery the masses of German troops enabled them to press forward.

At the lower end of Gen. Gough's thin line, a fierce battle ensued at the Crozat Canal which von Hutier's troops crossed at Quessy and Jussy, advancing toward Vouel.

Meanwhile, in the center of the battle front, von der Marwitz had captured Ste. Emilie Villers Faucon Hervilly and Le Verguier, after a most gallant defense. Roisel thus being threatened, Gen. Gough withdrew his troops, reorganizing them behind the line of the third defensive zone near Bernes. The division holding Epehy also fell back.

On the Third Army front, strong attacks inaugurated by the Germans at Villers Plouich, Hermies and Haurincourt were repulsed by Gen. Byng's troops with great slaughter, the leading wave of a strong attack launched between Hermies and Beaumetz-les-Cambrai being annihilated. At Vrancourt the Germans broke through the rear line of the battle zone and penetrated into the village, but in a counter-attack by infantry and tanks were driven out. Further west, after heavy fighting, the Germans forced their way into the battle zone along the line of the Croisilles road.

### Germans Break Through at St. Quentin

As the day wore on, the Germans in great force attacked Gen. Gough's front west of St. Quentin. The loss of Maissimy and Le Verguier had greatly weakened his line. By noon the whole of Gough's center had retreated beyond the third zone of defence. Here two reserve divisions took over the front to enable Gough to reorganize his forces. The 30th Division, on a six-mile front, sustained the German pressure for some hours, but by evening the Britons were pressed back from Poeuilly.

During this retreat, a gap had opened between two British divisions, through which the Germans poured, penetrating through the third defensive zone about Vaux and Beauvais. All available reserves at the disposal of Gen. Gough's army had already been thrown into the fight, and except for one French division and some French Cavalry no further support was within reach of the firing line. There remained, therefore, no course open but to fall back on the bridgehead positions east of the Somme.

Accordingly, at 11 o'clock that night, Gen. Gough ordered his Eighteenth Corps to fall back immediately behind the line of the Somme south of Voyennes, in touch with the Third Corps on their right, while the 19th and 7th Corps endeavored to secure the main Peronne bridgehead, before forming a junction along the third zone, with Gen. Byng's Third Army about Equaucourt.

To conform with Gough's retreat, Gen. Byng's army also had to fall back to a line running from Equaucourt to Fampoux.



### Retreat of Gen. Gough

BYNG'S retreat was not seriously threatened, but Gough's troops, almost dead with fatigue, were ceaselessly pounded through the night. While retreating, Gen. Gough received word that the Germans had forced the line of the Crozat Canal, and that the German front as far back as Mt. D'Origny was packed with the advancing troops.

This led him to reconsider his decision to renew the battle east of the Somme. His troops had been fighting 48 hours without rest, and if involved in a general engagement they might be exposed to a decisive defeat before reinforcements could arrive. He therefore decided to abandon the Peronne bridgehead position and fall back behind the Somme.

### Third Day of Battle

GOUGH'S withdrawal began early the next morning, the Germans ceaselessly hammering at his fatigued columns. Gaps already existed between the British divisions and these were constantly widening. The whole British Army was in a perilous position. Meanwhile, von Hutier's German troops had crossed the Crozat Canal at Jussy and Mennessis, and pushed the 3d British Corps back among the woodlands between the Somme and the Oise.

In the course of Gough's withdrawal to the Somme, a gap occurred in his line, through which the Germans had pushed to the capture of Ham. In the afternoon these forces increased in strength, gradually pressing back the British troops, and crossing the river on two bridges that had not been destroyed. They were checked on the western bank by a spirited counter-offensive. Meanwhile Byng's army, at the north of the line, was holding firm, while repulsing numerous attacks, though its right flank was in some danger.

At the point of junction between Byng's and Gough's armies a critical situation had arisen. During the withdrawal, a gap had opened between the 5th and the 7th Corps. The Germans leaped into the opening, and forced the 7th Corps across the Tortille River to the high ground around Bouchavesnes, where they occupied the old Somme

front, barely keeping in touch with the right wing of Byng's army. The 5th Corps also was forced to retire to a position east of Rocquigny. Against these almost disorganized armies was pitted the flower of the German war machine—the famous Prussian Guards and the Brandenburgers.

### French Take Over Part of British Front

IN response to Gen. Haig's appeal for aid, Gen. Petain agreed to take over the front south of Peronne, and the French General Fayolle was given command of the 3d, 18th and 19th Corps of Gen. Gough's army. At the same time, a special force of reserve divisions was made up from the armies of Gens. Horne and Plumer, which were holding two sectors in the battle line north of Arras. Measures were also taken to permit of the employment of the Canadian Corps for counter-attack.

When night closed on the third day of battle, Gen. Gough's army, half crazed for want of sleep, was in desperate case. Though the Somme line, between Epenancourt and the Peronne bend, was still held by the British, Peronne itself had fallen. The dry weather had left the Somme River fordable at any point, thus weakening the defensive barrier behind which the British forces must make their stand.

### The Fight for the Somme Crossings

AT dawn, on March 24th, the Germans made strenuous efforts to cross the Somme at many points. Two detachments did succeed in crossing at St. Christ and Bethencourt, but they were driven back by troops of the 8th Division. At Pargny, however, the Germans finally gained a firm foothold on the west bank of the river, thus entering a wedge between the British 8th and 28th Divisions. At nightfall the line of the river, north of Epenancourt, was held by the British, but the gap opposite Pargny had been widened and the Germans had reached Morchain. South of that point, the 20th Division, with its left flank in the air, and having exhausted all reserves in gallant and successful counter-attacks, fell back to the line of the Libermont Canal, to which position the great weight of the enemy's attacks from Kam had already pressed back the troops on its right.



### British Retreat from Chauny

IN the battle area between the Somme and Oise Rivers, the retreating 20th and 36th Divisions at Eaucourt and Cugny were furiously attacked by the enemy. Had it not been for the gallant charge by a squadron of the 6th Cavalry Brigade, which broke through the German line, taking 100 prisoners and sabering numbers of the enemy, the troops might not have been able to escape their pursuers. The two divisions fell back first to Villeselue and then to the neighborhood of Guiscard.

### Bapaume and Peronne Captured

THE 3d Corps, which on this day passed under the command of the 3d French Army, was not yet in sufficient strength to hold up the enemy's advance, and was gradually forced back to the south and west of Chauny. During the night the French and British troops immediately north of the Oise were withdrawn to the ridge above Crepigny.

Though the Somme line between Epenancourt and Peronne was still held by the British, Bapaume had been captured by the Germans, Peronne had fallen, and the Germans very soon after were in possession of Bus, Lechelle, Le Mesnil, Sailly, Rancourt, Clery and Bertincourt.

### Crossing the Ancre River

ALL that night, March 24th-25th, constant fighting took place on the northern portion of the battle front about Sapignies and Behagnies, where the Germans made unsuccessful efforts to pierce the British line. Shortly after dawn, of March 25th, a determined attack by the Germans was repulsed with great loss and a counter-attack by the 42d Division drove the Germans out of Sapignies. At noon the German attacks developed in great force; the 4th British Corps was pushed back, and the Germans gained Grevillers and Bihucourt.

Between Montauban and Grevillers, the British troops had been unable to establish touch on the line to which they had withdrawn the day before. After beating off a number of strong assaults, the divisions began to fall back individually toward the Ancre, thereby widening the gap between the

5th and 4th Corps. The Germans reached Courcellette that afternoon and pressed on through the gap in the direction of Pys and Irles, seriously threatening the flank of the 4th Corps.

It became clear that the Third French Army, which was mothering all the British troops north of the Somme, would have to continue the withdrawal of its center to the line of the Ancre, already crossed by certain of the British troops near Beaucourt.

All possible steps were taken to secure this line, but by nightfall hostile patrols had reached the right bank of the Ancre north of Miraumont and were pushing forward between the flanks of the 4th and 5th Corps in the direction of Serre.

Thus menaced, the 4th Corps fell back by stages during the night and morning to the line Bucquoy-Ablainzevelle, in touch with the 6th Corps about Boyelles. The remaining divisions on the right were withdrawn to the west bank of the Ancre.

In spite of the dangerous gap about Serre, the general position of the Third Army front was far from hopeless; reinforcements were coming up rapidly and it was hoped that the line of the Ancre would be secured and the enemy stopped north of the Somme.

### Germans Occupy Noyon

DURING the night the Germans had taken Guiscard. On the morning of March 25th, they strongly attacked the British east of Noyon, compelling the Allied batteries to withdraw across the Oise Canal at Appily. Another heavy attack in this sector was checked after hard fighting, and the troops of the 18th Division retook the village of Baboeuf by a brilliant counter-attack. That night the Germans entered Noyon, the French and British troops retiring southward across the Oise. The troops of the 3d British Corps were gradually relieved by the French reinforcements and sent north to rejoin the French Army.

### The Retreat from the Somme

MEANWHILE the gap between the 18th and 19th Corps of Gough's Fifth Army had widened; the Germans had pushed through and entered Nesle, forcing the French and Brit-

ish troops back to the south bank of the Ingon. To the north of Nesle, the 19th Corps was slowly pressed back in the direction of Chaulnes, but at midday the Allied troops were still holding the line of the canal east of Villers Carbonnel and Barleax. It was impossible, however, to maintain this position, and during the evening of the 25th the British and French withdrew to the general line Hattencourt-Estrees-Frise.

The situation south of the Somme was everywhere most critical, due in part to the rapid retreat of Byng's Third Army. The entire line south of the Peronne had gone, all local reserves had been used up, and no aid could be extended to the 18th and 19th Corps.

#### **American Engineers Help Save British Line**

THE gap between the 18th and 19th British Corps, west of Nesle, had now widened to eight miles and the Germans had pushed through to Liancourt Wood. In this emergency a brigade of the 20th Division was rushed in motor busses to the neighborhood of Liancourt and, though reduced to 450 rifles, they successfully held up the enemy's advance and made it possible for the remainder of the division to withdraw unmolested through Roye on the morning of the 26th. It was imperative that this gap be closed at once lest the Germans should pour through, seize Amiens, and thus control the trunk line railroad connecting Paris and the Channel ports.

Maj.-Gen. Grant, the chief engineer to the 5th Army, on March 25th, had collected a motley force of 1,500 men, comprising two companies of American Engineers, who had been engaged in road work near by, cooks, electricians, orderlies, surveyors, signalers, machine gunners, labor battalions, engineers and cavalry scouts. This small force was posted in the mouth of the gap on the line of the old Amiens defences between Mesieres, Marcelclave and Hamel.

Subsequently, Brigadier-Gen. Sandeman Carey, an officer of field artillery just returned from leave, was put in charge and commanded the detachment throughout the subsequent fighting. This "scratch force" constituted the sole reserves available for

this most vital section. Incredible as it may seem, this handful of Americans and Britishers held the gap for six days.

As the 19th Corps could not possibly hold the enemy in check, orders were given to fall back slowly to the new position Le Quesnoy-Rosieres-Proyart and to link up with the Third Army at Bray.

#### **Gap Between French and British Closed**

ON the morning of March 26th, the Germans reattacked in strength west and southwest of Nesle, in the double hope of separating the French and British Armies, and by the speedy capture of Montdidier to prevent the detraining of the French Reserves who were now hastening to the relief of the sorely pressed Britishers.

The assault against the British line was made at Hattencourt and along the St. Quentin-Amiens Road to Herbecourt. Under the pressure of these assaults the 18th and 19th Corps slowly retired.

Perhaps never before was there seen such automatic fighting. So utterly exhausted were the combatants on both sides that attacks and counter-attacks were carried out at a slow walk. "Men fell down helpless from fatigue and both sides took unwounded prisoners who were simply paralyzed with weariness."

As the British forces retired westward, the French troops on their right were gradually forced back in a southwesterly direction beyond Roye, leaving a gap between the two armies, of which the enemy took immediate advantage. Into this breach were flung the 36th and 30th German Divisions which had been withdrawn to rest on the previous day. Although the Germans reached Erches, the 36th Division held them at Andechy until the next day, thus preventing their breaking through to Montdidier. As night fell on the 27th, though the British right had been pressed back, and Gen. von Hutier's advance was within five miles of Montdidier, the gap had been partially closed and the British were again in touch with the French.

#### **Northern Advance Stopped**

NORTH of the Somme the battle was entering upon its final stages. The gap between



the 5th and 6th Corps still existed and bodies of German Infantry had worked through and occupied Colincamps with machine guns. These guns were silenced by the British field artillery. In this engagement the light British whippet tanks were first used and proved highly effective. On the night of the 26th the Germans entered Albert and also gained a footing across the Ancre River. On the 27th, following a series of attacks on the 4th Corps positions, the Germans captured Ablainzevelle and Alette. Elsewhere all assaults were heavily repulsed. Except on its right wing, Gen. Byng's Third Army now held a secure position.

### British Blunder at Bray

THE 7th Corps of Byng's Third Army now committed a stupid blunder which seriously jeopardized the Fifth Army. This corps had retired upon the Bray-Albert line, after a gallant action at Meaulte on the 26th, but in disobedience of Gen. Haig's orders, the corps continued its retirement to the Somme, leaving the left wing of Byng's army uncovered at Proyart, five miles to the east. This gave the Germans the chance to cross the river and take Byng's 19th Corps in the rear.

### Gen. Foch Given Supreme Command

THE successful drive of the Germans had amazed and terrified all Europe—the English in particular. To them it was inexplicable that the greatest army Britain had ever assembled should be pushed back like a football 30 miles on a 40-mile front in less than a week.

All the rest of the world knew that the failure of the Allies to stem the German tide was due to the lack of co-ordination between the British and French High Commands.

The British War Staff and the British Lords, while exhibiting their incapacity to the world for four years, had flatly refused to consent to the appointment of a generalissimo with supreme command over all the armies. They evidently could not endure the thought of taking orders from some democratic general of France—even though he were a Joffre, a Foch or a Petain.

President Wilson bade these snobbish generals and petty lords to cease their puerili-

ties and agree on a co-ordination of effort under one supreme leader, since much more was now at stake than the mere preservation of Great Britain.

A greater nation—America—was now involved in the struggle and the voice of the nation demanded that the British generals swallow their silly pride and accept orders of their Master, Gen. Ferdinand Foch of France, the greatest strategist in all Europe. The world was to be made safe, not for British or German or Anglo-Saxon autocracy, but for democracy the world over.

### British Chief of Staff Resigns

AMERICA'S voice prevailed and on March 29th Gen. Foch was appointed Commander-in-Chief of all the Allied forces in France, which then included French, British, American, Italian, Belgian and Portuguese elements. Stubborn to the last, Gen. William Robertson, the Chief of Staff of the British Army, resigned in protest against the appointment of Foch, and was succeeded in that office by Gen. Sir Henry Wilson.

### Montdidier and Albert Taken

ON the morning of March 27th, the Germans attacked all along the line, south of the Somme, von Hutier's army captured Lassigny, Davescourt and Montdidier. Crossing the Somme at Chipilly, the Germans drove the Allies out of Proyart, Framerville and Marcourt. Rosieres was held against all attacks and at nightfall the Allies were still east and north of Harbonnieres. South of Rosieres, as far as Arvillers, the Allied position held firm.

### Gen. Gough Deposed

GEN. GOUGH, on this day, was deposed from his command and sent to the rear to construct new defensive lines. The remnant of the demoralized Fifth Army was detached from the line and sent back to Abbeville to recuperate. A new Army, the 4th, composed of the divisions operating below the Somme, was hastily organized and put in command of Gen. Sir Henry Rawlinson.

During the night of March 27th-28th, the Germans attacked the British Center, taking Bayonvillers and Ularfusee-Abancourt, and



getting astride the Amiens-St. Quentin Road. This advance compelled the 19th Corps to swing back to the line Vrely-Marcelclave, Carey's "scratch force" continuing the front to the river. The 18th Corps found its position in the narrow salient between the Luce and the Avre untenable and fell back on the line of the old Amiens defences.

### The Battle for Amiens

THE Germans were now within sight of their immediate objective, the city of Amiens, which occupies a strategic position on the trunkline railroad connecting Paris with Calais and Boulogne. It was by way of this

railroad that the French reinforcements were to detrain. With this city in their possession, the Germans might be able to separate the British from the French and perhaps coop up the British forces in the north-west area of France. The heights of Avre, ten miles to the east of Amiens, commanded that city. Once on these heights the German guns could absolutely dominate both the railroad and the city. Gen. von Hutier was pushing westward with great speed toward the Avre Heights. His army had marched 38 miles in eight days; they were short of food and munitions and had outrun their heavy guns. Would he be able to capture Amiens?

## Germans Defeated in Battle of Arras

### British Forces, 120,000

Gen. de Lisle  
Gen. Ferguson  
Gen. Haldane  
Gen. de Mitry

### German Forces, 250,000

Gen. Otto von Below  
Gen. Bernhardt  
Gen. von Arnim

UNABLE to break through the French front, at the southern end of the long battle line, the Germans suddenly launched a powerful offensive at the northern end, round about Arras. This assault was made on March 28th by the army group of Gen. Otto von Below, numbering 250,000 men. The British were able to oppose this assault with 120,000 men, under command of Gens. de Lisle, Ferguson and Haldane.

The attack was made at three points—north of the Scarpe River, where 60,000 Germans hurled themselves against the line; at Arras, where 50,000 were engaged, and in the Serrà sector, where 140,000 Germans attempted to break through and capture Vimy Ridge. After a brief but fierce bombardment, the German Infantry attacked in mass formation, in some places six deep, but the great squares melted before the fire of the British guns. In places the momentum of the attack carried the Germans through gaps in the outpost line, but at no point were they able to reach the main defence zone.

Repeated attacks were made on Vimy Ridge, but the line there held firm. From Boiry to Bucquoy the assaults of the Germans were equally futile. Only on the ex-

treme right had the Britishers yielded a little ground, falling back south of Dernancourt to the line Mericourt-Sailly-le-Sec. Von Below's offensive had proved a complete and disastrous failure. The losses of the Germans in this engagement were tremendous. For a week or more von Below's troops indulged in spasmodic assaults, but to no avail. This sector at least was Hun-proof.

### Fighting in the Avre and Luce Valleys

THWARTED at Arras, the Germans resumed their offensive south of the Somme on March 29th. The new Fourth Army, under Gen. Rawlinson, which occupied the area vacated by Gough's demoralized army, had scarcely established its battle line; it was, moreover, weak in men. The only reinforcements available were the wearied divisions of the 3d Corps.

To the right of Rawlinson Gen. Humbert was being sorely pressed between Moreuil and Noyon, Gen. Fayolle's reserves not having arrived.

On the 29th the French were driven out of Mesieres and Denain, but on the following day both towns were recaptured by the French and British, whose forces were by



this time inextricably mixed in this sector. North of the Luce, the enemy was driven back in Aubercourt by the Australian troops, the cavalry assisting. South of the Luce, the British line was re-established. Other hostile attacks on both banks of the Somme were repulsed with heavy loss by the Australians, gallantly assisted by a battalion of United States Engineers and by the 1st Cavalry Division.

The fighting between the Avre and the Luce developed, on the last day of March, into strong attacks between Moreuil and Denain. Powerful assaults were also delivered on the French front as far as Montdidier. When night fell the British had re-occupied their old line west of Warfusee-Abancourt.

### **The Offensive is Finally Stopped**

THE German drive had slowed down, partly because their infantry had outrun their artillery, but chiefly because they had sustained heavy losses and were waiting for reinforcements to arrive. On April 4th and 5th they made a final effort to prevent the British and French line from becoming stable. The principal attack, on April 4th, involving the entire British front from Hangard to the Somme, where the two armies joined, resulted in a short withdrawal of the British forces. The French front, too, yielded ground on both sides of the Ancre River. On the next day, the Germans attacked the British front from Dernancourt to Bucquoy and near Hangard. North of the river they were driven back or held tight, and any hope they may have entertained of opening the road to Amiens ended in a costly repulse. In the neighborhood of Rossignol Wood the enemy's attack was entirely disorganized by a counter-attack. With the failure of these last efforts, the German offensive on the Somme battlefield ceased, while the plans for a new campaign in the Lys area were being developed. The great drive had been halted at last.

### **Germans Lose 500,000 Men**

THE Germans had paid a fearful price for the victory. They had lost 500,000 men in killed, wounded and captured, while the total

casualties of the Allies were 100,000 killed and wounded, and 60,000 prisoners. To offset this appalling sacrifice, the Germans could point to the destruction of a British Army and a gain of 30 miles on a 40-mile front. The salient which they had been carving into the British front extended westward 30 miles at its apex.

The ridges commanding the flanks of this salient, at Vimy Ridge and Lassigny, were held by the Allies. One desperate drive against Vimy Ridge had been foiled on March 28th, by the Canadians, but it was known that the enemy, heavily reinforced, was preparing for another assault on the Ridge.

### **Gen. Pershing Offers All U. S. Forces to France**

ON March 28th, the day Montdidier and Albert were seized by the Germans, Gen. John J. Pershing, Commander-in-Chief of the American Army in France, called on Gen. Foch at headquarters and placed at his disposal all of the United States forces to be used as he might decide. Gen. Pershing assured Marshal Foch that the American people would consider it a great honor if their troops were engaged in the pending battle, the greatest in history. He came to ask that honor in the name of the American people. All that we had—infantry, artillery, aviation—was at the disposal of Gen. Foch to do with as he would. Secretary of War Baker, then a visitor at American headquarters in France, expressed his delight at General Pershing's prompt and effective action. Gen. Pershing's offer was laid before the French War Council, at the front, and on March 31, 1918, an official note announced that the American troops would fight side by side with the French and British, and that "the Star Spangled Banner will float beside the French and English flags in the plains of Picardy."

At Gen. Foch's request, the U. S. 1st Division was transferred from the Toul sector to a position in reserve at Chaumont en Vexin.

Meantime American troops were rounding out their war training in eight sectors along the Western front—near Montdidier, northwest of Chateau Thierry, east of Chateau Thierry, at Toul, in Lorraine, three in Alsace, one near the border line, another south

of that, and one in front of Belfort. In all there were 375,000 American soldiers in France, on March 31st. Of these, four divisions were fully trained and two more divisions nearly ready for action, making a force of nearly 170,000 Americans immediately available for use on the battle front. The French Government supplied our troops with all necessary artillery equipment, besides 2,676 airplanes and as many tanks as they could spare from their limited production. The first American built planes did not reach France until May, 1918.

### German Long Range Gun Kills 75 in Paris

It was during this March drive that the mysterious German long range guns first began bombarding Paris with nine-inch shells from their location in the forest of St. Gobain, 75 miles distant. Three of these guns were used, firing some two dozen shells each day into Paris. The shells fell mainly in the Montmartre district, in a radius of about a mile. The bombardment began on March 23, 1918, the day's casualties being 10 killed and 15 wounded. Day after day, as the shells dropped at 20-minute intervals, the public

mood of Paris continued unchanged, with subway and surface cars running, and the streets thronged with gayety unchecked.

On March 29th, a shell struck the Catholic church of St. Gervais during the Good Friday Service and at the moment of the Elevation of the Host, killing 75 persons and wounding 90. Fifty-four of the victims were women. The projectiles, weighing about 200 pounds each, contained two charges in two chambers, connected by a fuse, which often exploded a minute or more apart. The shells required three minutes to reach Paris from St. Gobain, and it was estimated that in their passage through the air they rose to a height of twenty miles.

One of these guns exploded on March 29th, killing a German lieutenant and nine men. The location of the remaining two guns was discovered by French aviators on April 9, 1918. A few days later a French shell put one out of commission. Bombs weighing half a ton each dropped around the other gun and crater holes were scooped out which interfered with its use. Only occasionally after that was the gun fired, with little damage resulting.

..... EASTERN THEATER, MAR. 29—JUNE 4 .....

## Turks Reconquer Armenia and Resume Their Massacres

Armenians Betrayed by Georgians and Tartars After Federation is Formed

..... SECTION II—1918 .....

Armenian Forces  
Gen. Andranik  
Georgian Forces  
Tartar Forces

Turkish Forces  
Enver Pasha  
Talaat Pasha

**E**VER since the Bolshevik Revolution in Russia, the region between the Black and Caspian Seas, known as the Caucasus, had been a storm center. To save themselves from the anarchy that spread over the rest of Russia, the peoples of this region had organized the Federal Republic of the Caucasus in the autumn of 1917. This government consisted of Georgians, Armenians and Tartars, representing 5,500,000 inhabitants and an area of 250,000 square kilometers. To these were added 200,000 Armenian refugees from Turkey.

Georgia had existed as a state long before the Christian era, and under David III it became a kingdom in 1080. Following an invasion of Turks and Persians, Georgia was annexed as a province of Russia in 1801. The Georgian mountaineers never became reconciled to Russian dominion and in connection with the Circassians they carried on a guerilla warfare for 40 years. In 1864 they were finally defeated and given the choice of submitting or emigrating to Turkey. Only 90,000 submitted and 418,000 emigrated to Turkey. Meanwhile, in 1811, the indepen-



dence of the Georgian church, which had existed since the year 542, was abolished by the Russians; only six bishoprics out of 28 were allowed to remain and more than \$350,000,000 of church property was confiscated.

Armenia's history also traces back six centuries before Christ. The kingdom was the first to embrace Christianity, but the church is independent not only of the Eastern, Greek and Slavic Church, but of Rome itself. At the period of the Crusades, the Armenians founded a kingdom in Cilicia and aided the Crusaders. Since the last of the Crusades there have been no independent Armenians; they have been dominated in turn by the Mussulman, Persian and Turkish states. In the 19th century the Caucasus portion of Armenia was annexed to Russia.

In spite of their subjugation, however, the Armenians have retained their own customs, language, literature and church. Hindered by persecution from tilling their lands, the Armenians emigrated to other countries, where they developed eminent qualities. Thus they came to fill a large place in Constantinople, in Egypt, in Poland and Baku, in the basin of the Mediterranean and in America.

Since the fifth century they have been "carriers of civilization," to use Prof. Meillet's phrase, and their vanguard position has made them as well the martyrs of Western culture. Their culture and industry made them odious to their Turkish masters who, in spite of treaty pledges, neglected to carry out reforms or to protect the Armenians from attacks by the savage Kurds and Circassians.

During the reign of Sultan Abdul Hamid, in the years 1894, 1895 and 1896, great massacres took place in Christian Armenia, while the so-called Christian powers of Europe looked on indifferent. When the "Young Turks" gained control of Turkey they promised reforms, but failing to "Turkify" Armenia they caused the terrible massacre at Ardana.

When the World War broke out in 1914, the Young Turks sent emissaries to the National Congress of the Ottoman Armenians, then sitting at Erzerum, and made them offers of autonomy if they would actively assist Turkey in the War. The Armenians re-

plied that they would do their duty individually as Ottoman subjects, but that as a nation they could not work for the cause of Turkey and her German allies.

On account of this courageous refusal, the Ottoman Armenians were systematically murdered by the Turkish Government in 1915. Two-thirds of the population were exterminated by the most cold-blooded and fiendish methods—more than 700,000 people, men, women and children alike. From the beginning of the World War, that half of the Armenian Nation which was under the sovereignty of Russia organized volunteer forces, and under their heroic leader, Gen. Andranik, bore the brunt of some of the heaviest fighting in the Caucasus campaigns.

After the breakdown of the Russian Army in 1917, these Armenian forces took over the Caucasian front and for five months delayed the advance of the Turks, thus making possible the success of the British Army's campaign in Mesopotamia. Armenian soldiers fought in the ranks of the Allied forces in Syria; they served alike in the British, French and American Armies and they bore their loyal part in General Allenby's great victory in Palestine.

When the Russian Caucasus Army of 250,000 abandoned the country to its fate, the Tartars arose en masse, uniting with a Turkish Army of 75,000 to reconquer Armenia and destroy the little Armenian Army numbering scarcely 30,000 men. But the Armenians were to receive aid from an unexpected quarter. The Bolsheviki meantime had gained the ascendancy in Russia and by the terms of the Brest-Litovsk Treaty they had surrendered to the Turks large portions of Russian Armenia and Georgia. At once the Georgians, Armenians and Tartars united for their own defence. A Federation of the Caucasus was formed with a Georgian as President. Unfortunately, this republic did not endure, due to racial jealousies.

Early in March, 1918, the Turks and Tartars sent armed forces to take possession of the districts of Erivan, Kars and Batum. The oil wells at Baku had been held by a small Armenian force for nearly six months. Now a combined army of Turks and Tartars descended in overwhelming force upon the



Armenians and threatened their destruction. A small force of British had come to the assistance of the Armenians, but their united strength was insufficient to repel the invaders. Finally, in mid April, the Armenians and British were compelled to evacuate Baku and take refuge in Persia. The Turks held these oil wells until the collapse of the Turkish armies in October.

Meantime the Georgians had been seduced by the Turks, who promised them Batum as the price of betraying Armenia. On April 17th, Batum fell to the Turks and the entire Armenian population was massacred. Men, women and children were killed without mercy and their property plundered or burned. Even Bolshevik Russia protested to Germany against this massacre, but the protest went unheeded.

Not content with this act of treachery, the Georgians further assisted the Turks. The Georgian President of the Caucasus Federation ordered the Armenians to deliver to the Turks the fortress of Kars and the Armenians had to obey. Naturally, this treachery resulted in the dissolution of the Caucasus

Republic. On May 26, 1918, Georgia declared herself an "independent republic," with strong German-Turkish leanings. Two days later the Tartars declared the Republic of Azerbaidjan and the Armenians also proclaimed a republic, with Erivan as its Capital.

The Armenians defended their republic with great heroism. In two notable battles with the Turks, at Sardarabad and Karakilissa, lasting four days, they completely routed the enemy, whose casualties exceeded 6,000. Retreating to their frontier the Turks began negotiations for peace with Armenia. Preliminaries for peace were signed on June 4, 1918, subject to ratification within 30 days, but these were never concluded and the status of affairs was unchanged up to the time the Turkish armies surrendered to the Allies.

On November 30, 1918, the Armenian National Delegation at Paris proclaimed the independence of Integral Armenia and placed it under the guarantee of the League of Nations.

#### WESTERN THEATER, APR. 9—30

## Second Great German Drive Fails in the Valley of the Lys

Germans Sacrifice 150,000 Men in Futile Attempt to Reach Channel Ports

#### SECTION 12—1918

Allied Forces, 250,000

Gen. Foch, Commander-in-Chief

British Armies—Gen. Haig, Commander

1st Army—Gen. Horne

2d Army—Gen. Plumer

French Army Corps—Gen. de Mitry

Portuguese Forces, 20,000

German Forces, 500,000

Gen. Ludendorff, Commander

1st Army—Gen. von Arnim

2d Army—Gen. Bernhardt

3d Army—Gen. von Quast

**G**EN. FOCH'S superb strategy had enabled the wearied armies of Britain and France, though outnumbered two to one, to halt the first German drive toward the Channel Ports in the vital sector between Montdidier and the Luce River on April 5, 1918.

The Germans paused two days to catch their breath and spy out a more vulnerable point of attack in the Allied line. They found it further north in the 20-mile sector lying between La Basse and Ypres, which

had been depleted by the withdrawal of 100,000 men to assist in checking the German drive south of the Somme.

Of the remaining nine divisions defending this sector, eight were at the point of exhaustion from the strain of the retreat from St. Quentin. In truth, one of the Portuguese divisions already had been sent to the rear to recuperate and the other was preparing to leave for the rear when the Germans made their new thrust in the Valley of the Lys.



### The German Strategy

THE purpose of the Germans in attacking was not to break through in this sector, but to pave the way for breaking through in another sector nearer Amiens. In their first drive toward Amiens, by way of Montdidier, it will be recalled, the Germans had been checked by ten British divisions hurriedly withdrawn from the Lys sector to the support of the Allied Armies south of the Somme. Now the Germans hoped, by attacking this depleted Lys sector in force, from La Bassee to Ypres, to compel the return of those ten divisions to the Lys Valley. This withdrawal would naturally weaken the Allied defensive on the Montdidier front, and enable a still greater German force to begin a second great drive toward Amiens with every hope of success. Or, if the Lys line were pierced, they would have separated the British and French Armies, and the path would be open to Dunkirk and Calais.

Having a combined force of 2,400,000 men to draw from on the Western front, Ludendorff was prepared to expend 500,000 German lives, if need be, in a quick, crashing campaign in the Lys Valley, while at the same time his main offensive army was held intact in front of Montdidier, awaiting the signal for the resumption of the main offensive toward Amiens.

Gen. Foch had discerned the plans of the Germans, but being outnumbered two to one, and his armies ready to drop from fatigue, he was forced to move cautiously. It was imperatively necessary that the Lys sector should be strengthened at once. Several divisions of British troops, which had just passed through the furnace of the Somme, were rushed to La Bassee and soon found themselves exposed to the full fury of a second great assault by fresh German corps. Despite this disadvantage, they proved, through many days of close and obstinate fighting, that their spirit was as high as ever and their courage and determination unabated.

### Disposition of the Forces

IN the Lys battle, which occupied three weeks, from April 9th to April 30th, the Germans engaged against the British forces

a total of 42 divisions, numbering 500,000 men, of which 33 were fresh and nine had fought previously on the Somme. Opposing them were 25 British divisions, totaling 250,000 men, of which 17 had fought for days without sleep or rest, and only eight were in fresh condition.

The battleground, midway between Ypres and La Bassee, is traversed east and west by the River Lys. On the north bank lies the Forest of Nieppe, with a line of hills running east and west to Kemmel and Wytschaete. South of the Lys, there is a broad expanse of boggy meadow land, extending ten miles to the La Bassee Canal, with the Aubers Ridge overlooking Lille in the near distance.

Ludendorff's first aim was to pierce the British line between La Bassee and Armentieres, capture Bethune, take possession of Hazebrouck and the ridge of hills north of Bailleul, and thus compel a general British retirement west of Dunkirk to the sea. Then, if Gen. Foch should transfer his last reserves to this sector, the Germans intended to resume their interrupted grand offensive toward Amiens by way of Montdidier.

From the Lys River north to the sea, the British front was held by the Second Army under Gen. Plumer, with Gens. Jacobs, Godley and Gordon as corps commanders. The German Fourth Army in the same area was commanded by Gen. von Arnim. South of the Lys, as far as La Bassee, the British line was defended by Gen. Horne's First Army, with Generals Du Cane, Haking and Holland as corps commanders. The opposing German front was held by Gen. von Quast's Sixth Army.

### Battle of the Lys Begins

WITH the arrival of the heavy German field guns and mortars, on Sunday, April 7, 1918, the battle of the Lys began with an intense gas bombardment between Lens and Armentieres, continuing for two days. Before daylight, of April 9th, an earth-shaking artillery preparation was begun, with high explosives.

At 7 A. M. the signal was given, and von Quast's German shock troops struck hard at the British line, south of the Lys. The center of the line, held by the Portuguese, immediately gave way and was forced back



four miles. The British flanks, on either side of the Portuguese, being now exposed, were quickly rolled back, the 55th Division to the line Festubert-Le-Touret, covering the city of Bethune, and the 40th Division to the line Bois Grenier-Sailley, covering Estaires.

Like droves of wild bulls, the Germans plunged through the gap, quickly occupying Richeburg, St. Vaast and Laventie. Two British reserve divisions were brought up to close the gap, but they, too, were pressed back. By nightfall, the Germans had forced the British across the Lys, but had not dislodged the 55th Division from its position in front of Bethune and Festubert.

Early the next morning, after a heavy bombardment, von Quast's legions advanced into Lestrum and Estaires, where machine-gun duels were engaged in all day. The British, by evening, were forced to evacuate both places, retiring some distance to the northwest.

### **Germans Take Armentieres**

THE attack north of the Lys was begun by von Arnim's troops on April 10th. Under cover of a heavy fog, the enemy "filtered" into the British position, from Ploegsteert Wood to Messines, along the valleys of the Warnave and the Donave. Ploegsteert village and Messines, each in turn were captured, and the Germans advanced to Wytschaete Ridge, where they were checked by a Scottish division. In a counter-attack that evening, by a South African brigade, Messines was recaptured and the Germans were driven from the Wytschaete Ridge. This relieved the British north flank.

Meanwhile, the British had abandoned Armentieres, which was no longer tenable, retiring to the left bank of the Lys. They still held Givenchy, the gateway to Bethune, and the commanding heights of Messines. During their two days' retreat they had lost 10,000 prisoners to the Germans. The French forces also had been forced to retire to the line of the Ailette River, losing two battalions of 1,000 men each.

### **Messines and Nieppe Abandoned**

ON the next day, the reinforced armies of von Quast and von Arnim attacked on the whole front. South of the Lys, two gaps

opened in the British line through which the Germans advanced to the capture of Neuf Berquin and Merville, the British falling back to the Bourre. Farther east, Le Verrier and La Becque were taken by the Germans, but in a counter-attack by the 31st Division, just arrived from the Somme, the villages were retaken.

On the left of the line the pressure was so strong that the British yielded both Messines and Nieppe, falling back to the neighborhood of Pont d'Achelles.

### **Germans Twice Break Through the Line**

A SUDDEN attack just before dawn on April 12th broke through the line near Pacant, but the enemy's advance was stopped at La Basse Canal by the batteries of the 255th Brigade. At Merville also the British maintained themselves successfully.

A serious situation, meanwhile, had arisen southwest of Bailleul, where the Germans broke through the line, and seized Outtersteene and Merris. Every available man, including those from schools and reinforcement camps, was called upon to defend the position and by evening the line had been reformed. It was on this day that Field Marshal Haig issued his historic appeal to his tired troops to stand firm with their "Backs to the Wall."

### **The Thrust Towards Hazebrouck**

ON the following day the Germans followed up their attacks with great vigor near Bailleul, where two British divisions were holding a front of nearly six miles. Several German attacks, in which an armoured car came into action, were repulsed with heavy loss to the enemy. The Germans then brought up field guns to point-blank range and blasted their way into the village of Vieux Berquin.

Elsewhere, on this front, the greatest gallantry was displayed. Battalions, when entirely surrounded, stood back to back in the trenches, shooting in front and rear.

By sheer force of numbers, however, the Germans at length forced their way through the fissures in the British line, the surviving garrisons of the British outposts fighting where they stood to the last with bullet and bayonet.



The heroic resistance of these troops afforded the leading brigades of the 1st Australian Division time to organize their line east of the Forest of Nieppe. The Australians now took up the fight and definitely closed the Hazebrouck corridor to the Germans.

### Neuve Eglise in German Hands

DURING the night of April 12th the Germans, in a determined drive, had occupied the village of Neuve Eglise, three miles southwest of Messines, but they were expelled the next morning. Reassembling in greater force, the Germans then pushed their way forward between La Creche and Neuve Eglise and on the 14th compelled the evacuation of La Creche, holding it definitely.

At other points along the British line, notably at Festubert, the Germans were obliged to yield ground. All their attacks on the French were unavailing, and the French even broke through the German line at Orvilles-Sovel.

### The Capture of Bailleul

DETERMINED to win Bailleul and the Ravelsburg Heights at any cost, 250,000 Germans hurled themselves against the British line in this sector. After many hours of violent fighting the Germans gained a footing on the eastern edge of Messines Ridge and, though driven back by a counter-attack, they finally re-established their positions and worked their way along the ridge. Subjected to constant shell fire, Bailleul with its many handsome buildings was reduced to a mass of ruins. The British evacuated the ruins on the evening of April 15th, falling back to a position between Meteren and Dranontre.

### The Withdrawal at Passchendaele

THE assaults on Messines Ridge, and the imminence of an attack from the north, called for the rectification of the Ypres salient. As a first step, Passchendaele was abandoned. The first stage in this withdrawal had been carried out on the night of April 12th. Since then Passchendaele Ridge had been held by outposts only. On the night of April 15th-16th, the evacuation was advanced when the British retired to new posi-

tions along the line of the Steenbeck River and the Westhoek and Wytschaete Ridges—a strong position.

On April 16th, the Germans seized Wytschaete and Spanbroekmolen, forcing the British to fall back on Lindenhoeck. They also gained a footing in Meteren. A French Army Corps, under Gen. Mitry, arrived that day and a vigorous counter-attack regained the villages of Meteren and Wytschaete, but they in turn were forced to relinquish these positions on the following day. Thus the northern pillar of British defence was lost, the British having been expelled everywhere from off the ridge. In order to shorten his lines, Field Marshal Haig ordered the evacuation of that part of the salient lying east of Ypres.

### Belgians Defeat Germans at Bixschoote

THE Germans now turned their attention to the Kemmel Heights, commanding Hazebrouck. If that town and Bethune could be taken, the capture of Dunkirk and possibly Calais would be assured, and the British Army confined in an area much too narrow for maneuvers in mass. Gen. Ludendorff had in reserve 250,000 fresh troops, five new divisions having just arrived from Russia, while the British, outnumbered four to one on certain sections of the battlefront, were exhausted after a month of unrelieved combat.

Gen. von Arnim's left wing, advancing from Neuve Eglise, and Wulverghem, assaulted the wooded slopes of Kemmel on April 17th, but it withered away under the British machine-gun fire. Simultaneous attacks against the British positions at Meteren and Merris failed to dislodge the valorous Canadians.

On the same day the right wing of von Arnim's army launched an attack north of the Ypres salient against the Belgians. At the first shock the Belgian line was pierced and the picked Bavarian troops pressed through the gap toward Bixschoote, but Allied reinforcements arrived and the German right flank was driven into marshy ground. Some 2,000 Bavarians were killed and 714 prisoners taken in this combat.



Von Arnim's offensive north of the Ypres salient having miserably failed,<sup>1</sup> von Quast now directed an attack on the southern flank of the salient near Bethune. The British occupied a strong position west of the La Bassee Canal, between Merville and Givenchy. Von Quast's army endeavored to secure the east bank of the canal on a broad front. In the first assault the German masses were repulsed with great slaughter by the fire of the British batteries. Advancing a second time by way of the Merville Road, the Germans reached the canal and launched their pontoons, but they never crossed it. The British poured so merciless a fire in their ranks as to cause them to retire in utter rout.

At Givenchy, where 36,000 Germans were massed against a single British division of 10,000 men, the assault was diverted by indomitable British resistance, though in the early stages of the battle the advanced outposts changed hands several times. So battered and torn were the Germans that they were obliged to suspend hostilities in the Lys sector for one entire week.

### **Kemmel Is Taken by the Germans**

FRENCH reinforcements had begun to arrive and by Sunday morning, April 21st, they had taken over the whole section of the line between Meteren and Mt. Kemmel, uniting at that point with the British right wing.

Gen. von Arnim, still hoping to separate the Allied armies, savagely attacked this point of junction on April 25th with 120,000 picked troops. His double aim was to capture Kemmel by a direct assault on the French front, combined with an attack upon the British right wing, south of Wytschaete, intended to turn the British flank and thus separate the two armies.

Success at first attended the German attack. Overborne by weight of numbers, the Allies were forced temporarily to resign the village of Kemmel, Mt. Kemmel itself and Wytschaete. Nevertheless, great numbers of Germans were killed by rifle and machine-gun fire at short range.

On the next day the French and English re-entered Kemmel, taking 300 prisoners, but again they were compelled to yield to over-

whelming pressure by the Germans. The French on this day recaptured the village of Locre in a very gallant action.

The capture of Kemmel Hill seriously threatened the British position in the Ypres salient and the troops were withdrawn to a new line running from Pilckem to Voormezele. Voormezele was captured by the Germans on the 27th, but was recovered on the same day.

The Germans now rained down gas and explosive shells upon the ruins of Ypres. All the villages and fields round about the Belgian town were showered with shells, resulting in the death of many women and children.

### **Germans Fail to Reach Ypres**

GEN. VON ARNIM, on the 29th, renewed his attempt to capture the chain of hills running westward below Ypres to Poperinghe, and including Mt. Rouge and Mt. Noir. These hills, then in possession of the French, formed the key position in the Allied defence line south of Ypres. A tremendous barrage was first laid down by the German artillery all the way from Ypres to Bailleul.

Then, under cover of a dense fog, two German columns advanced; one crossing the Yser Canal near Voormezele to strike at the British, the other seeking to pass Locre and attack the hills held by the French.

On the British front two assaults were repulsed with heavy losses, while on the French front the attack at first succeeded by its sheer weight. The Germans entered Locre, and even reached Hyde Park Corners, nearly gaining their objective.

In the evening, the French delivered a brilliant counter-stroke, driving the Germans out of Locre and chasing them back almost a mile. The Germans still held Mt. Kemmel, but their hold was valueless, as the Allied guns kept the summit smothered with shell fire.

Further north, the Belgians had repulsed an attack by 80,000 Germans on the Ypres-Stoden Railway, the Germans losing 20,000 men.

The enemy offensive in the Lys sector had spent its force after an advance of nine miles. Not only had the Germans failed to reach the



coast; they had been unable to capture Ypres or threaten Arras. During the month of May several minor actions took place, but Ludendorff's hope of separating the British and French Armies in the Ypres area was disappointed. Undeterred by two failures, however, he resolutely prepared to strike the Allied line at another point, further south.

The battle of the Lys had cost the Germans 150,000 men and the Allies 100,000. Includ-

ing their losses in the Somme offensive, the Germans had sacrificed 350,000 lives in a vain endeavor to gain a quick and decisive victory. They still had 2,500,000 men on the Western front, with 500,000 more in reserve, as against 2,000,000 for the Allies, but the Americans were arriving in France in ever increasing numbers, and soon the odds would turn against the Germans.

WESTERN THEATER, APR. 10

## Yankee Division Wins Its First German Encounter at Apremont

Germans Shell the American Trenches for Six Days in Toul Sector

SECTION 13-1918

### American Force, 3,000

104th Infantry, 26th (Yankee) Division

Col. George H. Shelton, in direct charge

Gen. Clarence R. Edwards, Commander-in-Chief

French Corps Commander, Gen. Passaga

### German Raiding Force, 3,000

Unidentified Commanders

THE Yankee Division, 32,000 strong, after four months of earnest training in various French camps, was moved up to the Chemin-des-Dames sector on February 1, 1918. Four days later the guns of Battery A, 101st Field Artillery, U. S. A., belched forth the first shots fired by any unit of the National Guard in the World War. On the evening of the same day, the 101st Infantry occupied a sector all its own, being the first National Guard contingent to be so signally honored. During its stay in this sector, where some pretty fighting took place, though none on a large scale, the Yankee Division was brigaded with the 11th French Army Corps, commanded by Gen. Maud'huy.

After 46 days at Chemin-des-Dames, the division was relieved. Then, under heavy shell fire, the tired Yankee boys entrained at Soissons for Rimancourt, looking forward to a period of promised rest and play. But it was not to be. The great German drive already had started on March 21st, sweeping over the very position the Yankee boys had just vacated, and on their arrival at Rimancourt they received orders to proceed to the Toul sector and relieve the U. S. 1st Division and a French Corps who were to assist in staying the German onrush.

So, with scant rest, the Yanks started on a ten days' hike northward through the bitter cold of winter, completing their 140-mile trip on the night of March 28th. Snow or rain fell steadily throughout their journey and for eight days the entire division was soaked to the skin. To add to their discomfort, there was but little water available and food was very scarce. What with lack of food and sleep, and constant exposure to the inclemency of the weather, the plight of the Yankee boys was deplorable. Yet they bore their sufferings with great fortitude. Though many horses gave way under the strain, but few of the Yankee boys broke down.

### Yanks Arrive in Toul Sector

THE Yankee Division held 15 kilometers of front in the Toul sector as against five kilometers held by the First Division. This was the largest sector held up to that time by any American division on any battle front. Scattered along the sector were a number of ruined villages—Bauconville, Marvoissin, Xivray, Apremont, Seicheprey, and the Woods of Jury and Remieres.

To the left, where the 26th joined with a French division, was a range of hills stretching all the way to Verdun, and dominated by

a peaked height known as Mt. Sec, and strongly fortified by the Germans. Behind the Yankee trenches lay a famous highway, and along its course were the important towns of Beaumont, Rambucourt and Raulincourt. Gen. Clarence R. Edwards, Commander of the 26th Division, established his headquarters in a beautiful chateau in the little town of Boucq.

No sooner was the Division settled in the Toul sector, than the French Corps Commander, Gen. Passaga, warned Gen. Edwards that the left of the line was exposed to the German artillery fire and that for four years the enemy had taken prisoners there at his pleasure. Gen. Edwards lost no time in strengthening the position.

### **German Attack Repulsed**

WHILE this work was underway, on April 3d, the German artillery heavily shelled the line at the point of contact of the American and French troops. The rain of shells continued during the next three days, compelling a quick shifting of American artillery positions, as the enemy had obtained a perfect range.

On the morning of April 10, 1918, following an all-night bombardment, 800 German storm troops advanced to assault the American line, aiming their thrust at the front of the Third Battalion of the 104th Infantry Regiment.

The Yankee gunners had anticipated the assault and were prepared for it. Col. John H. Sherburne ordered a barrage laid in the path of the advancing Huns. This checked the momentum of the first attack, less than 100 of the enemy breaking through the curtain of fire in the first rush.

Other Germans quickly followed, however, but as they approached near to the American line the Yankee boys assailed them with hand grenades, killing many of them and forcing

the others to seek safety in shell holes, before slinking back to their own lines.

### **Yankees Come to Rescue of the French**

AFTER nursing their wounded pride for two days, the Germans launched a second attack on the morning of the 12th, aiming this blow at the French trench line to the left of the Americans. Being heavily pressed, the French called upon the Yankees to counter-attack. Our boys, responding quickly, relieved the pressure on the French front.

A give and take battle followed, lasting all day and well into the night. It was close-up fighting, with grenades and revolvers as the preferred weapons.

Twice the Germans gained a footing in the American trenches, but they were as promptly expelled. Ultimately, the fight resolved itself into a combat between little groups of men, in which the Yankee boys were usually the aggressors and the victors.

The next day the boys of Co. G. 104th Infantry, carried the fight to the German trenches, giving the Huns such a drubbing that they desisted from any further attacks. The losses in this battle of Apremont were not officially disclosed, but it is known the Germans suffered many casualties.

During the battle, several American chaplains, both Catholic and Protestant, won the admiration of the soldiers by their disregard for death, caring for the wounded in the very thick of the fight. Notable among these heroic chaplains were the Catholic priests, Rev. John B. des Valles of New Bedford, and Rev. Osias Boucher of Ware, and the Episcopal Chaplain, Rev. Walter Danker of Worcester. Sad to relate, two of these cleric-heroes made the supreme sacrifice, Chaplain Danker being killed in battle, and Father des Valles dying after his return to America, as the result of a gas attack sustained in France.



WESTERN THEATER, APR. 20-21

## Yankee Division Units Gain New Glory in Battle of Seicheprey

2,000 "Raw Yanks" Put 3,300 Veteran German Soldiers to Flight in All-Day Battle

SECTION 14-1918

26th, Yankee Division, Units, Gen. Edwards  
 Gen. Passaga, French Corps Commander  
 Gen. Traub, 51st Brigade Commander  
 101st U. S. Infantry, Col. Logan  
 102d U. S. Infantry, Col. Parker  
 103d U. S. Infantry, Col. Hume  
 104th U. S. Infantry, Col. Shelton  
 Major John J. Gallant  
 Major Pau

German Forces, 3,300  
 Officers unidentified

THE first battle of size between any considerable number of American troops and the Germans took place at Seicheprey in the St. Mihiel sector, on April 20, 1918, one week after the German repulse at Apremont and while the Battle of the Lys was in progress further north. This engagement was confined to certain units of the 26th, or Yankee Division, principally the 51st Brigade and the 101st Regiment, numbering perhaps 2,000 men.

Though the Americans were now holding a long section of the battle front and each unit was acting under directions of its own officers, yet the whole series of operations in this sector were conducted by Gen. Passaga, the French Corps Commander, who transmitted his orders through Gen. Clarence R. Edwards, Commander of the Yankee Division.

The Germans, for several days, had been concentrating a large force behind their lines on a two-mile front opposite the shell-torn village of Seicheprey and the adjacent Remieres Wood, where the American and French lines joined. The Americans occupied a rather insecure position, their half-ruined trenches traversing the slope of a ridge exposed to the fire of the German guns on Mt. Sec. Two vulnerable points existed in the American front, east and west of Seicheprey, where the ravines curved into the American line, and it was at these points that the Germans decided to make their main thrust.

### Raid Follows Bombardment

AT 3 o'clock on the morning of April 20, 1918, during a heavy mist, the German guns

opened a violent bombardment of the whole battle area, wrecking the American telephone system and crumpling up the forward trenches. Besides being shelled, all the support positions were smothered in gas.

The Yankee batteries of the 102d and 103d artillery promptly laid a barrage between their line and the German trenches, but due to lack of ammunition and the destruction of their signaling system, it was far from continuous. The German gunners also laid down a curtain of fire behind the American trenches to prevent the despatch of reinforcements from the reserves in the rear.

This unequal duel lasted two hours. Then, at 5 o'clock, a force of 3,300 German storm troops, advanced behind their barrage in three columns, accompanied by a detail of flame-throwers. The Germans aimed at piercing the American line at two points and getting in the rear of Seicheprey.

Under protection of box barrages, this simultaneous attack was carried out. One German column advanced along a ravine leading to the west side of Seicheprey, while the second column rushed through a ravine on the east side between the Remieres and Jury Woods. At the same time a frontal attack was carried out behind a rolling barrage.

### Germans Overcome Yankees

THE German rush began successfully. Both columns entered the town from either side and formed a connection, cutting off a large portion of the American troops. The battle then resolved itself into a series of scattered platoon combats, in which small groups of Americans engaged twice their number of Germans.



One American combat group, in the left of the Sibelle trench was captured intact; another group resisted until every man in it was either killed, captured or wounded; other groups fought until they had been surrounded and overpowered. Many of these, while being taken as prisoners to the German rear, broke away or endeavored to brain their guards.

The brutal Huns compelled some of their Yankee prisoners to remove their shoes and walk barefoot through the barb-wire and rough stone of No Man's Land to the rear, while others were forced to carry dead or wounded Germans to the rear.

### **Attack on Sibelle Trench Planned**

THE Germans, having accomplished their purpose at 6. A. M., retired from the village to the Sibelle trench, which they occupied in force. Because of the destruction of the American telephone system, it was hours before regimental headquarters at Beaumont received information of the German attack.

American and French reserves were then brought up from the rear and Gen. Traub gave orders for a joint counter-attack the next morning at daybreak, but his plans woefully miscarried.

The joint attack was to be made by four companies of the 51st Brigade, commanded by Major John J. Gallant, with two companies of the 162d French Infantry. The objectives were the line of the Sibelle trench and the Remieres Wood, but it was understood that if the Germans vacated the Sibelle trench, the counter-attack should not begin.

### **Major Gallant Fails in His Duty**

THREE times during the night Major Gallant advised headquarters that the proposed attack was inadvisable, but at midnight he received explicit orders from Gen. Traub to make the attack. Major Gallant, in the face of these orders, failed in his duty. At the hour appointed for the counter-attack he refused to carry out his orders. For his dereliction of duty he was arrested and tried by courtmartial.

Meanwhile, the 162d French Infantry, deploying from the Jury Wood for the projected attack, found itself deserted by the Americans and nothing remained for them

to do but withdraw to their trenches. While falling back, the troops made good use of their hand grenades, killing numbers of the Boches.

### **American Counter-Attack**

NOT for long were the Germans permitted to hold Seicheprey. Reinforced by the French, the Americans organized a counter-attack which sent the Germans scampering out of the town. During their retreat, the Germans set a trap for their pursuers, consisting of boxes containing high explosives to which they had attached wires stretched across the streets. Some of the American troops stepped on the wires, causing explosions which resulted in the death or injury of several soldiers. All these traps were afterward removed. Before dawn of April 21st, the Americans and their French allies had driven the Germans back to the hilltops above Seicheprey.

### **German Storm Troops Also Repulsed**

REINFORCED to the number of 4,000, and led by storm troops, the Germans returned to the charge, but the Americans, with the aid of French soldiers from an adjoining sector, drove them down the slope into Remieres Wood. By noon the woods had been cleared of the Boches, and an hour later they withdrew to their new trenches. Before evening, the Germans had been ousted from these trenches and had fallen back to their original line, leaving the "raw Yankees" in complete possession of the field.

### **Hospital Blown Up**

THE German gunners, toward evening, had got the range of the American hospital in Seicheprey and it was blown up by shell fire, the physicians and ambulance men, and several wounded soldiers being killed outright.

At word of this disaster, American and French ambulances hurried to the scene, passing through a severe barrage fire, and tended to the wounded while the shells exploded about them.

The American casualties in the Battle of Seicheprey were estimated at 200, while the German losses were at least 600.



WESTERN THEATER, APR. 22—MAY 9

## German Naval Bases at Ostend and Zeebrugge Closed by British

Two of the Most Daring Exploits in History of Naval Warfare

SECTION 15—1918

British Raiding Fleets

Admiral Sir Roger Keyes

Commodore Hubert Lynes

**A**NOTHER nail was driven in the coffin of the German Navy by the British Fleet, during April and May, 1918, when the harbors of Zeebrugge and Ostend, then used by the Germans as naval bases for their Channel fleet, were closed by sinking old hulks in their entrances, and bottling up the German destroyer flotillas that were anchored there.

The losses in Allied shipping, due to the use of these Flanders ports by the German submarines, had been constantly increasing. Only a few months before, two convoys of 25 British vessels had been sunk by the Germans in the North Sea, and the opening of the German grand offensive on March 21st had been attended with the bombardment of Dunkirk from the sea.

The German Army was at this time heading for the coast, having pushed back the British line 30 miles within a week. Fearing that they might reach the coast and use the harbors of Zeebrugge and Ostend as bases of operations against the British Isles, it was decided to close them.

### The Problem at Zeebrugge

THE raid on Zeebrugge was intrusted to Admiral Sir Roger Keyes, Commander of the Dover Patrol. Zeebrugge is not, strictly speaking, a port; rather is it the sea outlet of the Bruges Canal. In this canal the German destroyers found perfect anchorage. Its mouth is flanked by two piers, with a lighthouse at the end of each. West of the channel a breakwater or Mole, one mile long and 240 feet wide, curves out into the ocean. To allow for the flow of the tide, a viaduct 1,500 feet long had been constructed on piles. Half a mile up the canal were the locks.

The Mole was defended by a garrison of 1,000 men and bristled with machine guns, while all the coast of Flanders, from Zee-

brugge to Ostend, was studded with long-range heavy artillery. On the Mole, too, were constructed the railway station and many sheds for military and naval stores.

### A Successful Raid at Zeebrugge

ADMIRAL KEYES planned to run several decrepit cruisers, packed with concrete, up the Zeebrugge Canal as far as the locks and by sinking them close the channel. At the same time, British marines were to be landed on the Mole to overpower the garrison, and the viaduct was to be blown up with explosives in order to isolate the garrison on the Mole.

On Monday, April 22, 1918, the expedition started three hours before sunset, so timed as to reach Zeebrugge by midnight. The flotilla consisted of three old cruisers that were to be sunk in the canal; the cruiser *Vindictive*, three destroyers, and a number of monitors, motor launches and fast coastal motor boats.

The marines forming the raiding party were armed as for land battle, with grenades and flame-throwers, as well as rifles and bayonets. Elaborate preparations had been made to create an "artificial fog" to cover the attack.

It was an extremely hazardous venture to approach the coast with lights out, through possible mine fields, and with only an hour and a half allowed for the whole operation, for the German shore batteries had a range of 16 miles and the return voyage must start at 1.30 A. M. to be out of danger before dawn.

Unfortunately, as the flotilla reached Zeebrugge, the wind suddenly changed, rolling back the smoke screen and exposing the British Fleet to the enemy. Instantly the German batteries on the Mole and along the shore focussed an intense fire on the cruiser *Vindictive* and her consorts, but the vessels nevertheless made fast to the Mole and the

British bluejackets and marines swarmed over the splintering gangways, dropping on to the shell-swept wall.

The storming parties moved steadily along the wall, blowing up one building after another, their ranks raked all the while by the fire of the shore batteries. At the same time a British submarine, loaded with explosives, was run up against the viaduct, and blown up, carrying the viaduct with it. Afterward, the marines on the Mole seized the light house.

The three cruisers, which were to be sunk in the entrance, were meanwhile steering straight for the canal. The propellor of one cruiser became fouled in the defence nets and was sunk by the fire of the shore batteries some hundreds of yards from the canal mouth. The two remaining cruisers were sunk in the canal entrance, blocking it completely. Their crews and what was left of the landing party were rescued by a destroyer. After running the gauntlet of the shore batteries the flotilla withdrew in safety.

### Ostend Harbor Blocked

THE raid on Ostend Harbor was under the command of Commodore Hubert Lynes, and proved a less successful exploit than that at Zeebrugge. The plan for Ostend was simply to dash into the harbor as far as possible and sink a number of old boats across the channel.

The Germans, in anticipation of such a raid, had cut gaps in the piers, to prevent landing; also, they had removed all guiding marks for attacking ships, and stationed a flotilla of nine destroyers to guard the coast.

About midnight, on May 9, 1918, a flotilla of British monitors, destroyers, motor boats, and three old cruisers that were to be sunk, steamed in the direction of the Flanders coast.

Arrived off the harbor, the motor boats, in advance, dashed in and torpedoed the ends of the high wooden piers at the harbor mouth, while the British planes flying overhead dropped bombs, and the monitors off the coast threw great shells into Ostend.

A dense sea fog suddenly set in, rendering navigation difficult. Two of the British block-ships failed to find the harbor entrance and were sunk more than a mile from the true canal mouth.

The third blockship, the cruiser *Vindictive*, gained the harbor, but was so badly riddled by the German shore batteries it was necessary to sink her at an angle of 40 degrees to the pier. There remained a narrow passage between her and the western pier, too narrow to be used by the destroyers or large submarines. The second of the two Belgian naval bases used by the Germans had also been destroyed.

EASTERN THEATER, APR. 27—NOV. 3

## British Battles of the Year in Far Off Mesopotamia and Arabia

Ending in Complete Defeat and Surrender of the Turkish Armies

SECTION 16—1918

### British Forces, 20,000

Gen. W. R. Marshall, Commander  
Gen. R. G. Egerton  
Gen. A. S. Cobbe  
Gen. W. Gilman  
Gen. W. de S. Cayley  
Gen. Holland-Pryor  
Gen. H. T. Brooking

### Turkish Forces, 10,000

Gen. Ismail Hakki

THE Russian chaos, and the consequent collapse of the Eastern battle line, had left the British Mesopotamian Army practically isolated in the vast region once the seat of the great Babylonian Empire. The German hordes were now free to ad-

vance eastward at any point, while their Turkish allies were pushing eastward toward the Caspian and southward into Persia.

Throughout Trans-Caspia, bands of Bolsheviks, Austrians and Germans were roaming at will. Not only was the British Army



in Mesopotamia menaced from the north, but its right flank was exposed to attack from the German and Turkish emissaries in Persia.

Gen. Maude had died of cholera on November 18, 1917, and was succeeded as Commander-in-Chief by Gen. W. R. Marshall.

### **Border Tribes Troublesome**

ON the Persian border, certain tribes in German pay, together with nomadic bands of Sinjabis, had become troublesome. The Guran Confederation of friendly tribes resolved to teach them a lesson. Aided by British troops, the Gurans defeated the Sinjabis on April 25th, and British airplanes turned their retreat into a rout.

With the object of making the Persian line of communication more secure, the British undertook to drive the Turks out of the Kara Tepe-Kifri-Tuz Kermantli area and to hold both Kifri and Tuz for the future. A British division marched on Abu Gharaib April 27th, during a torrential rain, only to find that the Turks had withdrawn from the position the night before. However, a British Cavalry Brigade, after an arduous night march, overtook the retreating Turks at Kulawand.

Feigning a frontal attack, while gradually working around the enemy's right flank, the cavalry cut the enemy's line of retreat and then charged through the infantry, killing 200 Turks and capturing 565 prisoners. Kifri was occupied unopposed on the 28th and Tuz Kermantli the next day. The Turks lost 200 dead and 1,300 prisoners.

### **Kirkuk Evacuated by the Turks**

RECONNAISSANCES showed that the Turks had fallen back on Kirkuk. Advancing on this town, May 7th, the entrance of the British troops was unopposed, the Turks having withdrawn, leaving 600 sick and wounded soldiers behind, together with quantities of ammunition. Difficulties of supply, due to distance and the bad condition of the roads, made it imperative for the British to cease their pursuit.

Starvation was rife among the inhabitants, the town was in an indescribably filthy condition, and the British troops until their withdrawal on May 24th busied themselves in sanitary occupations, in town control and

in the evacuation of prisoners and refugees.

Sixteen hundred Chaldeans, Armenians and Mohammedans, who feared the return of the Turks, were evacuated as refugees at their express desire.

The demoralized Russian troops, meanwhile, had been retreating out of Persia toward the Caspian Sea and there was no force in all Persia left to combat anarchy. A state of famine prevailed over the whole length of road from Kerind to Kasvin. One column of British troops made the 700-mile journey from their railroad to the Caspian Sea by almost impassable roads, feeding the famished peoples all along the route.

### **Defence of Baku**

THE Government at Baku in July fell under the control of the Bolshevik element, who were strongly opposed to the British intervention. Various small actions were fought near Baku during July between Tartars and Turks on one side and the Russians and Armenians on the other.

On July 26th, the Bolshevik Government was overthrown and authority usurped by a Centro-Caspian dictatorship. The latter at once appealed for British aid, but before its arrival Col. Bicherakov had drawn off his Russian regiment and moved along the coast of the Caspian toward Derbend.

A small British force, which had reached Baku on August 4th, aided the inhabitants in repulsing the Turks. The natives, however, were reluctant to fight, now that the British had arrived, and they rendered but little aid.

On August 26th, the Turks attacked a salient in the line. This point was held gallantly by a British company at odds of five to one, but as the Baku reserve troops failed to support them the Britishers resisted two assaults of the Turks. With the sudden withdrawal of several Armenian battalions, the Allies were forced to give ground.

Reinforced on September 14th, the Turks scaled the Heights of Baku, and forced a further Allied retirement. The town, being now within range of the Turkish guns, was evacuated by the British, who took ship to Enzeli. By the occupation of Baku, the British had denied the Turks access to the Baku



oil fields for six weeks, besides inflicting heavy losses on the enemy.

### Assyrians Massacred by Turks

IN the Urmia district, the Assyrians, Nestorians and Jelus had united to fight the Turks during the earlier summer months. The Allies, in July, decided to get into communication with these tribes by aeroplane and to send them by convoy assistance in the shape of ammunition, machine guns, and money.

This convoy reached Tain Kala on July 23d, but the Assyrians were 10 days late in meeting it, and their eventual arrival coincided with the occupation of Urmia by the Turks who drove out all the Assyrians, massacring many of them and pursuing them along the road to Sain Kala until checked by the advancing British troops. The surviving Assyrians, 50,000 in number, poured along the roads for weeks until they were transferred to Hamadian. Large numbers of them died from cholera and privation on the way.

### Restoring Prosperity in Babylon

THE British made uninterrupted progress in the opening up and development of Mesopotamia, the "land between the waters."

The extensive agricultural and irrigation projects under way in this region bid fair to restore to this once fertile tract the prosperity it enjoyed of old when Babylon was at her zenith. From the Hilla district, now connected with Bagdad by a broad gauge railway, some 70 per cent of the cereals available for the British Mesopotamian forces were derived in 1918.

### Surrender of the Turkish Forces

WHILE Gen. Allenby was pursuing the Turks in Syria in October, Gen. Marshall was giving them no rest in Mesopotamia. One British column moved up the Tigris Valley, forcing the Turks steadily back and cutting off its retreat by means of an enflanking cavalry movement.

On October 30th, the British compelled Gen. Ismail Hakki to surrender his entire force of 7,000 men. At the same time, another British column, captured Kirkuk on October 25th, advanced to Altun Keupri. The panic-stricken Turks were everywhere in flight.

When Gen. Marshall entered Mosul on November 3d, there was no opposition. The whole Turkish nation had surrendered to the Allies. Thus ended Turkish rule in ancient Babylon.

WESTERN THEATER, MAY 28

## Two American Regiments Capture Cantigny in 40 Minutes

First Real Battle Fought by American Troops Electrifies All France

SECTION 7—1918

#### American Forces, 4,000

28th U. S. Infantry Regiment (1st Division)  
Col. Hanson E. Ely  
1st Battalion 18th Infantry (1st Division)  
Major Theodore Roosevelt, Jr.  
5th French Tank Battalion

#### German Forces, 3,000

271st Reserve Regiment  
272d Reserve Regiment  
Officers unidentified

THE first true test of the fighting qualities of the American soldiers in France, under extreme battle conditions, was afforded by the Battle of Cantigny, fought on May 28th, in which two regiments of the First United States Division of Regulars proved their mettle against two regiments of German Reservists.

With splendid dash, the Americans assaulted the German line, capturing the town

of Cantigny in 40 minutes and holding it against three vicious counter-attacks and grilling artillery fire. This victory electrified all France and furnished such convincing evidence of American resourcefulness in battle that Gen. Foch forthwith gave orders that the defence of Paris should be entrusted to two American Divisions.

The Battle of Cantigny took place at the height of the German drive south to the



Marne. The German hordes, after pressing back the British and French Armies, had broken the Allied line between Soissons and Rheims. Their successive drives toward Amiens and Paris had resulted in the creation of several salients or bulges in the battle line. One of these salients extended to a point just west of Cantigny, a little town perched on a plateau adjacent to Montdidier and only 50 miles from Paris.

On April 25th, the U. S. First Division had been brought to this sector to relieve two French divisions. It was the duty of the First Division to hold the line, for if the enemy should break through, Amiens and its great railway system would be captured by the Germans and the British armies could no longer be supplied from the Channel ports. Against repeated attacks, the First Division held this difficult position, though at a heavy cost in killed, wounded, gassed and missing.

On May 27th, the First Division was ordered to destroy the salient, capture the town of Cantigny and straighten the Allied line near Montdidier. This operation involved the expulsion of the Germans from the Cantigny Plateau, which tilted like a shelf toward the south, with the town resting at the middle of its forward edge. Possession of this eminence was essential to the Allies if a surprise attack were to be delivered in the region of Montdidier.

In preparation for the attack, 200 pieces of heavy French artillery had been emplaced behind the First Division. In addition the Fifth Battalion of French tanks, consisting of three batteries of four tanks each, were to co-operate. A detachment of French flamethrowers was also attached to the division.

The entire First Division did not participate in the attack on Cantigny. Only the 28th Infantry Regiment, commanded by Col. Hanson E. Ely, and a battalion of the 18th Infantry, commanded by Major Theodore Roosevelt, Jr., were employed in the operation.

On May 28th, at 6.45 A. M., after the French batteries had laid down a fire of the highest intensity, the 28th Regiment advanced in three lines behind a creeping barrage. With irresistible dash, the Americans crossed No Man's Land without incident and

in 40 minutes were in possession of Cantigny. The entire German garrison was either killed or wounded, 275 dead being counted. Prisoners to the number of 225 were taken. The total casualties of the 28th Regiment did not exceed 30.

At 7.30 A. M., the Germans launched a feeble counter-attack without success from the Fontaine Wood. Again, at 5.10 P. M., an ineffective attack was made from the western tip of the Framicourt Wood.

That night two companies of the 18th Infantry, led by Maj. Theodore Roosevelt, Jr., reinforced the line.

Early the next morning the enemy launched two small counter-attacks, both of which were broken up by artillery and rifle-fire. At 5.45 P. M., on the 29th, a stronger attack was delivered upon the left of the 28th Infantry, which was driven back slightly in the region of St. Aignan, but this attack was also broken up and the line re-established.

On the 30th the enemy made a seventh and final effort to recover the lost ground. Preceded by a heavy artillery preparation, a battalion of German Infantry came forward in two waves from the direction of the Lalval Wood under the cover of a barrage. This attack was also smothered by the French artillery fire. The Germans seemed to have lost heart by this time, as they made no further efforts to recover Cantigny.

The victory of the 28th Regiment had been costly, nevertheless. In the three days' fighting, 199 men and officers had been killed, 652 wounded, 200 gassed and 15 were reported missing—a total of 45 officers and 1,022 men. The German losses were even greater.

The Battle of Cantigny, though a minor operation, had a distinctly heartening effect on the Allied Armies. In that hour of German triumph, when 2,000,000 British and French soldiers were being shoved hither and thither by the enemy, it renewed their courage to learn that a single regiment of Americans had attacked and defeated the enemy, seized a commanding position and held it against counter-attacks. It was good to know that the Americans, now pouring into France by hundreds of thousands, were not going to allow the Germans to push them back.



WESTERN THEATER, MAY 27—JULY 4

## Third German Drive on Paris Halted by American Division

Glorious Victories at Chateau Thierry, Belleau Wood, Torcy, Vaux and Bouresches  
Our Valiant Soldiers Acclaimed by the French as the "Saviors of Paris"

SECTION 18—1918

### Allied Forces, 150,000

Gen. Foch, Generalissimo  
Gen. Petain, Commander  
38th French Army Corps, Gen. Maistre  
9th British Army Corps, Gen. Gordon  
U. S. 3d Division (Regulars), Gen. Dickman  
7th Machine Gun Battalion, Major Taylor  
9th Machine Gun Battalion  
U. S. 2d Division (Regulars and Marines), Gen.  
[Bundy]

### German Forces, 480,000

Gen. Ludendorff, Chief of Staff  
Crown Prince Frederick, Commander  
Seventh Army—Gen. Boehm  
First Army—Gen. von Below  
Eleventh Army—Gen. von Eben  
Army Corps—Gen. von Conta

**A**FTER the strategic failure of their two drives toward Amiens, by way of the Somme and Lys Valleys, the German Army Staff required a full month in which to prepare their plans for another ponderous offensive. True, the sagacious Gen. Foch had permitted them to shove back the British and French Armies a distance of 30 miles in Picardy and Champagne, but he had not allowed them to accomplish their main purpose, which was the breaking of the liaison between the British and French Armies as a preliminary to their destruction in detail.

The strategic purpose of Gen. Foch was to lure the Germans on until they had become enmeshed in a number of deep salients from which they might not easily escape when he was ready to launch his counter-thrusts.

Gen. Ludendorff, the German Chief of Staff, at the beginning of the Somme offensive on March 21st, had rather pompously declared that Germany would willingly sacrifice 1,000,000 lives as the price of victory. Five hundred thousand Germans already had fallen, and the goal was yet unreachd. Still, Germany had 5,000,000 combat troops at her disposal, and if the "All-Highest" gave the word, these, too, would be thrown into the furnace of war.

The German strategists deemed it expedient to resume the offensive in the Somme area, since the British and French were now strongly seated about the nose of the salient at Montdidier. To extend the drive through the Lys Valley might also prove a dangerous

enterprise, the 30-mile salient near Ypres being already threatened at both its flanks by the ever-growing British Army. No intervening point held out hopes of being easy to breach. Yet something must be done, and quickly, for the "raw Yankees" were by this time swarming into France and soon would appear in force on the firing line, thus overcoming the numerical advantage possessed by the Germans.

### Germans Held Odds of 5 to 1

THERE was one sector of the battlefield which, more than any other, seemed easiest to pierce. It was that part of the Aisne front, lying between Noyon and Rheims, a span of 40 miles, which the French had assailed in vain for four years or since von Kluck's headlong retreat from the Marne. Many thousands of lives had been expended by the French in the endeavor to oust the Germans from their steel-plate defences in this region.

Crown Prince Frederick's group of armies now occupied the front on the north bank of the Aisne, a total of 480,000 veterans, soon to be reinforced by 400,000 reserves. Across the stream, and facing this huge army, there were fewer than 100,000 French and British troops defending the long front of 40 miles. They had been sent to this sector to recuperate after aiding in the defence of Amiens.

These initial odds of five to one suited the Crown Prince to a nicety. In his day dreams, he beheld himself smashing through the Allied line and taking Paris, only 44 miles away. By his persuasion the direction of the



drive was diverted to the Aisne and the main objective to Paris instead of Amiens.

### German Cities Bombed at Last

DURING the four weeks' interval between the second and third German offensives, the War was carried into the air by the Allied "birdmen." It had been the confident boast of the German warlords from the outset that the War never would be carried behind the German lines. In this they were mistaken. British and French planes by the hundreds

bombed every town behind the battlefront, including Bapaume, Peronne, Noyon and St. Quentin.

Other planes raided the industrial cities along the Rhine and farther inland, dropping many tons of explosives on German munition plants, railway stations, etc. The German populace were no longer immune from the effects of raids like those which had affrighted the peoples of London, Paris and Antwerp.

## Third Battle of the Aisne Opens

THE Third Battle of the Aisne, as this renewed drive is known in history, opened at 1 o'clock on the morning of May 27, 1918, with a hurricane of German shell-fire that swept the entire Allied front from Noyon to Rheims. In the wake of the explosive shells, came a deluge of deadly mustard gas, intended to suffocate the outposts in the front line.

Just before daylight, 400,000 German storm troops advanced to assault the Franco-British line. The chief point of attack was the long, bare ridge known as the Chemin-des-Dames. This 18-mile ridge, just north of the Aisne River, was thinly held by four divisions of French troops under command of Gen. Maistre.

As, wave on wave, the Prussian storm troops ascended the slope of Chemin-des-Dames, French machine guns tore great apertures in the German line, but these quickly filled and the enemy pressed onward and upward, sweeping the French off the crest, and compelling their retreat to the Aisne, five miles to the south.

Three divisions of British Reserves came to the assistance of their overwhelmed French allies, making a brave stand on the southern bank of the Aisne, but before night they too were swept aside and the vanguard of Gen. von Conta's German Corps crossed the river by the French bridges. The Germans, however, had paid dearly for their success, the line of advance being piled deep with their slain.

Farther north, on the same day, the Bavarian troops had carried town after town

by storm, driving a wedge southward from the Aisne to the Vesle, which they crossed at several points.

The 21st British Division, with the French Colonial Division on its right, stood firm all day on the front between Cormicy and Bermericourt. The 8th Division, around Berry-au-Bac, also presented a stone wall to the Prussians for hours, but in the end was forced to retreat across the Aisne-Marne Canal. The 50th British Division, whose left flank had been uncovered by the retreat of the French, was slowly driven back to the Aisne after making a heroic effort to recapture the Craonne Plateau.

To sum up the first day's results: The Germans had advanced ten miles on an 18-mile front and claimed 15,000 prisoners. They had broken the French Center and established a salient, whose flanks at Soissons and Rheims were still held by the Allies. This situation was not to the liking of the Germans. So long as Soissons and Rheims held against attack, they could not safely extend their salient; hence their advance in the Center was checked.

### Soissons Invested

To broaden this salient was the task to which the Germans applied themselves on the second day of battle, May 28th. By concentrating in mass on the flanks near Soissons and Rheims, the Germans compelled the Allies to yield ground. All that day the Germans had shelled Soissons and in some places the city had been set on fire. By evening, the Germans had occupied the



heights overlooking Soissons from the north, and the river flats to the east. The French had retreated to a line based on Venizel and Losges, while the British 9th Corps had fallen back to a position south of the Vesle. The salient now extended to Lhuys, Chery and Courville. Between the Aisne and the Ailette the Germans had captured Sancy and advanced their line from Pont-St. Mard to Bray.

### **1st U. S. Division Seizes Cantigny**

IT was on this fateful day, while the Allies were facing disaster in the Aisne sector, that the First Division of United States troops carried the Stars and Stripes to glorious victory in the Montdidier sector. This division brilliantly attacked and captured the village of Cantigny, taking several hundred prisoners, and repulsing three furious counter-attacks of the Germans. The thrilling story of this engagement is given in detail on Page 427. This American triumph left the Germans dumbfounded, while filling the Allies with elation.

### **Soissons Captured by the Germans**

THE third day of battle saw the capture of Soissons by the Germans. In overwhelming numbers the Prussian troops pushed into the city from the east, but presently were driven out by the French. Returning to the attack, the Germans compelled the evacuation of the city, the French retiring to the plateau.

With the danger on this flank removed, the Germans no longer hesitated to push forward their salient. The Allies were forced back everywhere toward the Marne. By nightfall, the German advance had reached Fere-en-Tardenois. The Allies so far had lost 35,000 prisoners, besides immense stores of ammunition and 400 guns. Meanwhile,

the Germans were pressing in upon Rheims from the northwest and northeast, as narrated in detail on Page 442.

### **1,000,000 Germans Reach the Marne**

THE Germans were receiving fresh reinforcements daily, and on May 30th, the fourth day of battle, they had 700,000 men in line against a total Allied strength of 150,000. In addition, there were 300,000 German troops held in reserve. Under the impact of this tremendous force, the Allied line was forced to retreat, and on the last day of May the Germans had reached the Marne, on a front of six miles, between Chateau Thierry and Dormans, having taken in six days 45,000 prisoners, 400 heavy guns and several thousand machine guns, but with losses many times greater to themselves.

On the left flank, however, in the region of Soissons, the German assault had been shattered by the brilliant French defensive, which had maintained itself on the western outskirts of Soissons and along the road to Chateau Thierry. At the same time, the French line northwest of Soissons, toward Noyon, had been pressed back. Eastward, in the Rheims sector, the Franco-British line held firm.

Though Gen. von Boehm's Central Army had reached the Marne, the new salient resulting from his sensational advance still was deemed insecure, being open to attack on the flanks near Soissons and Rheims. He, therefore, turned westward, hoping to broaden his salient and link up the operations on the Aisne sector with those on the Picardy front. Driving back the French from the southern bank of the Oise and Aisne Canal, between Guny and Noyon, he advanced five miles along the Ourcq River, but here he was halted.

## **German Hordes Defeated by Americans at Chateau Thierry**

ON that fateful day, May 30th, when the French and British forces were all but overwhelmed and it seemed certain the Germans would cross the Marne and advance on Paris, Gen. Maistre sent out a hurried and despairing call for help. That cry was heard by the U. S. 3d Division, which was completing its

organization, 110 miles away. Without hesitation, Major-General Dickman despatched two of his machine-gun battalions in motor lorries to the aid of the sorely pressed Allies on the Marne, the remainder of the Third Division embarking in French railroad trains.



After an all-night trip, the 7th Motorized Machine Gun Battalion of the U. S. 3d Division arrived in the Marne sector at 4 P. M., May 31st, and marched into the shell-swept town of Chateau-Thierry. The town occupied both banks of the River Marne, which is spanned by two bridges, one of stone, the other of iron. The Germans already had entered that part of the town lying on the north bank and were seeking to gain possession of the bridges. A single French battalion was disputing their passage and was being pressed steadily back.

Our 7th Battalion had never faced German gunfire before and were stiff and cramped after their long night ride, yet they jumped into the thick of the fray like veterans.

Under a galling fire, the Americans brought up their guns and organized their defence positions at the bridges with mathematical precision. Presently, in a long gray flood, the Germans came streaming down to the bridges. Our gunners at once opened upon them a fire so furious and accurate that the advancing German columns hesitated, wavered and then halted behind the barrier of their fallen comrades.

Again the Germans advanced and soon, on the two bridges and in the streets of Chateau Thierry, there raged a wild, demoniacal tempest of machine-gun and rifle fire. Infuriated by this resistance the Germans desperately strove to brush the offensive Yankees from their path. Our boys fell by the dozens beside their guns, but there was always some one to leap into the breach and keep the stream of bullets pouring into the ranks of the thwarted Huns.

The Yankee gunners, nevertheless, held the southern bank of the Marne against every German onslaught; they cleared the two bridges; they rescued the French battalion that was fighting against fearful odds on the north side of the town; and finally they blew up the bridges to prevent the Huns crossing the Marne.

#### **Americans Rescue a French Battalion**

THE rescue of the French battalion was a thrilling episode of the battle. Seeing the dilemma of the plucky Frenchmen, who were

attempting to cross the stone bridge to the south side of the town, a detail of 12 American gunners, in command of Lieut. Bissell, with two guns, fearlessly crossed the bridge in the tempest of shell fire and opened the line of retreat for the French. All through the night the American gunners clung to this advanced post, though the Germans made repeated attempts to seize the stone bridge. At dawn on June 1st, the Germans renewed their attacks, but always without success. All that day and into the night, Lieut. Bissell and his 12 comrades covered the retreat of the French. Finally, at 10.30 P. M., when all the French had crossed over to the south, Bissell blew up the stone bridge and led his detail toward the iron bridge. The Germans already were closing in on this bridge, and the American gunners on the south bank, supposing their comrades had crossed over, were pouring a deadly fire on the northern approach of the bridge. Lieut. Bissell, fortunately, was able to warn the gunners; the fire stopped at once, and Bissell's squad, carrying their wounded, returned safely to the south side of the town.

#### **French Give Americans Credit for Victory**

THIS exploit was cited in the French Orders as follows: "The episode of Chateau Thierry will remain one of the most remarkable deeds of this War."

Full credit was given the 7th Machine Gun Battalion in a citation by Marshal Petain, bearing date of November 24, 1918, for stopping the German drive at the Marne, as follows:

"The 7th Machine Gun Battalion, American, under the command of Major Taylor, barred to the enemy the passage of the Marne. In the course of violent combat, particularly the 31st day of May and the 1st of June, 1918, it disputed, foot by foot, with the Germans, the northern outskirts of Chateau Thierry, and covered itself with incomparable glory, thanks to its valor and to its skill, costing the enemy sanguinary losses."

#### **Germans Blown Up with the Bridge**

LATE on the night of June 1st, after Bissell's squad had recrossed to the south



side, the Germans made another attempt to cross the Chateau Thierry bridge, using smoke bombs to mask their movements. Anticipating this movement, the Americans had prepared a surprise for the enemy. Explosives had been laid in the center of the bridge, to be fired by electrical connection.

The first wave of the German advance was advancing across the bridge when, with a thunderous explosion, the center of the structure was blown sky-high, carrying with it large numbers of the enemy. A hail of bullets from the American machine guns drove the Germans off the north section of the bridge, and later they were expelled from the ruins of Chateau Thierry, leaving the Americans and French in sole possession. The capture of Chateau Thierry was acclaimed by the French as one of the finest feats of the War.

#### Hill 204 Recaptured

THE remainder of the 3d U. S. Division, less the Artillery Brigade, now relieved French units along the south bank of the Marne, and became a part of the 38th French Army Corps and the Allied line was then stabilized along the river.

The German advance west of Chateau Thierry had also been stopped, though not until after the enemy had seized Hill 204 which dominated the whole position and made the protection of the river crossings there most difficult. This hill was subsequently captured in a combined assault, launched by

the French in co-operation with the 3d U. S. Division.

#### Americans Win at Neuilly and Jaulgonne

ON June 3d, the Germans occupied the village of Neuilly-la-Poterie, intending to push on through the adjacent Neuilly Wood. Once again the Americans showed their mettle. The Machine-Gun Battalion riddled the German advance with shot, and then united with the French Colonials in driving the enemy beyond Neuilly Wood. Heavily reinforced, the Germans counter-attacked in mass formation. Again their ranks melted before the American gun-fire. Then, before the Germans could reform their line, our boys sprang upon them, and in a hand-to-hand encounter, with bayonets, put them to flight.

#### Germans Annihilated at Jaulgonne

ON the same day, east of Chateau Thierry, American and French troops annihilated a battalion of Germans that had crossed the Marne at Jaulgonne on 22 light ladder bridges. The survivors, 100 in all, surrendered. A second attempt to cross at Jaulgonne, this time by shock troops, was equally futile. The footbridge by which they crossed was swept by the American machine-gun fire, which took a heavy toll of the enemy, after which the Yankee boys drove the Germans back to their own line.

So, in a single day, though pitted against Germany's best troops, and outnumbered four to one, the Americans had emerged victorious in three engagements.

### American Marines Capture Belleau Wood

U. S. 2d Division (Marines and Regular Army)  
Major-Gen. Omar Bundy, Commander [30,000  
Machine Gun Brigade, Major-Gen. Harbord  
3d Brigade, Brigadier-Gen. Lewis

German Forces, 130,000  
Gen. von Boehm

THE French cry for assistance at the Marne, to which the 3d U. S. Division of Regulars had so quickly responded, was also answered by the 2d U. S. Division, then lying in billets in the Chaumont-en-Vexin area. The 2d Division was composed of two regiments each of Marines and Regular Infantry, under the command of Major-General Omar Bundy. Because of railroad congestion, 18

of the trains on which the artillery was to have been transported had been canceled, and the guns were sent by road. The infantry, however, was transported to the battle area in French motor trucks. At daybreak of June 1st, the advance guard of the 2d Division reached Montreuil. Without sleep or rest, and supplied with only emergency rations, the 6th Marine Regiment was sent for-



ward to support the retreating French troops on a 12-mile front extending from Le Thiolet, four miles west of Chateau Thierry, to Hill 142, just southwest of Torcy. Before midnight the 9th Infantry Regiment was in position on the right of the line, just south of the Paris-Metz Road, and the 23d Infantry Regiment on the left, from Champillon west. With the arrival of the Americans the Allied line was at once stabilized.

### **Marines Undergo Their Baptism of Blood**

Two days later, the exhausted French troops were removed from the front line and the Marines and Regulars of the U. S. 2d Division moved up to take their places, prepared to undergo their baptism of blood. The Germans had placed in the apex of the wedge two crack divisions, in the expectation of breaking through the American line and opening the Paris Road at Le Thiolet to the German Army. Their front included the Belleau Wood and the village of Bouresches, both filled with murderous machine-gun nests. It was the task of the 2d Division to expel the enemy from both these positions; until that had been done the line was in danger of being breached.

### **Marines Take Torcy and Bouresches**

SUPPORTED on both their flanks by French divisions, and preceded by a rolling barrage, the Marines on June 6th attacked the German line. Sweeping rapidly across the open, the Marines drove the Huns back one mile on a front of four miles, capturing 100 prisoners and ten machine guns. Three new German divisions, totaling 36,000 fresh troops, were rushed to the line in the vain hope of stopping those "Devil Dogs" of Americans! But our boys pressed on in a solid phalanx, singing "Yankee Doodle" most lustily and terrifying the Huns with their warwhoops.

Nothing could stop the advance of the incomparable Marines. Utterly fearless, they charged the numerous machine-gun nests with hand grenades and rifles, wiping them out one by one. Before nightfall the Marines had taken Torcy and Bouresches and pushed back the enemy another mile, the Germans losing 1,000 in dead and wounded.

Early the next morning the Germans repeatedly counter-attacked at Torcy and

Bouresches, but the Marines broke their every attack. The Germans now had eleven divisions, or 132,000 men opposed to two American divisions, totaling less than 60,000 men.

### **The Battle of Belleau Wood**

IN the path of the American advance, the Germans still held a forested stronghold perched on a rocky hill and known as Belleau Wood. This wood concealed ambushes of German machine guns and infantry. In their pursuit of von Boehm's army, leading up to the capture of Torcy and Bouresches, the Americans had passed on either side of Belleau Wood, and had suffered greatly from the harassing cross fire of the concealed German gunners.

The U. S. 2d Division decided to clean out this nest. First they smothered the wooded ridge with a deluge of shells, then the American gunners marked off the area of the wood into checkerboard squares, one square being assigned to each battery. All day Sunday and Monday, June 9th and 10th, 1918, the American guns raked the wood with their fire, dropping 5,000 high explosive and gas shells. At 3 o'clock Monday morning the fearless Marines penetrated into the wood for two-thirds of a mile, taking many machine guns and trench mortars, at the point of the bayonet. On Thursday, the 13th, the Marines had captured the last of the German positions in Belleau Wood, taking 50 prisoners and additional machine guns.

Still the Germans lingered on the borders of the wood, engaging in daily skirmishes with the Marines. Not until June 25th did the Marines succeed in dispersing the last of the Huns. The closing engagement, which took place in the northwest part of Belleau Wood was mostly hand-to-hand fighting. Here the Germans had planted machine guns behind boulders, in shell holes and even in trees. Finally, in a dashing attack, the Marines removed this menace, capturing 311 men.

In the numerous fights centering on Belleau Wood the Marines had captured 1,500 Germans and annihilated the Fifth German Division, including some of the best battalions in the whole German Army.



Out of eleven distinct engagements, the Yankee boys had won ten battles over the picked troops sent by the Kaiser to oppose the American advance. In addition, they had kept eleven German divisions, or 132,000 men, so fully employed that they could not be transferred to any part of the line.

### **Yankees Called "The Saviors of Paris"**

IN the fighting round about Chateau Thierry, there were United States Regulars, Marines, National Guardsmen and drafted men engaged. They faced the Kaiser's picked troops, and though outnumbered three and even four to one, were able to stop the great German offensive at the Marne, immediately after the English and French had been battered back thirty miles. Little wonder that the French generals hailed the American soldiers as the "Saviors of Paris." Not only were they the Saviors of Paris, but of France and the British Empire as well, for had it not been for the Yankee resistance the Germans in another week might have had England and France at their mercy.

### **The Second Battle of Bouresches**

ON the day the battle of Belleau Wood began, June 9th, the Germans sought to recapture Bouresches, employing 24,000 troops in the attack. As the Germans advanced from the adjacent woods in mass formation, a destructive fire of shrapnel from the Yankee guns disorganized their attack before they were able to deploy, and though they were able to penetrate the outer defences of the town an hour later, they were given so fiery a welcome that they withdrew defeated, with heavy losses.

Returning to the attack on June 13th, the Germans succeeded in entering Bouresches after raking the town with shells, but the Americans again rushed forward and engaged them with cold steel, capturing or killing almost all the invaders.

East of Chateau Thierry, on the same day, parties of Americans crossed the Marne in boats and surprised the Germans on the north bank, killing several and taking a number of prisoners. Quiet now reigned on this sector for some days.

Yankee boys had taught the Huns that they could not pass the line at Chateau

Thierry which they guarded. So Germany's warlords launched a new assault in the Montdidier sector, using the fresh army of Gen. Hutier for the purpose.

### **The Capture of Vaux by Americans**

THE farthest advance of the Germans, west of Chateau Thierry, had been at Vaux, a little town lying below the railroad line that runs through Bouresches, Belleau, Givry and Torcy. Vaux was still held by the Germans and must be recaptured if the American position was to be made secure. The taking of Vaux involved the seizure of Hill 204, which dominated the village, and a small stretch of woods known as the Bois de-la-Roche.

On July 1st, the American guns of the 2d Division poured torrents of high explosive and gas shells on the village with deadly precision. Every house was hit. By noon all Vaux was ablaze. At 6 P. M., after an all-day bombardment, our boys stormed and easily captured the town, squads being ready with their hand grenades to clear the cellars.

Many of these had been closed by the artillery fire, and the German occupants had been buried with them. From other cellars the Boches came out and surrendered. A wounded German said that there had been 4,000 Germans in the village, but after the barrage started, most of these had been withdrawn, leaving behind only so many as could find shelter in 68 caves in the village.

The Germans sent back a fresh regiment the same night to retake Vaux, but these, too, were exterminated to a man. Again, on July 3d, the Germans tried to regain the village, advancing in mass formation, but the American machine-gunners mowed them down with bullets.

The Germans still retained their hold on Hill 204, repulsing many assaults by the French, but were finally compelled to evacuate after holding the hill five weeks.

### **A Fourth of July Victory at Hamel**

BY a curious coincidence, British and American troops united for the first time in battle on the Fourth of July, 1918. Their objective was the town of Hamel, then held by the Germans, and it was taken in clean-cut style. Only a few companies of Ameri-



cans, fighting as platoons, were brigaded with the Australian troops.

"You are going in with the Australians," their officers told them; "and these boys always 'deliver the goods.' We expect you to do the same."

In the battle which ensued the Americans fought with "astonishing ardor, discipline

and strength," to quote from the official report. Indeed, the Australians declared that if the Americans had any fault at all, it was overeagerness to advance; they could hardly be restrained from going too rapidly behind the wide belt of the British shell fire as the barrage rolled forward.

EASTERN THEATER, MAY

## 1,500,000 Greek Christians Massacred or Deported by Turks

Systematic Attempt to Extinguish the Hellenic Race Inspired by Pagan Germany

SECTION 19-1918

**U**NDER the tuition of pagan Germany, the unspeakable Turks attempted to destroy the large and flourishing Greek Christian populations that, from time immemorial, have dwelt along the coast of Asia Minor and the Marmoran coast in Thrace.

The Mahometans tore these Christians from their ancestral homes, confiscated all their property, and deported them variously into the interior of Asia Minor, into the Turkish pale, or over the burning desert sands to far off Mesopotamia. It is estimated that 1,500,000 Greeks were thus deported into desolate regions where they died off like flies of starvation or disease.

On this dreadful journey 700,000 are known to have perished. The survivors found themselves without shelter or food in a strange land and subjected to every indignity and torture which the abominable Turks, and their pagan German allies, could devise. Those among the Greeks who would agree to abjure Christianity and adopt the faith of Islam were spared; the rest were left to starve.

The wholesale deportation of the Greeks from Thrace had been under way since the close of the Balkan Wars in 1913. It accorded not at all with Germany's ideas of Oriental conquest to permit these Greeks to remain in European Turkey. The Turks were consequently instructed to extirpate the Greeks in any way they might choose.

In justification of these wholesale deportations, the Turks falsely alleged that the

Hellenic populations of Thrace and the Asian coast were plotting revolution. The first deportations, numbering 250,000, were from Thrace into Greece proper. This persecution continued unabated up to the opening of the War. In this period the Greek Government did everything possible to protect their co-nationals, but after the World War had begun, King Constantine and his German wife (the sister of Kaiser Wilhelm of Germany), impeded every attempt made to ameliorate the lot of the exiled Hellenes. The bishop of Pera, after journeying to Athens to implore the King to take some action against the Turkish atrocities, was warned by the Queen to return to his home, "as it is the will of the King that you live on good terms with the Turks."

All this time the German agencies in Turkey, especially the German Palestine Bank, were urging the Mussulmans to cultivate hatred for the Christians and to have no commercial dealings with them.

### The Bulgarian-Turkish Plot

BULGARIA, half Turkish itself, entered into the plot to exterminate the Greek Christian race, by signing a pact with Turkey, at Adrianople in June, 1915. Under this agreement Bulgaria consented (1) to the establishment of a Turco-Bulgar commercial union as the complement of the political union, (2) the seizure of the commerce of the Orient from the hands of the Greeks, (3) the establishment in the Orient of Moslem agencies for the importation and exportation of goods

for the exclusive use of Moslems, who were to break off all commercial relations with the Greeks, (4) a restriction of the privileges of the Greek Patriarch and his ecclesiastical jurisdiction, (5) the prohibition of the teaching of Greek in future, (6) the conversion by force of the people in the Christian settlements and the imposition of mixed marriages.

### Germany the Author of the Massacres

HERR LEPSIUS, a German Envoy who had been sent to Constantinople on a special mission in July, 1915, acknowledged that the Greek and Armenian massacres were two phases of a single program of extermination of the Christian elements, intended to make of Turkey a purely Moslem state.

That Germany was the author and inspiration of these massacres of Christians became known in 1917. The Greek Minister at Constantinople, M. Kallerghis, had protested to the Turkish Grand Vizier, Talaat Bey, against the deportations of the Greeks in the Aival district. Talaat Bey promised to telegraph to the German General Liman von Sanders, telling him to cease the deportations. Von Sanders, who was in fact Commander-in-Chief of all the Turkish forces, replied that if the deportations ceased, he would not guarantee the safety of the Turkish Army, adding that he had referred the matter to the German Grand Headquarters Staff, who entirely approved of his action.

### Greeks Drafted Into the Turkish Army

THE persecution of the Greek Christians, under their German-Turkish masters, was carried out with devilish ingenuity. All their privileges were abolished. After an enrollment of Christians, there was a levy of "contributions." Then the forcible conversion of Christians to Islamism was attempted. Deportations and massacres followed. Meanwhile the Turkish language supplanted the Greek language in all the schools; Turkish geography and history, instead of Greek, were taught; the Patriarchy was abolished. All property held by the Greek civil and religious communities was confiscated and became the property of the Turkish State.

On Turkey's entry into the War, a decree was signed and promulgated which rendered all men up to the age of 48 liable for military service. The Christians thus drafted into the armies of the Turks were for the most part formed into labor battalions and sent hundreds of miles into the interior, where they were employed in road-making, building, tunnel excavating and in field work for the rich pashas. Their daily ration was half a loaf of black bread, eked out with a little dried fish or olives. Driven like slaves and under-nourished, they died by tens of thousands. Whole battalions succumbed to the ravages of typhus and cholera. Many thousands were massacred by their inhuman Turkish guards. Of these Greek battalions it is estimated 150,000 died.

### Fortunes of Christians Confiscated

SOME hundreds of thousands of Hellenes from Thrace and Asia Minor managed to escape into Greece, where they subsequently fought in the Greek armies. Their desertion was the signal for other Turkish atrocities. The property of all deserters was duly seized and families were deported to the interior. In the district of Kerassunda, from which 300 Greeks had escaped, the Turks in reprisal burned 88 villages to the ground. Thirty thousand inhabitants, mostly women and children, were obliged to march in mid-winter to Angora. On the way, 7,000 died of exposure.

Meanwhile, the fortunes of many rich Christians were confiscated, and stores were completely pillaged. Christians were forced, under threats of violence and imprisonment, to contribute large sums for the support of the Turkish Army and Navy, in addition to their usual heavy taxes.

Finally, under a system of compulsory labor, the Christians were obliged to cultivate the lands of the Moslems, but no time was allowed them to cultivate their own fields. If discovered harvesting their own crops, a cordon would be placed around the village, the water supply cut off and the people were deprived of food and drink.

After a few days of such torture, a band of Bashi-Bazouks were sent into the villages to pillage and murder. The populations



were given the choice of being deported over the mountains, to places hundreds of miles distant, or of suffering a lingering death from hunger and thirst. These deportations, begun in 1915, reached a total of 450,000 during the period of the War.

During these tragic pilgrimages the poor, barefooted Greeks, beaten by guards, attacked by brigands, never resting, lacking food and water, wandered on to their distant destinations. Thousands died by the wayside of fatigue and suffering. While in transit, many mothers gave birth to infants, but they were compelled to leave them by the roadside and rejoin the marching columns. En route they were forbidden to enter the villages to purchase food.

Hundreds of young girls were detained by the Turks and forcibly "converted" to Islamism. At Panderna, the German General, Liman von Sanders, built an orphanage for all Christian girls who had been coerced into accepting Islam, and compelled the Christian population to contribute \$50,000 toward its support.

### The Black Sea Colonies

THE Greek colonists on the coast of the Black Sea were likewise deported. The scourge of the Greeks in this region was the later Governor of Bitlis, Rafet Pasha. More than 150,000 Greeks were deported in this district and in Trebizond, and upward of 100 Greek villages were destroyed. Hundreds of young Greek girls, rather than live as slaves

in the harems, committed suicide by drowning.

### The Order for Greek Deportations

THE deporting orders to the Governor of Smyrna, signed by Ali Riga, the chief of the Turkish Bureau of Correspondence, read as follows:

"It is imperative for political reasons that the Greeks dwelling along the coast of Asia Minor be compelled to evacuate their villages in order to settle in the villages of Erzerum and Chaldea. If they refuse to emigrate to the places assigned to them, you should issue verbal instructions to our Mussulman brothers so that they may, by all kinds of excesses, compel the Greeks to leave their homes of their own accord. Do not, in this case, forget to obtain from these emigrants declarations to the effect that they are leaving their hearths and homes of their own free will, so that no political complications may later result therefrom."

### The Martyrdom of the Greeks

HALF of the deported Greek populations perished in consequence of ill treatment, disease and famine, and the survivors suffered continual martyrdom as slaves. The Turkish functionaries, with German approval, declared that no Christian should be left alive in Turkey unless he consented to embrace Mohammedanism.

The confiscated fortunes of the deported Greeks surpass in value \$1,000,000,000.

WESTERN THEATER, JUNE 16

## Yankee Division Units Victors in Battle of Xivray Marvoisin

Put to Flight a Force that Outnumbered Them Almost Three to One

SECTION 20-1918

U. S. Troops, 300 Men  
103d Infantry, 26th Division  
Gen. Clarence R. Edwards  
Brig.-Gen. Cole  
Col. Parker

German Forces, 740 Men  
Officers Unidentified

THE Germans became still better acquainted with the Yankee Division on June 16, 1918, in the "twin" villages of Xivray-Marvoisin. These villages, then in ruins and connected by a line of trench, were

garrisoned by a few platoons of the 103d Infantry, 26th Division, and Co. D. of the 103d Machine Gun Battalion, perhaps 300 Yankees altogether. The Germans planned to envelop the villages as at Seicheprey.

At 3 o'clock on the morning of June 16th, under cover of smoke, a raiding force of 740 Germans, led by 200 selected storm troops, crept up the ravines in three columns, two from the north and one from the west. Each of these columns split into three smaller columns, making nine in all. The German guns, at the same time, laid down a heavy box barrage to prevent reinforcements from the American reserves in the rear.

Though outnumbered nearly three to one, the Yankee boys opened fire with their machine guns, annihilating the Boche column approaching from the west. Our boys then prepared to counter-attack, but the scared Huns were already in flight toward their own

lines, leaving a third of their entire number dead on the field of battle. The 103d Infantry losses in this engagement were 26 killed, 96 wounded, and 47 gassed.

Extraordinary pluck was shown during this fight by several of the Yankee officers and men. Lieut. Doane of the 103d went through the inferno of the German box barrage twice to bring up a reserve platoon, Lieut. Pickering accompanying him on the return journey. On the way back they captured a German patrol in command of a lieutenant, who acknowledged that since the Seicheprey fight the Germans had learned to respect the American soldiers for their prowess and courage.

WESTERN THEATER, JUNE 15—JULY 20

## Italian Army Deals Death Blow to Austrian Empire

Austrians Invade Italy, 1,000,000 Strong, to Meet Ignominious Defeat

SECTION 21—1918

### Italian Forces, 1,000,000

Gen. Diaz, Commander-in-Chief  
Gen. Badoglio, Chief of Staff  
Gen. Pecori-Giraldo  
Gen. Penella  
Gen. Giordano  
Gen. Morone  
Gen. Montuori  
Duke of Aosta  
Gen. Monesi

British First Corps, 50,000, Gen. Lord Cavan

French Twelfth Corps, 50,000, Gen. Grazinai

Regiment U. S. Troops

### Austro-German Forces, 1,000,000

Gen. Boroevitch  
Gen. Hoetendorff  
Gen. Scheuchensteul  
Gen. Krobatin  
Gen. Wurm  
Archduke Joseph

IT was Italy's proud privilege to deal the Austrian Empire its deathblow. After the Austrians had been driven back across the Piave River, in November, 1917, with losses that seemed irreparable, the Russian debacle occurred, giving the tottering empire of the Hapsburgs a new lease of life. Half a million Austrian and German soldiers, thus released from the Russian front, were gradually transferred to the Italian theater of war. All through the ensuing winter, from November to March, one long uninterrupted battle waged along the Italian front, in which English, French and American soldiers participated. With their aid, the dauntless Italians were enabled to settle and consolidate their front, regaining many positions that had been lost in the battles of the preceding autumn.

### Austria's "Hunger Offensive"

WHEN the final German fury was loosed in France, on March 27th, driving the Allies to the very brink of disaster, a large part of the French and English forces had been recalled from the Italian front. This withdrawal encouraged the reinforced Austrian Army to attempt a new but fatal invasion of Italy. The Austrian movement was slow in getting under way, due to the mutinous attitude of the Austrian soldiers and populace, who were suffering the pangs of hunger. It was only when the Austrian generals pointed to the golden wheat fields of Italy with their promise of abundant food, that the reluctant army could be induced to undertake another campaign beyond the Alps. The Austrian soldiers called this their "hunger offensive." Even then there were frequent mutinies



among the Czech and Slovene regiments. They had not forgotten that their own kinsmen were fighting on the Allied side in Italy and Russia. Desertions, both on the march and at the front, were of daily occurrence. The rats were quitting the sinking ship of state.

### **Advance of the Austrians**

THE storm broke on June 15th, when 7,000 Austrian guns and howitzers roared along the 100-mile front from the Asiago Plateau to the Adriatic Sea, the back areas of the Italian position being deluged with gas shells. After four hours of intense shelling, the Austrian Infantry advanced in two areas—Gen. von Hoetzendorff's army group across the Asiago Plateau between Monto Grappa and Canove, and Gen. Boroévitch's army group across the Piave River on a 25-mile front between Montello and San Dona di Piave. Their common objective was Venice, with its great arsenal, the strategic key that would unlock all the doors of Italy.

### **The Battle of Brenta River**

GEN. VON HOETZENDORFF'S group of Austrian armies advanced along the Asiago Plateau in two columns, one on the east, the other on the west bank of the Brenta River. The Italian line east of the river was held by Gen. Giordano's 4th Army, while the line west of the river was held by Gen. Pecori-Giraldo's 1st Army, comprising the Italian 12th Division, the British 48th, the British 23d and the left wing of the French 12th Army Corps.

It was west of the Brenta that the invaders made their first thrust. Four Austrian divisions struck at the center of Gen. Pecori-Giraldo's line, pressing back the British 48th Division half a mile on a front of two miles. The rest of the Italian line held and the four Austrian divisions in advance found themselves caught in a dangerous pocket or salient. Meanwhile the attack on the east side of the Brenta had been checked. The Austrians did, indeed, reach the Col Moschin, on the very edge of the hills, but they were forced to withdraw.

On the next day, the British 48th Division drove the Austrians in disorder out of the salient they had made, taking 1,000 prisoners

and 72 machine guns. The French and Italian divisions on either flank also recovered the ground they had lost on the previous day. Von Hoetzendorff's offensive had signally failed. Though he had numerous divisions in reserve, he dared not resume the attack. The battle of the Brenta had ended in a repulse for the Austrians.

### **The Battle of Montello**

THE second group of Austrian armies, under Gen. Boroévitch, meanwhile, had been more successful in their offensive along the line of the lower Piave River, eastward from the Asiago Plateau. Using dense smoke clouds to conceal their operations, the Austrians flung numbers of pontoon bridges across the Piave River.

In endeavoring to locate these bridges, the Italian, French and British aviators exposed themselves fearlessly to the Austrian guns, flying low over the battlefield and risking death a thousand times. By their aid, several of the pontoon bridges were destroyed, but the Austrians succeeded in crossing the river at Nervesa, Fagare and San Dona.

The first Austrian Army to cross at Nervesa was that of Archduke Joseph. He at once occupied the eastern end of the Montello, an isolated ridge 700 feet high and eight miles long, whose slopes were covered with farmsteads and copses. If he could gain the entire ridge, it would be easy to turn the Italian line to the south and at the same time control the Vidor Pass to the north.

Meanwhile Gen. Wurm's Austrian Army had crossed the river near Musile on a front of nearly nine miles, occupying the angle between the Sile Canal and the Piave River. Small bridgeheads were established on the western bank at Saletto, Fagare and Fossalto.

On the second day of battle, the Austrians flung fourteen new bridges across the Piave, over which nearly 100,000 soldiers crossed. That day Archduke Joseph gained further ground on the Montello, while to the south the Austrians held 18 miles of the western bank and were advancing inland. Under the Austrian pressure, the Italians were forced to give way at the Sette Comuni Plateau, and



in the region of Monte Asalone and Monte Grappa.

Archduke Joseph, on the third day of battle, tried in vain to drive the Italians off the southern edge of the Montello Ridge of Gai-vera. The Austrians were also checked east of the Sette Comuni by Italian and British troops, but west and south of Musile they gained ground, occupying Capo Sile.

### **Floods Aid the Italians**

ITALIAN reinforcements having arrived in the battle zone, on June 18th, Gen. Diaz launched a counter-attack. Gen. Pennella, with the Second Army, engaged Archduke Joseph on the Montello Ridge, forcing him back from his perch on the Ciano, where he could look down on the fields of Lombardy. At the same time, the Duke of Aosta's Third Army broke through the Austrian Center between Gandelu and Fagare, occupying the river bank at Zenson and Saletto, and after expelling the Austrians from the angle between the Sile Canal and the Piave, established a front along the Fassalta Canal.

Nature now proved herself a timely ally to the Italians. The rains in the hills had suddenly converted the Piave River into a raging flood. Numberless trees, felled by the woodsmen in the mountain glens to the north, were carried down the torrent. Like battering rams, these trees struck and demolished all but four of the Austrian bridges.

### **Austrians Driven Back Across the Piave**

ON June 22d, Gen. Boroevitch gave orders for a general withdrawal of the Austrian Army across the Piave.

With their backs to the swollen Piave, the Austrians strove to recross the stream in force and reach safety on its eastern bank. But with nearly all the bridges destroyed, and an infuriate foe harassing them with shell-fire the Austrians found themselves in desperate plight. Under the hail of bullets and shells, the Austrians leapt into the river, tying themselves to mules and horses, seizing pieces of wood, anything that might enable them to escape, but in vain. Twenty thousand of them were drowned in the swollen current and those who succeeded in reaching the opposite bank were annihilated by the fire of the Italian guns from the other side.

Farther north, on the Montello, the slaughter was equally terrific. Whole brigades of Austrian troops were mowed down almost in their entirety. Along the lower Piave also the Austrians were decimated in great numbers. Every little village near the fighting line was a ruin, with scarcely one stone or brick left in place. The dead were mixed with heaps of debris in incredible confusion.

The battle continued another week in the Piave delta, which was finally cleared of Austrians on July 2d, freeing Venice from all danger of bombardment. In this campaign the Austrian casualties were 150,000. In addition, the Italians had taken 20,000 prisoners and 100 guns. Thus was Caporetta avenged in the most ghastly reverse the Austrian armies ever had sustained.

### **American Airmen Participate in Victory**

AMERICA shared in the glory of this victory, several squadrons of American aviators having bombed the Austrian armies during the entire battle. On July 26th a regiment of United States combat troops arrived on the Italian front and were billeted with Italians.

### **Complete Defeat of the Austrian Army**

BEFORE dealing the Austrian Army its death-blow, Gen. Diaz paused to reorganize his line. On October 24th, with a combatant force of 1,000,000 Italians facing an equal number of Austrians, Gen. Diaz began his "Italian Victory Offensive." Crossing the Piave in four days, the Italians on the 29th broke through the enemy's line on a 25-mile front, causing the collapse of the entire Austrian Army. Boroevitch's forces were driven across the Livenza River on the 30th and across the Tagliamento on November 2d, and the Italians had captured 250,000 prisoners and 2,500 cannon, making a total of 400,000 prisoners since the Austrian offensive opened in June. The Armistice of November 3d checked further hostilities on the front. The Italians at once occupied Trieste, Fiume and the Trente, while all Italy gave itself up to rejoicing.

Meantime, revolutions had broken out in Austria and Hungary, Emperor Karl had fled and the Dual Monarchy no longer existed.



WESTERN THEATER, JULY 15-18

## German Drive Smashed by Americans After Crossing Marne

"Rainbow" Division Assists French in Stopping the Huns East of Rheims  
1,000 Americans Engage 50,000 Germans When a French Division Retreats

SECTION 22-1918

### Franco-American Forces, 600,000

Gen. Foch, Commander-in-Chief  
Gen. Petain, Field Commander

Fourth French Army—Gen. Gouraud  
42d U. S. Division (Rainbow)—Gen. Menoher  
Italian Division  
British Division

Fifth French Army—Gen. Berthelot  
3d U. S. Division (Regulars)—Gen. Dickman  
38th U. S. Infantry—Col. McAlexander

Sixth French Army—Gen. de Mitry  
28th U. S. Division (Pennsylvania)—Gen. Muir

### German Forces, 720,000

Gen. von Ludendorff, Chief of Staff  
Crown Prince Frederick, Commander

First Army—Gen. Fritz von Below  
Second Army—Gen. von Boehm  
Third Army—Gen. von Einem  
Fourth Army—Gen. von Mudra

THE German Armies of the Marne needed five weeks in which to recover from the effects of the shock they had sustained when halted by the U. S. 3d Division of Regulars at Chateau Thierry in the fullness of their drive toward Paris on June 6th. They employed this interval in restoring their depleted ranks with inferior Reservists—all that remained to them now—and in assembling artillery and munitions on a gigantic scale in preparation for a fifth thrust at Paris from a new direction.

With the path to Paris blocked by those terrible Americans lying in wait south of the Marne, Gen. von Ludendorff despaired of extending the point of the salient westward until after he had deepened the pivot positions. His futile attempt to extend the western base of the salient at Soissons had not dismayed him. There still remained a chance for victory if the salient could be extended south of Rheims. It was toward Rheims, therefore, that Ludendorff turned his gaze in July.

Ludendorff's program was a most ambitious one. Arranging his four German armies in two groups, he planned to advance east and west of Rheims and overcome the defences of that city by a two-fold envelopment. Then, pushing on toward Chalons and Epernay, he expected to cut at two points the railroad which runs from Paris to Verdun and so gain control of the principal food-line which served the French armies in the Champagne area. This operation, if suc-

cessful, held the promise of far-reaching results. It would enable the German forces east of Rheims to complete the envelopment of Verdun and compel the evacuation of that city. The withdrawal of the French forces from Verdun would in turn expose the flanks of the Franco-American Army then guarding the Alsace-Lorraine border and compel their immediate retreat. This would leave unprotected the gaps at Belfort and Epinal, and endanger the whole chain of border fortresses. Thus France would be helpless to cope with a German invasion on her Eastern frontier. To the Germans the outlook was rosy and they laid their plans accordingly.

### Disposition of the Armies

A GROUP of four German armies, under the general command of Crown Prince Frederick, was assigned to carry out the Champagne-Marne offensive. Gen. von Mudra and Gen. von Einem, with 400,000 troops, were to attack east of Rheims, and between Prunay and the Argonne Forest, intending to cut the Allied line at two points. West of Rheims, the forces of Gen. von Boehm and Gen. Fritz von Below were to attack the Allied line in the Marne sector.

Gen. Foch, however, had divined the purpose of the German High Command and taken the necessary steps to thwart their every move. The Allied front was held by two French armies, reinforced by American, British and Italian contingents. East of Rheims, in Champagne, lay Gen. Gouraud's

Fourth French Army, to which was attached the U. S. 42d Division (Rainbow), in command of Gen. Menoher, together with the famous 15th U. S. Infantry (New York Black Watch), commanded by Col. Hayward. With Gouraud's army also there were Italian and British units. West of Rheims the Marne salient was defended by Gen. Berthelot's Fifth French Army, in co-operation with the 3d U. S. Division of the Regular Army, the 28th U. S. Division of Pennsylvania National Guards and the glorious 38th U. S. Infantry Regiment, commanded by Col. U. S. McAlexander.

### The French Strategy Outlined

GEN. FOCH purposed not only to stop the German offensive short, but to counter-attack vigorously, with all available forces, taking advantage of the perilous position of the German Armies in the enormous salient

which they had made for themselves between Soissons, Chateau-Thierry and Rheims.

Gen. Petain, the brilliant Field Commander of all the French Armies, had evolved an ingenious idea for the defence. Knowing that the Germans intended to attack in successive waves, he planned to thin out the troops in the French first line, massing the main French Army two miles in the rear. Thus, when the Germans made their first rush, they would not be solidly opposed, but would tire themselves before meeting the main force awaiting them. This plan involved the inevitable sacrifice of the units left in the first line; their part was to allow themselves to be killed in their tracks after having retarded the enemy's advance by scattering his ranks, so that he might be fatigued and out of breath when he reached the second French line. The soldiers of both French armies accepted this sacrifice with stoical courage.

## Second Battle of the Marne Opens

JUST after midnight, on July 15th, the German guns thundered forth their overture to the Second Battle of the Marne, east and west of Rheims. The echoes of the great guns awakened Paris, 40 miles distant. In reply, the French guns spoke with equal emphasis, all along that winding front of 55 miles, from Chateau Thierry east to the Argonne Forest. After four hours of this hellish music, at 4.15 a. m., the German gunners launched their rolling barrage and from behind it the German troops moved forward in wave on wave to the attack.

Every detail of the French defence worked smoothly on Gen. Gouraud's front, east of Rheims. The front line was held by hundreds of small combat groups, with machine guns, their task being to retard and scatter the enemy. This task they fulfilled to the end. The assaulting German waves found themselves caught and scattered among these islands of French resistance, the impact of their assault utterly spent. Reforming, the German waves again advanced toward the main French lines, two miles back from the front. Again the German impact made no impression. The surging German

waves shivered and broke backward. Lines of attack were halted in disaster, shattered, gashed by hand-to-hand combat, slaughtered by the artillery in the abandoned positions and by the infantry on the defended positions.

### U. S. "Rainbow" Division Breaks the Assault

A STRONG force of German Cavalry then attacked the Allied line, but the American sharpshooters of the "Rainbow Division," with machine guns, automatics and Enfield rifles, almost annihilated them. Only a few dozen German riders escaped the slaughter.

German tanks were now sent forward, accompanied by infantry, but so effective was the French artillery fire that many of the tanks were split wide open and the rest were stopped, while the German Infantry melted before the gun-fire of the Allies. Entire ranks of Germans crumpled up like paper. So discouraging was the rifle fire of the "Fighting Irish" Regiment of the "Rainbow" Division that the famous Prussian Guards lost heart, and for the first time in their history they refused to reattack under orders.

At all points, save three on the 25-mile front east of Rheims, the German advance



was halted. One column of Germans pushing the Italians back, advanced about three miles, almost to the Forest of Rheims. But further they could not go. Not a single French gun was lost and the Allied casualties were only 3,000, as against 15,000 for the Germans. The German offensive in this sector was smothered on the first day. By the 18th, it was forever crushed.

### **3d U. S. Division Wins a Glorious Victory**

IN the sector west of Rheims, near Chateau Thierry, the fighting was of the most violent description. Here the front was defended by the 3d U. S. Division of Regulars and the 28th Division of National Guards from Pennsylvania attached to Gen. Berthelot's Fifth French Army. The German artillery preparations were carried out on a scale never before attempted. With a new type of long-range guns, they shelled all the Allied front and back lines and the areas 30 miles to the rear to harass the movement of supplies and reinforcements. For four hours a creeping barrage had moved its curtain of steel, back and forth, five miles beyond the southern bank of the Marne. With their preponderance in artillery the Germans were able to smother all the Allied batteries, and in addition they drenched the whole country with gas, high explosives and smoke shells.

Under cover of this bombardment, the Germans at 3.30 A. M., attempted to cross the Marne just east of Chateau Thierry. Day was just breaking, and through the mist, fog and smoke, the watchful soldiers of the U. S. 3d Division could see the myriad boats and rafts loaded to the gunwales with enemy infantry and machine gunners. Yet not one of the German boats crossed that day in the center of the sector. Men of the 38th Infantry Regiment, who had escaped the hours of shelling, met every attempt with rifle and automatic fire. Scores of the German boats were shattered and sunk or disabled and sent drifting harmlessly down the river. Hundreds of Huns jumped into the water and were drowned. One German boat almost succeeded in crossing the river, but it was destroyed by hand grenades and all its occupants were drowned.

### **1,000 Americans Engage 50,000 Germans**

IN the Jaulgonne bend of the Marne, Gen. von Boehm's army was more successful. This sector was defended by the 39th French Division, with the U. S. 28th Division in support. Four companies only of the 28th Division were in the French lines, but Americans and French alike shared equally the awful havoc caused by the galling barrage of the German guns.

Under cover of the barrage the Germans, at 3.30 A. M., laid their pontoon bridges across the Marne and crossed in never-ending hosts. The four American companies, though under fire for the first time, stood their ground like veterans. Into the ranks of the advancing Germans they poured a steady stream of machine-gun and rifle fire. But nothing seemed to stop the Germans. Up the wooded slopes they swept in waves, regardless of the furious fire of the defenders. Soon the combatants were fighting breast to breast. Men fought in little groups and no group knew what the other was doing.

Suddenly the French troops gave way, retreating to their main line of resistance and leaving the four companies of untried American soldiers—less than 1,000 men—to repel the attack of 50,000 Germans. Undismayed, those heroic young Pennsylvanians gave battle to the entire German assault army. Out-numbered 50 to 1, and with no lines of communication for food or ammunition, each little band of Americans in the end was surrounded and for the most part cut down. Some few groups fought their way out of the German circle and back to the safety of the French lines, but the majority were captured or slain. Out of 1,000, only 400 survived. Those who remained were for the most part wounded or sustained severe shell shock.

The Germans then advanced four miles up the east side of the little Surmelin River, almost to Conde.

### **One Regiment Defeats Three German Divisions**

THE 38th Regiment of the 3d U. S. Division, commanded by Col. U. S. McAlexander, won imperishable glory on the opening day of the battle. Holding ground on the Marne



bank, near the mouth of the Surmelin River, this regiment prevented the enemy's crossing on its front while two divisions were closing in on either flank. Facing and firing in three directions, this single regiment accomplished the incredible feat of throwing two German divisions, numbering 30,000 men, into complete confusion, killing 6,000 of the enemy and taking 600 prisoners, at the same time holding back a third German division on its front.

### German Advance Stopped

FOR two days more the Germans continued their attacks. On the north they approached

close to the heights of the Montagne de Rheims, which commanded the Cathedral City. On the south they reached successively St. Agnan, La Chapelle and Monthodon, the Italian troops doggedly disputing every foot of the way. Here they were stopped for two days. Moreover, the French, having held the St. Agnan Ridge, were in a position to sweep the crossings of the Marne with their guns. Thus the German communications across the river were jeopardized. The time for which Gen. Foch had so patiently waited had arrived. With the aid of his American shock troops, he decided to launch a counter-offensive and throw the Huns back to the Rhine.

WESTERN THEATER, JULY 18—AUG. 5

## Germans Forced to Evacuate Marne Salient with Huge Losses

Yankee Division Strikes First Blow at Chateau Thierry and Belleau Wood  
French Armies of Mangin and Degouette Finally Unhinge the Salient

SECTION 23—1918

### Franco-American Forces, 1,000,000

Gen. Foch, Commander-in-Chief  
Gen. Petain, French Commander  
Gen. Pershing, American Commander

Tenth French Army—Gen. Mangin  
U. S. 1st Division (Regulars)—Gen. Bullard  
U. S. 2d Division (Marines)—Gen. Harbord  
British Contingent

Sixth French Army—Gen. Degouette  
U. S. 26th (Yankee) Division—Gen. Edwards  
U. S. 28th (Keystone) Division—Gen. Muir  
U. S. 4th (Ivy) Division—Gen. Poore  
U. S. 32d (Michigan) Division—Gen. Haan  
U. S. 77th (Metropolitan) Division—Gen. Duncan  
U. S. 42d (Rainbow) Division—Gen. Menoher  
U. S. 3d (Regular) Division—Gen. Dickman

Fifth French Army—Gen. Berthelot  
British Divisions  
Italian Division

### German Forces, 900,000

Gen. von Ludendorff, Chief of Staff  
Crown Prince Frederick

First Army—Gen. Boehm  
Second Army—Gen. Hutier  
Third Army—Gen. Einem  
Fourth Army—Gen. Mudra  
Fifth Army—Gen. Below

**T**HOUGH the Germans, in their recent short-lived drive, had ferried 100,000 troops across the Marne, yet their mighty offensive had proved a failure. The Imperial Army at length had been definitely halted by the invincible legions of America and France. The path to Paris, along the Valley of the Marne, was blocked to them forever by the resolute Yankee Doughboys.

Full well the Germans knew that these intrepid American soldiers could not be turned aside. Belleau Wood, Jaulgonne and Chateau Thierry were names burned deep into the German consciousness.

The morale of the German troops had been perceptibly lowered. Their losses, since the March offensive began, had been appalling. The half million selected troops which the Kaiser had drawn from the Eastern front, to aid in smashing the Allied line, had been absorbed in the furnace of war. No longer did the Germans possess a superiority of two to one in man power. And day by day the American Army was growing into dread proportions.

Moreover, the Kaiser's Armies, self-imprisoned in the deep pockets or salients at Arras, Montdidier and Dormans, were ex-



posed to attack from three sides. If those pockets could be closed, by pressure at the flanks, the German armies might be captured intact or mercilessly destroyed. How to extricate themselves from the three-fold trap, not how to advance farther on the road to Paris, was the immediate concern of the German High Command!

### Place of Honor for American Troops

Now was the time for Gen. Foch to strike back at the Prussian war machine. For four months this incomparable strategist had lured the enemy on to their inevitable defeat. He had permitted the German hordes to wear themselves out, in futile attacks on the Allied line, drawing them on into dangerous salients where they could be held captive, until he was ready to hit back.

But before assuming the offensive, there must be available an army of shock troops to deliver the vital blow. Not to England could he look for such an army. The British had been barely holding their own after the collapse of Gen. Gough's army in March, and had no shock troops to spare. The French had performed miracles of valor, but they had reached the limit of their resources in man power. Italy could not lend the numbers necessary to hurl back the German forces. America alone possessed the power to defeat Germany.

As he looked upon the first Yankee levies that entered the trenches, after six months' training in warfare, Gen. Foch had had his moments of misgivings. Could these inexperienced young Crusaders of the Western Republic give successful battle to the Kaiser's veteran hosts? His doubts were quickly dispelled by the clean-cut Yankee victories at Cantigny, Belleau Wood, Bouresches, Jaulgonne, Vaux and Chateau Thierry. Here were shock troops to his liking—the peers of any combat troops in Europe. He would give those fearless Americans, who faced thrice their number of the foe unflinchingly and whipped them again and again, the place of honor in the counter-attack soon to be launched.

### Gen. Foch Strikes at the German Salient

WHEN the final German drive was halted by the Americans and French, on July 17,

48 hours after it had begun, Gen. Foch decided to strike quickly while the foe was still stunned and demoralized by defeat.

He purposed not to force a decision at any one point, but to strike in quick succession, first at one salient, then another, giving the boche no respite, no opportunity to transfer his troops from one sector to another in anticipation of each new assault.

The area chosen for the first attack was the Western side of the Marne salient, from Soissons to Chateau Thierry, on a front of 28 miles. The task of crushing in this salient was intrusted to two Franco-American armies.

The Northern half of the sector, between the Aisne and Ourcq Rivers, was held by the army of Gen. Mangin, hero of Verdun, together with the United States First and Second Divisions.

The Southern half of the line, from the Ourcq to Chateau Thierry, was occupied by General Degouette's French Army, together with the United States Third Division of the Regular Army, the 26th or Yankee Division and the 28th or Pennsylvania Division of the National Guard.

The place of honor at the "nose" of the salient near Chateau Thierry, where the German pressure was strongest, was held by the young New Englanders of the 26th or Yankee Division. They alone guarded the gateway to Paris, only 40 miles away.

### Americans Advance Six Miles

THE Franco-American assault, which started the Huns on their retreat to the Rhine, was delivered on the morning of July 18th. Without artillery preparation, but preceded by a rolling barrage, the Franco-American troops leaped over their parapets at 4.45 A. M., and with 500 whippet tanks in the lead, made for the German first line trenches a half mile away. The Huns were taken completely by surprise. \*Thousands were captured in the first rush; entire headquarters staffs were seized before they could emerge from their dugouts.

Pushing forward along the entire front to a depth of six miles, the French and American troops drove the Huns out of three parallel lines of trenches, capturing 20 villages



and advancing their front to within a mile of Soissons, where they occupied the high hills commanding the city.

West of Soissons, in this first advance, the U. S. 1st Division captured 4,000 prisoners and 30 guns. Further south the U. S. Marines, in co-operation with the French, took the town of Vierzy and pushed eastward three miles beyond the town. In a few hours the 1st and 2d Divisions had advanced double the distance it had taken the Huns three days to cover. They had arrived on the battle line late the night before and, without sleep, had plunged into the thick of the fray. For five days, before they were relieved, these two divisions fought continuously and with such apparent disdain of death as to win the plaudits of the highest French generals.

Though the Germans fought with desperate energy in the area north of the Ourcq, their resistance was nevertheless broken by the persistent Frenchmen who penetrated into the western outskirts of Chouy and Neuilly-St. Front and on to Belleau Wood, taking many prisoners.

South of the Marne the French yielded some ground, but elsewhere the German defensive was broken down, with heavy losses. Before night the French had recaptured Montvoisin, Chene-la-Reine and the heights overlooking the Marne. Farther north the French also occupied Venteuil and the Bois du Rois.

### **Yankees Take Torcy, Belleau, Givry, Epieds**

THE three American divisions in the Chateau Thierry sector were attacking the Germans with great vigor and dash. The 26th or Yankee Division were allotted 20 minutes to get into Torcy behind their rolling barrage. They accomplished this feat on the minute.

Pushing on to Belleau village and Givry, the Yankee boys met with stiff resistance, but they could not be stopped. After clearing both those villages, they rushed the hill behind Givry and cleared the German machine gunners off its top, but the French failed to co-operate in the attack and at nightfall the Yanks withdrew to Belleau Wood.

The area in their rear was now an inferno of shell fire. Of 22 American runners sent back with messages, five were killed and 12 wounded.

On the 19th the Yankees and French together gained Hill 193 and Monthiers, then advancing to the edge of the Etrepilly Plateau in preparation for a dash across to the Chateau-Thierry-Soissons Road. This highway was gained on the following day, and the Yankees pursued the enemy to the line of Epieds and Trugny.

These villages were bristling with machine guns, one for every 20 feet. Two regiments forced their way into the villages, but were driven back with heavy losses. For two days and nights the battle persisted, but the Germans in the end were driven out of Trugny and this in turn compelled the evacuation of Epieds.

The American victory had been a costly one. During that first week, from July 18th to July 25th, the Yankee Division had lost 4,108 officers and men in killed, wounded, gassed and missing. Some 1,200 others were evacuated, sick or exhausted. The German losses, though heavy, were not computed. The 26th Division was now relieved in order to secure a few days of much needed rest.

### **French Generals Give Yankees the Credit**

GEN. DEGOUTTE, commanding the French Army to which the Yankee Division was attached, declared: "The 26th Division alone is responsible for the whole Allied advance on the Marne. They are shock troops, par excellence."

President Poincare of France and Gen. Pershing also expressed their pride in the achievements of the Yankee Division, while the majors of the arondissements of Meaux sent their gratitude to the "Saviors of Paris."

### **Germans Evacuate Chateau Thierry**

MEANWHILE the French and American forces had continued their advance between the Aisne and the Marne. The Germans, heavily reinforced, strove in vain to stem the tide of advance.

Fighting uphill all the way, the French and Americans pushed the Germans out of their strongest positions, excepting on the



plateau near Soissons, from which the Germans could not be dislodged.

Chateau Thierry was evacuated by the Germans on July 21st, after a furious battle in the village streets, where the combatants took advantage of every house and tree. The retreating Germans were swept back for miles, over hills and through forests, beyond the highway to Soissons. Farther north, the Allies had reached Hartennes on the Soissons Road and threatened Oulchy, marking a gain of seven miles. In three days' fighting the Allies had taken 20,000 prisoners and 400 guns.

After expelling von Boehm's troops from the district south of the Marne, the Allies threw bridges across the river and began to move their troops and supplies to the north bank. Under the grilling fire of the German guns, two columns of troops crossed the river at Mezy and Courcelles. The Germans then retreated northward, fighting rear guard actions all the while, and leaving behind countless machine-gun nests to harass their pursuers.

### **Closing In on Three Sides**

LATE in the morning of July 27th, the Huns began a general retreat toward the line of the Ourcq River. The entire Chateau-Thierry-Soissons Highway, from the Ourcq south to the Marne, was now occupied by the Allies.

Defeated by an American Division in a terrific counter-attack at Epieds, the Germans had retreated to Courpoil, a mile to the northeast. The French and Americans had advanced on a wide front beyond Preloup on the Marne. To the north of Epieds the French troops had penetrated as far as Brecy.

The pressure on the Germans had heretofore been exerted from the west and south. Gen. Foch now ordered an attack on the opposite side of the salient, south of Rheims. The French and British advanced to Bouilly, Guex and Mery Premercy, thus narrowing the mouth of the salient two miles. The net was closing in upon von Boehm's 500,000 troops, imprisoned in a salient 20 miles deep by 20 miles wide, every foot of which was within range of the Allied guns.

As a further surprise, Gen. Foch suddenly struck a blow in the Montdidier sector. Attacking on a front of four miles, the French troops advanced two miles, capturing the villages of Mailly-Raineval, Savillers and Aulvillers, the heights commanding the Avre River and over 1,500 prisoners.

### **Americans Capture Fere-en-Tardenois**

THE nerve center of the German front, within the Marne salient, was at Fere-en-Tardenois, the junction of several railroads and a chief distributing point. This important position now became the main objective of the Allies.

The Germans, in force, occupied the Fere and Riz Forests, where they had huge piles of ammunition with which to feed their great guns. Hidden among the dense foliage and underbrush, were hundreds of German machine gunners prepared to fight to the death in defence of that ammunition.

The American troops, by a flanking movement above the Forest of Fere, brilliantly carried the village of Beuvardes. Advancing to Le Charmel, they were at first repulsed, but reinforcements arriving, they drove out the Germans, pursuing them toward Fere.

Much of the fighting took place in forests, and the troops had been warned to beware of Germans wearing American or French uniforms. As one body of American troops was crossing an open place in the forest, a German, speaking perfect English, called to the American machine gunners: "Don't shoot. There are Americans in this lot."

The Yankee boys withheld their fire, whereupon the pretended American gunners treacherously assailed them with a hail of machine gun bullets.

The real Americans—now very wrathful Americans—cleaned out that nest of boche imposters in short order. Fere-en-Tardenois was occupied by the Americans on July 28th.

Half of the famous Marne salient already had been evacuated by the Germans, who were retreating swiftly toward the north. Their casualties had been enormous, more than 30,000 prisoners having fallen into the hands of the Allies. Pursued by the Americans from behind and the French and Brit-



ish on their flanks, with the cavalry and the tanks taking toll here and there, the German storm troops were certainly in sorry plight.

The Germans still guarded the pivots of the salient at Soissons and Rheims, where ten divisions had been assembled, drawn from Prince Rupprecht's army further north. Near Soissons, on the heights around Juvigny and Chavigny, where the Germans had massed many huge guns, the French left wing was under continuous fire, but its progress was not checked.

In the Eastern areas, the Allies were squeezing the sides of the salient all the way from Dormans to Rheims. At St. Thierry the Germans had massed a strong army of artillery which impeded but did not stay the Allied advance.

### The Capture of Sergy

THE Germans had hoped to make a stand at the Ourcq River, but so relentless was the American pressure from behind, they were forced to abandon this position on July 29th and fall back on a new line beyond the River Vesle. By this time the French column advancing from the west, and the Franco-British column advancing from the east, had joined with the American divisions and the pursuit was carried on along a single line from the south.

The ousting of the Germans from the Ourcq and the taking of Sergy and Seringes by the boys of the U. S. 42d, 28th and 32d Divisions redounded to their further glory.

After crossing the Ourcq the Germans had been reinforced by two Bavarian divisions. With these 30,000 fresh troops, the Germans squatted them down on the north banks and defied the Americans to dislodge them. The challenge was accepted. On July 27th, the three American divisions pushed forward toward Sergy, but being without artillery support they were compelled to fall back.

Early the next morning, under cover of a barrage fire, the Americans advanced unchecked as far as the banks of the Ourcq River. Crossing the river in the face of a deluge of gas, they entered Sergy, driving the Germans helter skelter before them through the streets of the town.

Returning to the assault the next day, with a fresh Prussian Guard Division, the Germans retook Sergy, only to lose it an hour later. All day long the tide of battle ebbed and flowed. Sergy changed hands no less than nine times that day, but the Americans were finally successful, holding Sergy definitely at nightfall.

Pursuing the Prussian Guards and the Bavarians on July 30th, the invincible Yankees again defeated them, advancing their line to Nesle, east of Seringes, their next objective.

Before Seringes could be taken, it was necessary to clean up the machine-gun nests at Meury Farm. Advancing through the yellow wheat fields, as though they were on drill ground, with a perfect disregard of the bullets that sprayed them, the Americans rushed the German outpost guns and killed the gunners.

Then, ascending the long slopes leading to the woods, the Yankee boys fearlessly passed safely through as heavy a German barrage as ever was laid and fiercely attacked the machine gun and infantry detachments. The barrage suddenly ceased, the German artillerymen leaving the work of resistance to the men they had failed to protect with their heavy guns. In the battle that ensued, many Germans were slaughtered, few prisoners being taken. An exception was the case of a Yankee sergeant who attacked 18 Germans, killing four of them and capturing the others. So great were the casualties that of one company of 86 Prussian Guards only eight survived.

### Germans Slaughtered in Seringes

THE Americans easily expelled the Germans from Seringes, although the town was held in strength and protected by many machine-gun nests scattered on either side. The Germans, after their expulsion, deluged the town all day with shells. Then, supposing its recapture would be easily effected, they emerged from the forest in force.

The Americans, "playing possum," pretended to withdraw from the front of the town, but when the Germans re-entered it, the Yankee boys began an encircling movement, forming a ring almost completely around it.



The Prussian Guards, realizing that they had been trapped, swore never to surrender. But the American circle drew closer and ever closer about the village, the Yankees using machine guns, rifles and pistols as they advanced.

When the Americans reached the precincts of the village their fire ceased and with a wild yell they closed with the foe. The fierce uproar suddenly gave way to strange silence as man grappled with man. Only the clash of steel on steel and the groans of the stricken could be heard. It was all over in ten minutes. Except for a few prisoners, every German in the village had been slaughtered. The picked Prussian guardsmen were no match for the Yankees.

### Americans Reach Fismes

MOVING out from Seringes, the Americans and their French allies reached Fismes on the Vesle River August 2, 1918, having advanced 25 miles in fifteen days and obliterated the Marne salient. On the same day a French division entered Soissons, making an advance of three miles. Thus was celebrated the fifth anniversary of the beginning of the War.

These operations marked the close of the first phase of the battle. The Allies, in their brief offensive of two weeks' duration, had forced the enemy back 25 miles and captured 35,000 prisoners, 750 field guns and several thousand machine guns. The Marne salient had been practically wiped out and the army of von Boehm was demoralized. Gen. Foch now decided to strike at the Picardy salient further north.

WESTERN THEATER, AUG. 8-SEPT. 24

## Germans Driven in Precipitate Flight from Montdidier Salient

Canadians Break Through the Droecourt-Queant Switch Line  
One American Division Defeats Four German Divisions in Battle of Juvigny

SECTION 24-1918

#### Allied Forces, 600,000

Marshal Foch, Generalissimo  
British Group of Armies—Gen. Haig, Commander  
Fourth Army—Gen. Rawlinson  
U. S. 27th Division—Gen. O'Ryan  
U. S. 30th Division—Gen. Lewis  
Third Army—Gen. Byng  
U. S. 33d Division—Gen. Higginson  
First Army—Gen. Horne  
Second Army—Gen. Plumer  
French Group of Armies—Gen. Petain, Commander  
First Army—Gen. Debeney  
Third Army—Gen. Humbert  
Tenth Army—Gen. Mangin  
U. S. 32d Division—Gen. Haan

#### German Forces, 500,000

Gen. Ludendorff, Chief of Staff  
First Army Group—Prince Rupprecht  
\*Gen. von Marwitz  
Gen. von Below  
Gen. von Scherin  
Second Army Group—Grown Prince Frederick  
\*Gen. von Hutier  
Gen. von Quast  
Gen. von Boehm

\*Command of both armies passes to Gen. von Boehm while battle is in progress.

**W**HILE the American troops, in co-operation with the French, were engaged in expelling the Germans from the Marne salient, Marshal Foch was applying the "pincers" to the Albert-Montdidier salient, further north in Picardy, using four British and three French armies in the operation. Taken wholly by surprise, the Germans were compelled to withdraw from the salient, eventually falling back to the Hindenburg line.

In this, the second phase of his "Victory Offensive," Marshal Foch attained his strategic purpose of eliminating a dangerous pocket, liberating Montdidier, removing the menace from Amiens and reopening the vital railway connecting Amiens with Paris and Calais. In addition he restored to France all the territory, including hundreds of cities and towns, which had been seized by the Bavarian forces of Prince Rupprecht during



their great drive toward Amiens beginning in May.

It was the privilege of four American divisions, bracketed with British and French armies, to share in the glory of the victory. Here, as everywhere, their mettle was put to the test; the American troops proved their invincibility, as when one American division defeated four German divisions in the furious battle fought at Juvigny.

### British Armies Reorganized

THE Picardy salient, extending some 40 miles southeast from Albert to Montdidier, formed an obtuse angle, whose apex at Moreuil pointed toward Amiens. From the heights overlooking the city, the German guns could dominate Amiens and the vital trunkline connecting Paris and the Channel Ports. They controlled, besides, the important city of Montdidier and the two superb Roman roads leading from Amiens due east to St. Quentin and southeast of Noyon. The northern side of the salient was defended by

Gen. Rawlinson's Fourth British Army, facing Gen. von Marwitz's group of German armies, and the southern side by Gen. Debeney's First French Army in opposition with Gen. von Hutier's German forces. Attached to Rawlinson's British Army were the United States 27th Division, commanded by Gen. O'Ryan, and the United States 30th Division commanded by Gen. Lewis. Supporting the Allies were Gen. Kavanagh's British Cavalry Corps, stationed east of Amiens and Gen. Brutinel's Motor Machine-Gun Brigade.

Since their great disaster in March, the British armies had undergone a thorough reorganization; many thousand fresh troops had been sent to the Montdidier sector and fitted into the existing corps. All the losses of guns and supplies had been replaced. They now outmanned and outgunned the Germans. Moreover, Prince Rupprecht of Bavaria had weakened his defence by dispatching several corps of infantry to the assistance of the German Crown Prince when the latter was being mauled by the Americans at the Marne.

## Third Battle of the Somme Opens

### Allied Forces, 320,000

Field Marshal Haig, Commander  
Fourth British Army—Gen. Rawlinson  
U. S. 27th Division, Gen. O'Ryan  
U. S. 30th Division, Gen. Lewis  
First French Army, Gen. Debeney

### German Forces, 300,000

Prince Rupprecht, Commander  
Second German Army, Gen. von Marwitz  
Eighteenth German Army—Gen. von Hutier

THE Picardy offensive, better known as the Third Battle of the Somme, opened just before daybreak on August 8th. A heavy mist prevailed, obscuring the preparations of the British and French armies and assisting in the surprise attack that had been planned.

Hundreds of small whippet tanks, capable of great speed, were aligned on the battle front to blaze a path for the infantry. Close by were the cavalry and motorcycle brigades, prepared to make the dash down the divergent Roman roads and clean up the intervening terrain.

Planned as a surprise assault, the customary long bombardment of the enemy's position was omitted. Instead, the Allied guns swept the German lines for exactly four minutes, wiping out their defences as though

with a sponge. Then, away sped the British and French tanks, the infantry following on the double quick.

Everywhere along that 40-mile front the Germans were taken by surprise. The members of a German regimental mess were captured at their breakfast table; all the officers of a division staff were seized at another point; droves of German soldiers were taken in the wheat fields behind their lines, while harvesting what the French had sowed; hundreds of drowsy boches were caught in their billets.

Before nightfall, after penetrating seven miles into the salient, Rawlinson's forces had captured 14,000 prisoners and 100 guns and taken many towns and villages, while Kavanagh's cavalry had advanced 25 miles into the heart of the salient, cut the Albert-Mont-



didier Railroad and captured a train near Chaulnes.

Only on the flanks was the British movement hindered. The left wing of Rawlinson's army, after seizing the town of Cripilly, was forced to withdraw, and the attempt to capture Morlancourt also failed.

The advance of Debeney's French Army was equally successful. Although the Germans gave him some trouble round about Morzel and Moreuil, the French, nevertheless, captured 14,000 prisoners and 100 guns. In a single day, the whole of the Amiens outer defence line had been gained from the enemy and the Allied front extended within four miles of Chaulnes. The one disappointment was the loss of Cripilly.

### **The Second Day's Advance**

THE second day of battle saw the Allied line extended 12 miles beyond the starting point. Cavalry and fast tanks operated far in front of the advancing infantry, creating havoc among the retreating Germans, cutting up trains, killing thousands and taking 17,000 prisoners. Swarms of airmen rained bombs on convoys until many roads became impassable from the wreckage. Other airmen blew up the bridges over the Somme, which the Germans were endeavoring to cross. All through the day the British guns pressed hard on the heels of the infantry, the cavalry deploying at the gallop to cut off Germans in flight, the sky alive with airmen bombing every road, screening tanks with smoke bombs and piloting them to points where they could be of most service. At the close of the second day the British had reached a position beyond Rosieres and the French had progressed well along the road to Roye.

### **Americans Take Cripilly and Morlancourt**

IN the fighting of the second day, a regiment of the U. S. 33d Division, co-operating with the British Third Corps, assisted in the capture of Cripilly and Morlancourt. Preceded by tanks, the Americans pushed forward toward Bray-sur-Somme, reaching all their objectives and giving the Wurttembergers who opposed them such a drubbing that their only attempt at a counter-attack was confined to small forays by patrols.

These preliminary engagements yielded the Americans three six-inch howitzers, two field guns and several machine guns.

The main objective was the Cripilly spur, northeast of the village of that name, rising nearly 300 feet sheer and dominating the Somme Valley. Its capture was preceded by the taking of the town of Cripilly. Though the town was filled with machine-gun nests, the Americans managed to encircle and kill many of the crews. Then followed the charge up the Cripilly spur with victory crowning the efforts of the gallant 33d Division. In co-operation with the British, the Americans also assisted in the capture of Morlancourt.

### **Montdidier Garrison Surrenders**

THE center of the Allied line, on August 9th, was advanced to the outskirts of Mericourt and Proyart, outflanking Montdidier on the north. Marshal Foch thereupon called Gen. Humbert's Third French Army into action on the south flank. Humbert advanced rapidly, seizing the villages of Le Tronquoy and Le Fretoy.

To complete the investment of Montdidier, Gen. Debeney and Humbert pushed on through the night to Faverolles, getting astride the road to Roye, the sole avenue of retreat for the Germans. Invested on all sides, the Montdidier garrison surrendered on the following day, many prisoners and large quantities of supplies falling into the hands of the French.

The advance on August 10th was carried ten miles further—Rawlinson's army pushing forward close to Lihons, Debeney's army to La Boissiere and Humbert's army to Fecamps and Conchy.

Foch's strategy had succeeded. The Germans had been pressed back beyond gun range of Amiens, thus freeing the Allied communications, while all their own lateral communications had been cut. Thirty thousand German prisoners had been taken and many guns; eleven German divisions had been smashed; Montdidier, now an "incredible ruin," had been captured, and Chaulnes and Roye were within reach of the Allied guns.

When Humbert's French Army entered Montdidier, there was neither wall nor roof



to indicate a human dwelling, only mounds of rubbish that had once been houses. One long piece of wall, rising 15 feet above the surrounding wreckage, marked the site of the fine old church of St. Peter. Moreuil presented an even more lamentable spectacle. The wooden framework of houses stood as bare as skeletons with coverings of tiles or plaster rent away by shell-fire. Not a single house had escaped injury.

### Allies Regain the Original Somme Line

THE British and French armies pressed close on the heels of the retreating Germans, their cavalry harassing the Hun flanks, their myriad airplanes flying low and bombing the bridges over the Somme, hindering the Huns in their retreat.

During the night of August 10th, Rawlinson's army advanced astride the Somme, carrying the heights north of the river between Etinehem and Dernancourt.

On the 11th, von Hutier, being heavily reinforced, retook Lihons and checked the advance of Humbert's army.

Rawlinson advanced on the 12th, south of the Somme, taking Proyart and recapturing Lihons, while Debeney gained ground southwest of Roye. By this time the Allies had taken 40,000 prisoners and recovered all the ground they had lost in 1916. The armies of von Hutier and von Marwitz had been rolled back practically to the old lines which they held from 1914 to 1917.

### Americans Capture Bray

ON the 12th, Gen. Higginson's 33d U. S. Division assisted the British in capturing the town of Bray in a brilliant assault. On the same day Gen. Humbert's French Army attacked the great massif south of Lassigny, which had been lost a month before. In rapid succession the French captured Gury, Belval and Ribecourt, and by August 15th the whole of the massif was in Humbert's control.

Von Hutier's army, now numbering 35 divisions, was able to make a brief stand along the Marne, but having lost the Lassigny range, further retreat was inevitable.

How to make an orderly retreat was Ludendorff's chief concern. He solved the prob-

lem by taking a new army group out of his reserve divisions, giving the command to Gen. von Eben. This army, taking a position between the fronts of Prince Rupprecht and the Crown Prince Frederick, from Albert to Soissons, was given the task of holding the uplands between Arras and the Oise to enable the main German armies to make an orderly retreat to the Siegfried line.

### Germans Withdraw from Lys Salient

MEANWHILE, on August 15th, the Germans had begun to sneak out of the Lys salient behind Ypres, finding it untenable. A small British Army kept them moving. Lacon and Colonne were occupied by the British on August 15th, and on the line of the Ancre the British drove the Huns out of Beaumont, Hamel, Serre, Puiseux and Bucquoy. On the 19th the Germans were driven out of Merville and were retreating all along the line, with heavy casualties. The British already had "ironed out" a fifth of the salient.

### Mangin's Advance to the Ailette

THE advance in the Picardy sector having slowed down, Gen. Foch delivered a fresh blow in a new quarter. Gen. Mangin's Tenth French Army was ordered to attack the enemy's flank on a ten-mile front between the Oise and the Aisne. Advancing up the Oise River on August 18th, Mangin pushed the Huns back a mile or more, occupying the plateau west of Nampoel and taking 1,700 prisoners. Extending his front 16 miles, Mangin on the 19th took Morsain. The following day found him firmly established on the heights of the Aisne, threatening both the German fronts on the Aisne and west of the Oise.

Three new German divisions were hastily brought into the battle line, but they could not dislodge Mangin's army. In three days the French had occupied 20 villages, captured 8,000 prisoners and 200 guns, and compelled a weakening of the German line to the north which was robbed of its corps to stay Mangin's drive. Mangin was well content to pause now while Gen. Foch was whacking the Huns in another sector.

### Byng Strikes Between Arras and Albert

THE great battle grew ever wider, both to north and south. Gen. Foch aimed at seiz-



ing the Arras-Albert Railway as a preliminary to a general attack to be launched north of the Somme, with the Third and Fourth British Armies. The Germans already were preparing to retire to a secure position for the defence of the Bapaume bridge, but Foch struck before they were ready, using Byng's Third British Army.

Byng advanced August 21st, on a front of nine miles between Mayenville and Beaucourt, breaking through the enemy's line on the first rush and advancing two miles to the capture of Beaucourt, Achiet-le-Petit, Courcelles and Moyenneville. When night fell the Germans on this front were making a stand along the Arras-Albert Railways.

Next day Rawlinson's Fourth Army assisted in the action, between Albert and the Somme, capturing Albert and Meaulte and advancing two miles toward Fricourt.

Gen. Humbert's French Army, meantime, had occupied Lassigny and driven von Boehm's Prussians across the Oise all the way from Guny to Pontoise. Further west the French had reached the line of the River Divette.

#### **Bapaume, Noyon and Peronne Are Taken**

WITH the Germans in retreat on a wide front, it was Foch's purpose to harass them as much as possible. The British armies of Byng and Rawlinson, uniting on a 33-mile front, continued the pursuit. On August 23d, they had taken several towns, captured 2,000 prisoners and were closing in on Bapaume from the north. Thiepval Ridge was cleared on the the next day by a brilliant concentric attack. On the 25th the Germans were still holding desperately to Bapaume.

Debeney's French Army captured Fresnoy and Roye on the 27th, driving von Boehm's army in headlong retreat. On the following day Debeney pushed forward nine miles to the Upper Somme and the Canal du Nord.

Horne's First British Army, on the line of the Scarpe, meantime had taken Wancourt, Monchy, Guemappe, Roeux and Govrelle and was threatening the flank of the Siegfried line.

In seven days the British alone had taken 26,000 prisoners; the Bapaume Ridge was almost in their hands and the Siegfried line

menaced at one flank. Von Boehm, during his retreat, had hoped to reach an intermediate line based on the Ailette, the Oise, the Upper Somme and the Tortille River, preparatory to retiring in good order to the fortified zone of the Siegfried line, where he intended to settle down for the winter, but this expectation was destined to be unfulfilled. On August 29th, Byng's army occupied Bapaume, taking possession of its vast stores of ammunition; Humbert's French Army was in Noyon; Rawlinson had taken Combles and Morval; and the line of the Somme was in the hands of the British and French.

The next night the dashing Canadians crossed the Somme, capturing the German trenches east of Clery, and before daybreak of the 31st they had stormed Mont St. Quentin, the key to Peronne, taking 1,500 prisoners at a loss to themselves of only 200 men. The Germans violently counter-attacked all that day, but were repelled with ease.

On September 1st, the Australians took possession of Peronne and a number of villages to the north. Their captives numbered 10 times their own losses. Meanwhile, Gen. Mangin's French Army had advanced north of the Ailette River to Courcy-le-Chateau, while Debeney's French forces were pushing eastward toward Nesle. In the Battle of Bapaume, 23 divisions of British troops had defeated 35 German divisions, taking 34,000 prisoners and 270 guns.

#### **U. S. 27th Division Takes Kemmel Hill**

THE Germans, lacking reserve troops, were impotent to stop the British-American pressure in the Lys salient. On September 1st, the Britishers recaptured Bailleul Station, crossed the Lawe River and attacked Kemmel Hill. Co-operating with the British was the U. S. 27th Division, being at first in line north and west of Dickebusch Lake. The Germans had established a new line beyond this lake at Vierstraat Ridge. In a three days' battle, the American division ousted the Germans, capturing Vierstraat Ridge, Rossignol Wood, Petit Bois, Plateau Farm and finally Kemmel Hill. Many German prisoners were taken and a new line was established in a strong position. Late

in September, the 27th Division participated with the British in the drive against the Hindenberg line at the St. Quentin Canal and tunnel.

### **32d American Division Wins Battle of Juvigny**

THE defeat of four German divisions and the resultant capture of the heights of Juvigny by the U. S. 32d Division, all Michigan and Wisconsin boys attached to Gen. Mangin's French Army, was one of the most brilliant exploits among the major operations in Picardy.

So impetuous and determined was the attack of the Americans that they earned among the French the title of "Les Terribles."

In a six days' battle, beginning on August 29th, the 32d Division defeated the 7th German Division and threw back in disorder the 238th and 23d Reserve Divisions of the German Army. In this emergency the German 227th Division was rushed from Metz, with instructions to hold the Plateau at all costs.

Before they arrived, the Yankees had occupied the coveted heights and then turned upon the new arrivals, whipping them decisively. The invincible Americans crashed through the German lines for a total penetration of four miles, seizing the village of Juvigny and taking possession of the St. Quentin-La-Fere-Soissons Railway.

### **Evacuation of Wytschaete**

MEANWHILE, American detachments operating in Belgium had countered heavily north of Wytschaete on September 2d, capturing Voormezele. In co-operation with the British, another American detachment captured Neuve Eglise. By September 9th, the Americans and British held the heights dominating Wytschaete, which was evacuated.

### **Canadians Smash the German "Switch Line"**

DURING the first three days of September, Gen. Horne's Canadians penetrated the upper

end of the great Hindenberg line and advanced to the second defensive line, known to the Germans as the Droecourt-Queant switch. This strong position they also broke on a front of 20 miles, taking 10,000 prisoners and occupying the villages of Dury, Etaing and Villers-les-Cagnicourt. The German Army fell back in confusion behind the Canal du Nord, where they intrenched all the way from the Scarpe to the Tortille. South of Havincourt, they occupied the Siegfried line, along the La Vacquerie and Bonavis Ridges as far as the Scheldt Canal, and thence to St. Quentin.

South of Peronne, the armies of Debeney and Rawlinson crossed the Somme on September 5th. Mangin's French Army was now north of the Ailette River, its right wing moving eastward along the Chemin-des-Dames. The Franco-American troops had driven the foe from the Vesle River and occupied the heights between that river and the Aisne.

In Flanders the British had recovered Neuve Chapelle and Fanquissart, while Lens had been evacuated but not yet occupied by Gen. Horne's army.

The Germans were now in bad plight. Since their great offensive began in March, they had lost more than 1,500,000 men in dead, wounded and captured. Their reserves were scanty and the morale of the troops was declining. Deprived of his fortified line, where he had hoped to spend the winter, Gen. Ludendorff set about preparing positions well to the rear of his new position. The inhabitants of Douai, Cambrai and St. Quentin were hurriedly evacuated to make way for a further retreat of his soldiers.

While these preparations were under way, Gen. Foch had perfected plans to strike another deadly blow in the St. Mihiel salient, this time with the aid of an American Army under the sole command of Gen. John J. Pershing.



EASTERN SIBERIA, DEC.

## United States and Japanese Troops Landed at Vladivostok

**Bolsheviki Driven from Their Bases on the Ussuri and Amur Rivers  
U. S. Doughboys Guard Stretches of Trans-Siberian Railway.**

SECTION 25—1918

**Allied Land and Naval Forces, 100,000**

Gen. Kikusa Otani (Japanese), Commander-in-  
American Forces, 7,267 [Chief

Major-General W. S. Graves

**Japanese Forces, 40,000**

Major-General Muto  
Admiral Kato

**British Forces, 2,000**

Gen. Poole  
Admiral Kemp

**French Forces, 1,000**

Commandant Mallet

**Czecho-Slovak Forces, 50,000**

Gen. Dieterichs, Commander-in-Chief  
Gen. Stcherbatcheff  
Gen. Tcheramisoff

**Bolshevist-German Forces, 150,000**

Gen. Hoffman

**W**HEN the Allied governments learned that hundreds of thousands of former German and Austrian prisoners of war in Central Russia were aiding the Bolsheviki in their attempted subjugation of the Czecho-Slovak forces, it was dutifully proposed to send a large military expedition into Siberia and Russia by way of Vladivostok, to aid the Czechs.

France, Great Britain and Italy were strongly in favor of such intervention, but the United States Government for a time withheld its assent, and Japan refrained from taking any action until the enterprise had received the approval of our Government. It was President Wilson's thought that military intervention in Russia might add to the sad confusion prevailing there, instead of relieving it.

Interchanges between the United States and the Allies continued for months. In late July, President Wilson consented that military action in Russia was admissible to defend the Czechs from their German foes and to steady any efforts at self-government or self-defence in which the Russians themselves might be willing to accept assistance.

The Government of the United States therefore proposed to the Government of Japan that each nation should send a force

of a few thousand men to Vladivostok with the purpose of co-operating as a single force in the occupation of that city, in the safeguarding of Allied supplies and in the protection of the Czecho-Slovak flank. To this proposal the Japanese Government consented.

In explanation of this proposed invasion, the Government of the United States assured the people of Russia that it contemplated no interference with the sovereignty of their nation, no intervention in their internal affairs and no impairment of Russia's territorial integrity.

### United States Troops Land at Vladivostok

IN accordance with this plan, an American Expeditionary Force, under command of Major-General William S. Graves, was landed at Vladivostok. This force, numbering 7,267 men, included the 27th Infantry and the 31st Infantry, formerly stationed in the Philippines, besides one field hospital, one ambulance company, and other units. These troops arrived from San Francisco and Manilla in several contingents, the first on August 15th. By the end of September, the whole force had debarked.

Meantime the Japanese had sent 40,000 troops to Vladivostok and Great Britain and

France had furnished small contingents. By virtue of his rank, Major-General Kikusa Otani, a distinguished Japanese officer, became Commander-in-Chief of the expedition.

The primary purpose of this force was to lend aid and support to the Czecho-Slovak army, numbering 100,000 men, which was strung out along the 6,000-mile course of the Trans-Siberian Railroad, battling with 300,000 former German prisoners of war and their Bolshevik allies. As already stated, the Czechs were endeavoring to reach Vladivostok in order to take boat across the Pacific, traverse America, cross the Atlantic and reach the French battlefield. Though guaranteed unmolested passage through Siberia by the Bolsheviks, this guarantee had been withdrawn while they were enroute through Siberia and only an advance force had been permitted to reach Vladivostok. When attacked by the Bolsheviks and their German and Austrian allies, the Czechs defended themselves valorously, seizing a large section of the Siberian Railroad and occupying several cities. But now they were assailed by overwhelming forces and needed assistance. Accordingly, the Czechs who had already arrived at Vladivostok, started back over the Siberian Railroad to aid their brethren, while the Americans and Japanese applied themselves to clearing Eastern Siberia of all German, Austrian and Bolshevik mercenaries that thronged the region.

The intervention was successful. By Allied aid, the Czechs were saved from destruction and the resources of Siberia and Southeastern Russia were denied to the enemy. Thousands of Russians took up arms and fought on the side of the Allies and millions of people friendly to the Allies were spared the tyranny of Bolshevik rule.

#### **American Troops at Nikolsk**

UPON the arrival of the Japanese and British forces at Vladivostok, in August, they were sent north to aid the Czecho-Slovaks who were fighting the Bolsheviks and German ex-prisoners along the Ussuri River, which forms the eastern boundary of Manchuria. The first American contingents, upon their arrival from Manila, were sent to occupy points along the railway in the direction of

Nikolsk, thus releasing several hundred Czecho-Slovaks for service on the Ussuri front.

At this time there were two main groups of Czecho-Slovaks in Russia, separated by thousands of miles. The eastern group, in and north of Vladivostok, was receiving active aid from the Allies. The second and larger group occupied strategic points along the Trans-Siberian Railway from Irkutsk, on the shore of Lake Baikal, westward to Samara in European Russia, a distance of 2,000 miles. Between the two groups in the region around Chita, lay a well-armed force of Bolsheviks and German war prisoners estimated at 50,000 men. The first urgent task of the Allies was to establish communications between these two Czech groups and prevent the western group from becoming isolated.

#### **Japanese Victories on the Ussuri River**

THE first operations of the Allies, therefore, were directed against the stronghold of the Bolsheviks on the Ussuri and Amur Rivers, north of Vladivostok, and the stronghold round about Chita in Trans-Baikalia. The Allied offensive on the Ussuri front began on August 24th, when the Japanese and British forces drove 8,000 Reds 15 miles northward after a sharp battle in which the Reds lost 300 men. Four days later the Japanese Cavalry occupied Krasnoyarsk, the Bolsheviks withdrawing to the Amur River. On September 7th, Japanese Cavalry and an infantry battalion captured the enemy base at Khabarovsk, taking seventeen gunboats, four other vessels, a wireless station and 120 guns.

#### **Capture of Chita, the Bolshevik Stronghold**

THE isolated Czecho-Slovak forces in Western Siberia, 4,000 miles away, had been working eastward from Lake Baikal toward Chita, while a combined force of Cossacks and Japanese, under command of Gen. Semenov, were pushing northward out of Manchuria toward the same point.

Chita, the capital of Trans-Baikalia, and the chief stronghold of the Reds in Siberia, was captured by these Allied forces on September 6th and the Red Army dispersed. Telegraphic communication was reopened



between Irkutsk and Vladivostok and railway connections were re-established between the widely separated Czecho-Slovak groups. Merchinsk was occupied by the Japanese four days later. The Allies, on September 27th, entered the town of Banbuki, where they seized nine steamers, many railway cars and a large supply of war materials.

### **Czechs in Peril on the Volga**

OUTNUMBERED nearly two to one by the Bolsheviks, and lacking ammunition, the 60,000 Czecho-Slovaks and Cossacks then holding the line of the Volga were hard pressed in mid-September. Breaking through the Volga front, the Soviet troops captured Volsk, Simbirsk and Kazan. The latter city was recaptured by the Czechs on September 30th. All the officers of the Lettish regiments, to whom had been intrusted the defence of the city, were summarily executed by the Bolsheviks, "for failure to keep the regiment in its proper position and for having tolerated meetings of the radicals while the battle was in progress."

### **Czechs Free the Siberian Railroad**

WITH the arrival of the United States and Japanese troops in Siberia, the military situation began to improve. The Czechs were emboldened to renew their attacks on the Bolshevik line west of the Volga River. By the close of September, the Czechs were in control of Western Siberia. The Cossacks and the Allies predominated in Eastern Siberia. Only the central section, round about Irkutsk, was menaced by the Bolsheviks.

It was arranged that the Japanese Army should advance on Irkutsk and clear the Lake Baikal region of the foe. But the Japanese were reluctant to move westward; their interests seemed centered in Eastern Siberia and Northern Manchuria. The Czechs, though numbering less than 50,000 rifles, thereupon undertook the task of expelling the Bolsheviks and their German allies from the Lake Baikal region. An expedition, commanded by Gen. Gaida, moving rapidly on Irkutsk, surprised the Bolsheviks, annihilat-

ing one Red division and scattering the remainder of the foe. With the expulsion of the Bolsheviks from Irkutsk, the Trans-Siberian Railroad was freed throughout its length and the entire transportation system of Siberia placed under Allied control.

The Czechs then proceeded to free all the towns in Western Siberia and assist in setting up local governments. Themselves passionately democratic, their influence was exerted in favor of liberal institutions. Throughout the region which they had liberated, the Czechs assisted in setting up town and rural councils, with universal suffrage as a fundamental law.

As the Czechs continued to extend their line along the Volga River their small forces contrived to hold the scattered river towns only because of the low fighting quality of the Bolsheviks. They had been buoyed up by the hope that Allied reinforcements would be sent to support them in a concerted attempt to connect with the advance of the Allied forces pushing south from Archangel, thus re-establishing the Eastern Front.

This aid was denied them. Neither the United States nor Japan was willing to render the Czechs any further military assistance. They had undertaken merely to reopen the Trans-Siberian Railroad in order that the Czechs might have unmolested passage eastward to the Pacific. In effect, they advised the Czechs to shift for themselves. The Czechs protested that they did not have the numbers to hold the Volga line against the Reds. Nor could they retire from the Volga region without delivering over to the Red Terror all the towns and cities they had liberated. They felt they could not desert their Siberian friends to such a fate. They pleaded for just a little assistance, but they pleaded in vain. The United States Government would not interfere in Russia's internal affairs until some central government was established, representing all the Russian people, and not some faction merely. In consequence of this refusal, the Czechs finally were compelled to quit the line of the Volga and retire east of the Ural Mountains.

WESTERN THEATER, SEPT. 12—13

**St. Mihiel Salient Reduced by First American Army in 26 Hours**

Most Brilliant Operation of the Entire War Electrifies the Allied Nations  
Americans Capture 16,000 Prisoners and 443 Guns at Cost of 7,000 Men

SECTION 26—1918

First American Army (264,000 engaged, 190,000 in reserve)

Gen. J. J. Pershing, Commander-in-Chief

U. S. 1st Army Corps—Lieut.-Gen. Hunter Liggett

82d Division, Brig.-Gen. Burnham

90th Division, Maj.-Gen. Allen

5th Division, Maj.-Gen. McMahon

2d Division, Maj.-Gen. Le Jeune

U. S. 4th Army Corps—Maj.-Gen. Dickman

89th Division, Maj.-Gen. Wright

42d Division, Maj.-Gen. Menoher

1st Division, Maj.-Gen. Summerall

U. S. 5th Army Corps—Maj.-Gen. Cameron

26th Division, Maj.-Gen. Edwards

4th Division, Maj.-Gen. J. L. Hines

15th (French Colonial) Division, Gen. Gueran

French 2d Colonial Corps—Gen. Blondlat

26th Division, Gen. de Belenet

39th Division, Gen. Pougen

2d Division (Cavalry), Gen. Hennoque

U. S. Divisions in Reserve

35th, Maj.-Gen. Traub

3d, Maj.-Gen. Buck

91st, Maj.-Gen. Johnson

78th, Maj.-Gen. McRae

80th, Maj.-Gen. Cronkhite

U. S. Aviation Corps—Maj.-Gen. Mitchell

2d U. S. Cavalry Regiment

German Forces (75,000 engaged, 50,000 in reserve)

Gen. von Gallwitz, Commander

German Salient Army—Gen. Fuchs

**I**N quick succession, Marshal Foch had eliminated three German salients, but a fourth and more dangerous salient was yet to be overcome. This was the sharp St. Mihiel projection, which had been imbedded like a dagger in the side of France for four years, ever since the German armies had crossed the French frontier on September 12, 1914, in their first attempt to envelop Verdun. During these years, the French had expended 50,000 lives in fruitless efforts to reduce the salient, which not only menaced Verdun but deprived them also of their principal railroad through the Meuse Valley.

It was the glorious privilege of the First American Army, in its first independent engagement under an American commander, and by a maneuver exclusively its own, to expel the Germans in a single day from the stronghold they so long had occupied.

This typical American achievement, concededly the most brilliant single maneuver of

the World War, electrified the nations and evoked heartiest commendations from the Allied High Command. It was unique among the major operations on the Western front as the first battle in which the Germans, after experiencing an initial defeat, had failed to attempt a counter-offensive. In a word, the Germans were so thoroughly whipped that they seemed to have lost the power of recuperation.

In humorous coincidence, the great victory was won on the same day that the Foreign Minister of Germany boastfully assured the German nation that the American troops would prove a negligible factor in the War and of "no military value whatever." Another and more striking coincidence was the fact that on the day of the St. Mihiel victory nearly 10,000,000 young Americans registered for the draft.



### Americans Take Over 40-Mile Sector

HITHERTO, the American combat divisions had fought under various French and English commanders and their victories had been accredited rather to their Allies than to themselves. In truth, their military identity had been largely submerged. Now they insisted upon their right to fight as an independent American Army commanded exclusively by American generals.

In compliance with their wishes, the First American Army was organized on August 10, 1918. Under command of Gen. John J. Pershing, this army took over a 40-mile section of the Western front, from Port-au-Selle to Verdun, on August 30th. Subsequently, the American sector was extended across the Meuse to the western edge of the Argonne Forest.

The transfer of this army to the St. Mihiel sector in September was carried out at night and with all possible secrecy. The French Staff supplied the necessary artillery, including those huge siege guns that subsequently found the range of the Metz forts. The French Independent Air Force also was placed at the disposal of Gen. Pershing. Together with our own air forces and the British bombing squadrons, this gave the First American Army the greatest assembly of aviation that had ever been engaged in one operation on the Western front.

Hospital preparations, looking to the simultaneous care of 25,000 casualties, were also made. Tremendous stores of ammunition were available, the mountainous dumps being located at Genicourt on the banks of the Meuse River. In cavalry support, also, the American Army was strong. To facilitate communication, 5,000 miles of wire were laid and 6,000 telephones put in connection. The preparations for battle were colossal and complete.

### The Plan of Battle

THE St. Mihiel salient comprised a triangular stretch of heavily wooded country, twelve miles long on its southern and eight miles on its western base, bordered by high hills at every point excepting on the southern base, where the Valley of the Rupt de Mad opened a narrow path of entrance. This

valley was dominated on its west side by the formidable height known as Mt. Sec and on the east side by the hills of Thiancourt. These heights and in fact every hill within the salient, were strongly fortified and thought to be impregnable. The summit of Mt. Sec, a veritable Gibraltar, abounded in deep dugouts and in many steel and concrete "pillboxes." Heavy artillery was placed in commanding positions and at close intervals. Machine-gun nests were cunningly constructed in the dense forests. Two parallel lines of trenches guarded the salient and these were further protected by three belts of barbed wire. The salient was defended by ten German divisions, numbering perhaps 125,000 men. Running through this salient, from west to east, was a single line of railway connecting St. Mihiel with Metz.

Gen. Pershing's plan of battle was to cut the salient in halves by simultaneous advances from the north and south, while pressure was being exerted against the nose of the salient. If successful, this pinching operation would cut the railroad line midway between St. Mihiel and Metz, and prevent the escape of the Germans caught in the point of the salient.

Only nine divisions of the First American Army were placed on the battle line, the others being held in reserve. Co-operating with the Americans, but under General Pershing's orders, was the French 2d Colonial Corps, composed mostly of Senegalese troops out of Africa. The disposition of the troops was as follows: On the southern base of the salient, between Port-a-Mousson and Fliry, were placed the 2d and 5th Divisions of Regulars and the 82d and 90th Divisions of selective service men from Camps Gordon, Funston and Travis, the latter divisions soon to receive their baptism of fire. From Fliry west to Xivray, the line was held by the 1st Division of Regulars, the 42d Division of National Guards (Rainbow) and the 89th Selective Service Division. From Xivray to Mouilly, around the nose of the salient at St. Mihiel, in a bend of the Meuse River, was stationed the 2d Colonial French Corps (Senegalese), commanded by Major-General Blondlat. The entire northern base of the salient was intrusted to the U. S. 5th Army



Corps, comprising the 26th (Yankee) Division of the National Guards, commanded by Gen. Clarence E. Edwards, the 4th Division and a French division of Senegalese troops. The 3d, 33d, 35th, 78th, 80th and 91st Divisions were either held in reserve or available.

All through the night of September 11th, while they were awaiting the signal for attack, the rain fell in torrents and the troops in the trenches were drenched to the skin.

### **Tremendous Artillery Preparation**

THE battle opened at 1 o'clock on the morning of September 12, 1918, with a tremendous bombardment of the heights occupied by the Germans. Such infernos of sound probably never before assailed the ears of man; the echoes rebounding from the hilltops until the heavens were in an uproar. For four hours the German trenches were smothered in shells from a thousand guns. Upward of one million shells were fired. Knowing the Huns were partial to poison gas, the American gunners sent them all the gas shells they could absorb. The grand finale was reserved for the trench mortars which threw their "hunks of hell" into the enemy trenches with blasting effect.

### **Germans Taken by Surprise**

SUDDENLY, at 5 A. M., the American bombardment ceased. Then a rolling barrage was laid down and the grand attack began. The main thrust was made from the southern leg of the salient. With a flotilla of small French tanks in the lead, to break down the belts of barbed wire, and with squadrons of airplanes fluttering overhead, our boys leaped over their parapets on a twelve-mile front. In the very wake of the barrage, a battalion of engineers advanced to cut and blow the barbed wire in case the artillery had missed it. Close behind them, wave after wave, the First and Fourth Corps of Infantry swept forward toward the German front line.

Demoralized by the violence of the bombardment and the surprise of the attack, the Germans offered only feeble resistance. A few German batteries fired into the advancing waves, but soon the enemy guns were silenced and the Germans surrendered by

thousands. The German first line trenches were gained in a twinkling. Then, knee deep in the awful quagmire which the torrential rains had created, our boys plodded forward toward the second line trenches.

### **The Advance from the South**

TOWN, woods and machine-gun nests were all very adroitly outflanked and then cleared of the enemy. Advancing through the Rupt de Mad Valley, the Fourth Corps reached Nonsard at 7 A. M., and pressed forward toward Vigneulles, taking thousands of prisoners. One German regiment surrendered intact, its colonel asking permission to march it off the field. Bouillonville, Pannes and other towns successively were taken. By 9 o'clock the Germans were in panic retreat out of the salient. Mount Sec, which had been looked upon as another Gibraltar, fell without resistance.

By evening, the Fourth Corps had pushed forward ten miles to the southern edge of Bois de Nonsard and Bois de Thiancourt; both towns were captured. A provisional squadron of the 2d U. S. Cavalry Regiment was then rushed forward into the heart of the salient to cut the railroad which led from St. Mihiel to Metz, and thus prevent the German divisions in the tip of the salient from escaping. Squadrons of American, French and British planes cruised all over the sector unmolested, and bombed at will the enemy's retreating columns.

The most serious resistance encountered on the south side of the salient was in the last trench of the Quart de Reserve, a forest one mile deep, lying midway between Seicheprey and Nonsard. It cost the 1st Division 600 casualties to overcome the German machine-gun fire and take this belt of woods.

### **The Attack from the West**

ON the west side of the salient, the 26th (Yankee) Division, flanked on the right by the 2d French Dismounted Cavalry and on the left by the 15th French Colonials (Senegalese), met with much stiffer resistance, first in the ravine above Mouilly and then in front of the German second line trenches, which were studded with machine-gun nests, all along the edge of the woods. Some artil-



lery fire was encountered, but the gravest resistance was offered by the German machine guns. The Yankees, however, filtered through these obstacles and started the Boches on the run, after taking many prisoners.

Three formidable ridges, Les Eparges, Combres and Amarampthe, were successively taken by the 52d Brigade in gallant charges. With wicked knives held between their teeth, the fearless Senegalese troops crept up the bushy slopes of Les Eparges, through a gale of bullets from the German machine guns, and won the coveted position with the aid of cold steel.

### **Yankees Win the Race for Vigneulles**

THE Yankee Division, having outlegged the French Colonials, suddenly found their left flank unprotected, but as the Huns were then in disorderly retreat, this broken liaison was not of serious import. So the Yankees continued their advance.

On the opposite side of the salient, the First Division also led all the other divisions. Now began a race between these two divisions to determine which one should have the honor of first reaching Vigneulles and Hattonchattel.

All through the night the race progressed, the Yankee Division encountering machine-gun resistance at every step on its journey. At 2 o'clock the next morning, the advance of the Yankee Division debouched from the woods near Hattonchattel, beating out the First Division by seven hours.

Before evacuating the salient, the Boches had set fire to Hattonchattel, Vigneulles and other villages and for miles around the dark landscape was punctured with glowing spots where villages were burning.

After Gen. Edwards' Yankee troops had occupied Hattonchattel, on the morning of the 13th, an unfortunate blunder had occurred, resulting in loss of life. Orders had been given the day before to the bombarding squadrons of the Air Service to shell Vigneulles, which was then held by the Germans. At daybreak of the 13th, unaware that the Yankee boys already occupied the town, the Allied aviators bombed the town,

and 35 American soldiers were injured by the explosions that resulted.

### **The French Participation**

THE Second French Colonial Corps, covering the point of the salient, also had carried out their task with marked success. Soon after the main attack had begun on the southern face of the salient, the French troops started a series of limited objective attacks, designed to keep the Germans busily engaged on that front and prevent their immediate withdrawal. At the appropriate moment the French troops penetrated the German lines and took possession of the town of St. Mihiel.

### **16,000 Prisoners Taken**

THE next three days were occupied in clearing the salient of the surrounded Huns. The Americans and their French allies took 16,000 prisoners, 443 guns, a great quantity of materials and released the inhabitants of many villages from enemy domination. The Yankee guns were then placed in a position to shell the city of Metz, the German stronghold in Lorraine. Our casualties did not exceed 7,000.

The wiping out of the St. Mihiel salient was one of the most signal successes of the entire War. What the French had failed to accomplish, during four years, with an expenditure of 50,000 lives, the Yankee boys had accomplished in 26 hours at a comparatively trifling cost. Little wonder that the commanding generals of the American, British, French, Belgian and Italian Armies hastened over to Hattonchattel to offer their congratulations to the Yankee victors.

### **Flight of the Germans**

THE German Army had actually turned tail and run away from the "raw Yankee levies." In their flight northward the Germans were swiftly pursued by several American divisions, with an American Cavalry patrol in the lead. So rapid was the pursuit that our boys lost wireless and telegraphic communications for hours. The Germans had been thoroughly whipped; they planned no counter-offensive; they wished only to escape from those terrible Yankees.



### How the American Divisions Fought

It may not be amiss to sketch in brief detail the precise movements of the several divisions in the Battle of St. Mihiel.

The 82d (All-American National Army) Division, on the right pivot of the First Corps line, advanced along both banks of the Moselle, using its left flank in a turning movement. It cost the division 1,200 casualties to drive the Germans from off the hills east of the Moselle.

The 90th (Texas and Oklahoma) Division advanced 2½ miles through dense woods, wire and trenches on the first day of the battle. On the 13th, Brigadier-General McAlexander, with the 180th Infantry Brigade, by a clever flanking movement, captured the German stronghold in the Prete Woods, thus freeing the right of the American line. Gen. O'Niel, with another brigade of the 90th Division, took the Vencheres Woods, on September 13th. A day later he advanced to the Rappes Woods, and on the 16th, the brigade pushed forward to the Preny Woods. Here the 90th Division remained until relieved on October 10th. This division captured 664 prisoners, 8 guns, 24 heavy mortars and much material at a cost of 925 officers and men.

The 5th Division, when relieved, was holding a small front facing Rembercourt on the Rupt de Mad. At a cost of 260 men killed and 1,304 wounded, this division captured 1,243 prisoners and 13 pieces of artillery.

The 2d Division (Regular Army and Marines), on the first day of battle, captured Thiancourt, flanked the German last position and forced the enemy's retirement up the Valley of the Rupt de Mad to the Hindenberg line. The division captured many prisoners and suffered but few casualties.

The 89th Division (Middle West) attacked on September 12th in front of Fliry, through the dense Mort Mare Woods, driving the Germans out of the forest and reaching its objective beyond Beney.

The 42d Division (Rainbow), in the early dawn of September 12th, rushed through the Sonnard Woods and advanced on either side of the Fliry-Essey Highway, taking without difficulty the towns of Essey, Pannes and Lamarch, and reaching its objective, the town

of St. Benoit, early on the morning of September 13th. That day patrols far in advance along the highway toward Woel were engaged in lively skirmishes with the enemy. In less than 29 hours, the "Rainbows" had advanced 12 miles and driven the Germans back to the Hindenberg line.

The 1st Division (Regular Army), on September 12th, advanced along the Valley of the Rupt de Mad past the foot of Mont Sec. Early in the afternoon the 2d Brigade captured Nonsard. The 2d Cavalry Regiment was rushed ahead to cut the German line of retreat along the railroad, but being in insufficient force, withdrew. Then the 2d Brigade and the 16th Infantry pushed forward through the dense forests, getting astride the railroad at 10 o'clock that night, thus trapping the Germans who had failed to evacuate the tip of the salient. The 1st Brigade marched that night up the Nonsard-Vigneulles Highway and at 3.15 A. M. the patrols reached Vigneulles. At 7 A. M., the patrols of the 1st and 26th Divisions met at Hattonchattel and completed the closing of the St. Mihiel salient. In 19 hours this division had advanced 12 miles and captured 1,195 prisoners and 30 pieces of artillery. Its own casualties were 13 officers and 594 men.

The 3d Division (Regular Army), heroes of Chateau Thierry, when the battle opened, was in reserve of the Fourth Corps. Late on the afternoon of September 12th, one brigade was moved up in close support of the flank of the 1st Division in case of possible counter-attack from the hilly portion to the west, but no attack developed.

The 26th Division (Yankees) formed the right of the Fifth Corps, which was to attack from Les Eparges on the upper western side of the salient three hours after the main attack from the southern side was launched. At 8 A. M., the 26th Division and the 15th French Colonial Division opened their attack. By noon they had reached the crest of Les Eparges Hill and were close up to the western edge of the village of St. Remy, where they met stiff resistance from well-entrenched Austro-Hungarian divisions. In a gallant charge the French Colonials captured Eparges and held it against counter-attack.



The 26th Division followed the retreating Austro-Hungarians, driving them in disorderly retreat through the woods and by evening occupying the towns of St. Remy and Dommartin. The last of the German positions had now been passed and there lay but five miles of forest on top of the plateau between them and Hattonchattel. That evening orders came from Gen. Cameron to continue the attack along the Grand Tranchee de Colonnee, the main highway that traverses the top of the plateau to Hattonchattel. The 102d Regiment, which had been in divisional reserve all day, was assigned to lead the advance. Proceeding slowly through the woods, which were infested with the enemy, the 102d captured 280 prisoners. At 7 A. M., the patrols of two divisions met in Vigneulles and closed the St. Mihiel salient. The entire 26th Division then occupied the plateau and moved down into the plain to form part of the battle line in front of the village of St. Hilaire. Here it remained until October 7th, when it was relieved and sent to the Argonne. The 26th Division captured 2,400 prisoners and 50 pieces of artillery.

The 4th Division, in reserve of the Fifth Corps, went in line as the left pivot of the Allied attack. On the 14th, after the German retreat, it occupied the town of Fresnes-en-Woevre and Manheulles, remaining till September 19th, when it went to the Argonne.

### **Gen. Foch Pays Tribute to Americans**

THE brilliant victory of the American Army in the Battle of St. Mihiel evoked from Marshal Foch this tribute, telegraphed to Gen. Pershing:

"My dear General: The First American Army under your command, on its first day, won a magnificent victory by a maneuver as skilfully prepared as it was gallantly executed. I extend to you, as well as to the officers and troops under your command, my warmest compliments."

### **Analysis of Battle by French Officer**

DESCRIBING the St. Mihiel battle from the French viewpoint, a distinguished French officer paid this fine tribute to the valiant young American soldiers:

"I cannot say too much of the conduct of the American troops. They were magnificent. From Sunday last the enemy had begun to move his heavier guns and material from the salient. As far as we are able to reckon, he was just about starting his infantry withdrawal when Pershing struck at the psychological moment and caught the boche napping, and practically unsupported by artillery. It is hardly possible for me to give a better description of the operations save as concerns the French units.

"We had a few French divisions engaged, one in the north region of Les Eparges, where fighting was so bloody in the first winter of the War, under the command of an American corps leader, and the remainder under French corps commanders, subordinate, of course, to general American direction. These were grouped in the center of the salient, one on either side, to co-operate with the American drive on the flanks of the pocket.

"The American troops had the hardest task, as the enemy resisted stubbornly, in the fastnesses of the wooded and broken country known as Mountain Wood. We were rather fortunate, as we encountered Austrians, whose value is less than the Germans. We took 2,300 of them and 57 officers on the first morning.

"The Americans on our left pushed on irresistibly and kept pace with us—the poilus said nothing could stop those Americans—which is the highest praise our veterans can give. So rapid was the advance that the cavalry patrols from the left joined hands with the forces from the right early Friday morning. Our units on the right met some resistance from the strong positions of Apremont and Loupmont Woods and Mont Sec, which they occupied by a turning movement from the north. But the boche was already packing up for his backward move, and seemed to have little stomach for the fight.

"In the center, St. Mihiel was taken by a turning movement, but the enemy had not waited. We entered the town early on Friday morning and are still busy cleaning the woods to the north where the boche stragglers and patrols are continually surrendering."

WESTERN THEATER, SEPT. 26—NOV. 11

## American Victory in Argonne Compels Germany to Surrender

Terrific Struggle for 47 Days in the Forested Stronghold on the Meuse  
American Army Suffers a Loss of 120,000 in Killed and Wounded

SECTION 27—1918

### United States Forces, 1,200,000

Gen. J. J. Pershing, Commander  
Maj.-Gen. McAndrew, Chief of Staff

#### First American Army (Personnel up to November)

Lieut.-Gen. Hunter Liggett, Commander

#### First U. S. Corps—Maj.-Gen. Dickman

35th Division (Kansas), Gen. Traub  
28th Division (Penn.), Gen. Muir  
77th Division (New York), Gen. Alexander  
78th Division (New Jersey), Gen. McRae  
80th Division (Virginia), Gen. Cronkhite  
92d Division (Buffalo), Gen. Ballou

#### Third U. S. Corps—Maj.-Gen. Hines

3d Division (Regulars), Gen. Buck  
4th Division (Regulars), Gen. Cameron  
5th Division (Regulars), Gen. McMann  
90th Division (Texas), Gen. Allen

#### Fourth U. S. Corps—Maj.-Gen. Read

2d Division (Marines), Gen. Harbord  
42d Division (Rainbow), Gen. Menoher  
89th Division (Middle West), Gen. Wright

#### Fifth U. S. Corps—Maj.-Gen. Summerall

26th Division (Yankee), Gen. Edwards, Gen.  
Bamford  
32d Division (Wisconsin), Gen. Haan  
37th Division (Ohio), Gen. Farnsworth  
79th Division (Penn.), Gen. Kuhn  
91st Division (Pacific), Gen. Johnston

#### Seventeenth French Corps, Gen. Claudel

33d U. S. Division (Prairie), Gen. Bell

#### Second American Army (Nov. 10, 1918)

Lieut.-Gen. R. L. Bullard, Commander  
1st Division, Gen. Parker  
2d Division, Gen. Le Jeune  
5th Division, Gen. Ely  
6th Division, Gen. Gordon  
28th Division, Gen. Hay  
29th Division, Gen. Morton  
33d Division, Gen. Bell  
36th Division, Gen. Smith  
37th Division, Gen. Farnsworth  
81st Division, Gen. Bartley  
92d Division, Gen. Ballou

### German Forces, 700,000

Gen. Ludendorff, Chief of Staff  
(Succeeded by Gen. Groener)

#### Army Group Commanders:

Gen. von Marwitz  
Gen. von Gallwitz  
Duke of Wurttemberg  
Crown Prince Frederick  
Gen. Groener

**T**O the Citizen Armies of the United States belongs the imperishable glory of having dealt the death-blow to the Prussian military system, in the decisive Battle of the Argonne, a triumph of arms which compelled the precipitate retreat of all the German forces in Belgium and France, followed in a few days by Germany's frantic request for an armistice. It was in the Argonne, which guarded their line of retreat through Luxemburg, that the Huns made

their final desperate effort to stay the disaster which threatened them. The flower of the Prussian Army was thrown into this pit of death; all the battlefronts further north were denuded of troops to help stay the American advance, but in vain. For 47 days 1,200,000 Americans and 700,000 Germans were engaged in mutual massacre on this bloodiest of battlefields. During this period, more than 4,000,000 shells were fired from American guns, 840 American airplanes



dropped 100 tons of explosives on the enemy's positions, 324 whippet tanks beat down the German defences. In their advance through the Argonne, the Americans liberated 150 villages and towns, captured 16,000 prisoners, 468 cannon, 2,864 machine guns and 177 trench mortars, and the heights of the Argonne were literally covered with German dead. In the end, when Germany's avenue of escape through Luxemburg was all but closed and the capture of her entire forces seemed imminent, she sued for peace. This decisive victory, which brought the World War to a close, cost America 120,000 in casualties. But had it not been for this victory through sacrifice, the War might have been prolonged for years, with a resultant loss of millions of lives.

Ever since the American marines stopped the Huns at Chateau Thierry, Belleau Wood and Torcy, Gen. Foch had placed his chief reliance in the Yankee Crusaders. It was the Yankee boys who had saved Europe in those dark days of 1918 when the British and French armies had been hammered back to the Marne. It was the Yankee boys who in 36 hours had wiped out the dangerous St. Mihiel salient, which the French had been unable to conquer in four years. It was the Yankee boys, brigaded with the British, who smashed the Hindenberg line at the St. Quentin tunnel, opening the gap through which the British and French Armies afterward poured in pursuit of the demoralized Huns. It was the Yankee boys who aided King Albert and the British in expelling the Huns from Belgium. It was the Yankee boys who assisted the French in the Meuse operations. And finally it was the Yankee boys who broke the backbone of German resistance in the Argonne, starting the Huns on the general retreat which brought the war so suddenly to a close. In a word, it was American valor that won the World War.

### **The Argonne Stronghold**

THE forested plateau of the Argonne had been the impregnable stronghold of the Germans during four dreadful years of war. Abounding in rocky cliffs and ravines, overrun with tangled underbrush so dense as to defy the axe, it was a natural fortress of bat-

lemented rock. Four parallel lines of defence, all scientifically prepared, had been elaborated by the Germans. These were the Hagen Stellung and the Volker Stellung lines, which formed a continuation of the famous Hindenberg line; and the Kriemhilde Stellung and Freie Stellung lines further back. In the preparation of these defences the last word in the perfection of trench warfare had been spoken. There were countless dugouts of every description, ranging from a temporary hole in the ground to a palatial suite 60 feet underground, with cement stairs and floors, and with bathrooms, offices and lounging quarters, all electrically lighted and well heated. Machine-gun nests had been planted in every conceivable point of vantage, from a camouflaged bush on the hillside to the concealed lookout in the tallest treetop. Cannon of every caliber had been placed throughout the woods and under the lee of each protecting hill or cliff. A system of narrow gauge railroads sent its spurs into every part of the Forest, delivering ammunition to the guns and supplies to the men, even connecting by tunnel with some of the largest dugouts. The Boche had not held this stronghold undisturbed; there were numerous and costly offensives by the French and British, but always the same story of failure to take or hold the Forest. When the American offensive was ready to be launched, the French poilus frankly predicted: first, that our boys could not take the untakable, and second, that if by any miraculous procedure the Yankees did succeed in breaking the German line, they could not hold what they had taken.

### **The Plan of Battle**

ON the night of September 25, 1918, the First American Army, under the direct command of Lieutenant-General Hunter Liggett, took over the trenches in the Argonne sector which the French had occupied for four years. The right of the line, between the Meuse River and Malancourt was held by the Third Corps, commanded by Maj.-Gen. Bullard. In the center, between Malancourt and Vauquois, was the Fifth Corps, commanded by Maj.-Gen. Cameron. The left of the line, from Vauquois west to Vienne-le-



Chateau on the edge of the Forest, was held by the First Corps, commanded by Maj.-Gen. Dickman. This Army comprised many untried troops who were as yet to undergo their baptism of fire. They were confronting the flower of the German Armies. Yet these green troops were undaunted and even eager for the fray.

The Argonne battle was one of a series of simultaneous attacks on the German line, delivered at widely separated points all the way from Belgium to Switzerland. The most difficult and important of these operations was assigned to the First American Army whose task it was to smash through the Argonne area on a 25-mile front, capture four lines of German trenches, penetrate a jungle as dense as any known to Africa, and seize the Sedan-Mezieres Railway, the sole line of retreat left open to the Germans, west of the Argonne Forest. A French Army, under Gen. Gouraud, was to advance over a less difficult terrain and seize the western end of

the Sedan-Mezieres line. To the north, two American divisions were to smash the great Hindenberg line, opening a gap through which the British might advance to the capture of Cambrai and the French to the seizure of St. Quentin. Farther north, in Flanders, the Belgians, British and Americans were to expel the Huns from the Ypres salient. By these concurrent attacks, the Allies hoped to push the entire German Armies back upon the Ardennes where rail communications were lacking, rendering their destruction or capture possible.

Gen. Pershing's plan of battle was as follows: The Fifth Corps was to make a frontal attack over the whole terrain lying between the Argonne Forest and the Meuse River, while the First Corps on the left was advancing through the eastern edge of the Argonne Forest along the Aire River, and the Third Corps on the right was pushing northward along the west bank of the Meuse.

## The Meuse-Argonne Battle Opens

At daybreak, on September 26th, the Yankee guns began a terrific three hours' bombardment of the German lines, accompanied by a leaping machine-gun barrage at the rate of 75 shots a minute from each gun. So many guns had been assembled that they were literally hub to hub—all 75's and heavies. German prisoners afterward acknowledged they had never heard anything so terrifying as that American gunfire.

When the barrage had ended our boys went over the top with a shout and a dash, fairly leaping their way through deep entanglements of wire, and sweeping across the sea of shell craters in No Man's Land until they had mastered the German front-line trenches.

By mid-afternoon they were in possession of the Volker Stellung and the Hagen Stellung lines, those concrete defences which both the Germans and the French had deemed untakable.

Pressing forward across the open country swept by the fire of the German guns, our boys plunged into the dark, mysterious depths of the Argonne Forest. Here they

encountered machine-gun nests at every turn. Besides the opposition of an active enemy they faced the natural barriers of deep ravines, strong ridges and cliffs, and an almost impossible barrier of dense underbrush and fallen trees. Through all this our boys bravely pushed, ignoring every danger.

Emerging from the Forest, they swept down the hillside through the gas-filled valley and stormed the ridges beyond.

In the first bound of the American advance, Malancourt and Bethincourt had been reached. Forges brook was crossed on footbridges carried by the troops and the successful storming of the heights followed. Drillancourt, Grecourt and Dannevoux were seized after furious resistance. Before noon of the first day the Americans were beyond Cuisy, the Germans stubbornly contesting every foot of the way.

### The Fight at Montfaucon

It had been planned to push right on as far as the powerful Kriemhild Stellung, a tunneled position two miles deep and protected by a barbed wire belt as wide as a city



block. This plan miscarried owing to the failure to carry Montfaucon on the first day.

Montfaucon was one of the objectives of the 79th Division. Unfortunately, this division had outrun its artillery in the initial dash, and had suffered heavy casualties.

Montfaucon Wood, which defied frontal attack, had been outflanked without difficulty, but at Montfaucon itself there was a much more determined resistance than had been anticipated. Defended by German machine gunners instructed to die in their tracks, Montfaucon held out till the next day, when it was taken after savage fighting.

By the third day of battle many towns had been liberated, including Nantillers, Exermont, Ivoiry, Epinonville, Charpentry and Very. The Yankee troops had penetrated the Argonne to a depth of seven miles, taken 10,000 prisoners and most important of all had forced the Germans to quit their trenches and fight in the open.

The engineers, meanwhile, had built new roads across the spongy, shell-torn areas, laid numerous bridges and repaired broken roads beyond No Man's Land. Without thought of sleep, the Yankee gunners had put their shoulders to wheels and drag-ropes to bring their guns through the mire in support of the infantry, now under the increasing fire of the enemy's artillery.

The Americans were greatly hampered by the mass of shell craters that studded old battlefields over which transports had to move. Roads across No Man's Land became jammed with traffic that barely moved for hours, presenting a fine target for German bombs. Exposed to the cold driving rains, troops shivered in clothing suitable only for summer wear. Because of the failure of the transport, troops went hungry into battle. But everywhere American endurance was superb, and it enthused the boys to know that they had in a few days overcome obstacles which had baffled the French and British armies for years.

### **The Taking of Forges Wood**

ONE of the daring exploits of the first phase of the Argonne battle was the taking of Forges Wood by Illinois troops supported by New York artillery. These troops were

required to advance from Dead Man's Hill across a deep swamp 200 yards wide. South of the swamp, under Dead Man's Hill, lay a belt of barbed wire, half a mile wide. North of the swamp rose a formidable hill, on the right of which, 1,000 yards away, was Forges Wood, which the Germans had strongly fortified.

The American plan of attack embraced the crossing of this morass so that troops might assemble opposite the hill, surround Forges Wood and sweep on in a fast turning movement toward the Meuse.

American Engineers, under cover of the darkness, crept forward and cut wide lanes through the masses of twisted, rusty wire under the sleepy eyes of the German sentinels. Then they carried 12,000 feet of duckboards, ladder-like bridges, 7,000 bundles of willow twigs bound solidly with wire and 5,000 feet of heavy rope, to the edge of the swamp.

When all was ready the New York gunners laid a perfect barrage on the north side of the swamp, and behind this solid wall of bursting shells the Illinois engineers waded breast high in the swamp, stretching hundreds of rope cables across the morass upon which the duckboards were laid. Over these improvised bridges a column of infantry quickly passed.

In some places bridges disappeared in the mire under the weight of the soldiers, but the dauntless engineers remedied this fault by wading deep in muck and holding planks under the duckboards till the infantry had completed its passage.

Soon as the first wave of infantry had crossed over, the barrage was jumped a hundred yards to make room for a second and then a third wave. Then the barrage began to creep up the hill with the infantry waves following. When it reached the hill crest, it performed graceful curves into Forges Wood where the enemy had been awaiting a frontal instead of a flank attack and so found the American Doughboys behind them.

The only avenue of escape left open to the Germans was southeast toward the Meuse and here they found the American machine-gun barrage playing over ground where they



had been expecting the American waves to advance. Cut off and completely surrounded, they surrendered in batches. Thousands of prisoners were bagged in this operation. As a result of this audacious feat, villages on the west bank of the Meuse fell like ripe plums into American hands.

### **Tanks Aid in Taking of Vauquois**

IN the advance on Montfaucon, the Americans, with the aid of the new tanks, captured Vanquois, where the Germans had extended natural caves into tunnels that reached back under the hill to the north of the town. The largest of these caves had been used by the Germans as a storehouse. Tanks of American design made this capture possible. Lumbering forward under shelter of a dense smoke-screen, they dealt so successfully with machine guns that our men made their entry without difficulty and with scarcely a casualty.

### **The Battles in the Forest**

NOTABLE night battles were fought in the Forest of the Argonne during this initial advance. In depressing darkness, where death might be lying in ambush behind any one of a myriad trunks of trees, and where the rattle of machine guns was multiplied and magnified by the forest into a deafening snarl of thunder, the Americans fought their way, foot by foot, not knowing where, as they advanced, they might encounter some elaborate system of machine gun posts or dugout cleverly concealed in the underbrush.

Even more formidable was the wire barrier found woven endlessly among trees. Hundreds and hundreds of miles of it had been strung during the period of German occupation. Through these entanglements had grown weeds and grass to a height of three feet or more, rendering the wire more dangerous by its concealment.

From their myriad nests, the Germans assailed our groping soldiers with machine-gun fire, taking a heavy toll of death. How the wounded were rescued even their saviors scarcely knew. Notwithstanding all these obstacles, our boys went through the Forest steadily, though the Germans themselves could have got lost in that bewildering complication of ravines and ridges.

Day after day and night after night, the indomitable American troops continued their pressure on the enemy, while the Engineers built light railways through dense underbrush almost up to the enemy's line. After the first surprise shock was over, and the enemy had perceived that the Americans were not only taking their impregnable fortifications but opening the door for the defeat of the whole German Army, their resistance stiffened to desperation and our boys literally had to hew their way to victory.

In the dense Forest, thick belts of barbed wire and nature's underbrush made it impossible to see ten feet ahead. Everywhere was a determined enemy armed with modern weapons of war. Yet boys from the store counters, offices, farms and factories, outwitted German veterans, advancing by ruses as clever as any with which the American pioneers had thwarted the aborigines of the West.

In one place the Germans had set up thousands of feet of wire with steel trusses, but the young Americans quickly found a way over this wire rampart. Thrown back, the Germans sought refuge behind successive belts of wire, thick as underbrush, but these were destroyed again and again in spite of explosives discharged from long pipes concealed in brush as our boys made their way in darkness through the gaps.

One captured ravine contained about 2,000 miniature houses built over former dugouts, now deathtraps, but the American engineers quickly rendered them harmless.

In the highway near Vareunes, the Germans had blown a great hole, and along the lateral roads connecting with the nearest main highway they had planted 400 mines. All of these planted mines were removed by one doughboy without a single casualty resulting.

So the Americans continued to advance toward the Kriemhilde line. From September 28 to October 4th, they maintained the offensive against patches of woods defended by snipers and continuous lines of machine guns, pushing forward their guns and transports and seizing strategical points in preparation for further attacks. Nor had our aviators been idle. Despite the inclement



weather, they had downed 60 German airplanes and twelve balloons in the first three days' advance in the Argonne.

### **Advance on the Kriemhilde Line Begins**

IN their desperation, the Germans had called to the Argonne front their best divisions from the sectors to the north, including three divisions of the famous Prussian Guards. From first to last 46 divisions of German and Austrian troops, or a total of 700,000 men, with the advantages of fortified positions, attempted to halt the impetuous advance of the American Doughboys. They hoped to make a successful stand at the so-called Kriemhilde line, a system of concrete trenches nearly three miles deep, occupying the heights and protected with several zones of thick barbed wire hundreds of feet wide. It is said the Germans used sufficient wire in the Argonne to encircle the globe several times. In addition to these natural and artificial defences, they had countless machine guns manned by highly trained veterans and numerous heavy cannon which they used at short range, together with pill boxes and gun nests cleverly concealed throughout the Kriemhilde line.

### **Germans Driven Out of Argonne Forest**

THE second phase of the Argonne battle was begun on October 4th, when the First American Army, reinforced by its reserve divisions, advanced to attack the Kriemhilde line. The First Corps, on the 7th, took Chatel-Chehery, pressing forward toward Cornay. At the same time, the Third Corps, tilting to the left and fighting against great odds, marked its way through Briulles and Cunel. The Fifth Corps, meantime, in quick succession, had taken Gesnes and Fleville. On the 10th, the great Argonne Forest was completely cleared of the Germans.

### **Sergeant York's Amazing Exploit**

THE greatest individual feat of heroism of the Argonne campaign was performed by a Tennessee mountaineer, named Sergeant Alvin C. York, of Co. G., 328th Infantry, 82d Division, during this advance through the Forest of the Argonne. His company had been formed for attack, on Hill 223, at 6 o'clock on the morning of October 8th. Its

objective, a mile and a half distant, lay across a valley traversed by a stream. When half way across this open space, the company was assailed on three sides by German machine-gun fire, and half the command fell dead or wounded. Sergeant York, in charge of a detail, made a quick detour across the valley and got in behind a nest of machine guns which had been especially active.

The German gunners opened fire at close range and all the Doughboys fell on their stomachs, save Sergeant York alone. He sat upright, firing his rifle at the nest. In a jiffy a German lieutenant, with half a dozen men, charged up the hill toward Sergeant York.

When they had got within 50 feet of him, Sergeant York blazed away with his automatic, dropping them one by one. Then Sergeant York alone advanced toward the machine-gun nest. As he drew near, a German major, who was lying on his stomach, called out in English that if York would stop shooting he would get all the boches to surrender. York agreed, and sure enough the Germans were herded up and started back toward the American line.

While returning with his captives, York walked into three other machine-gun nests, the crews of which also agreed to surrender if he would not shoot. In the end, York took 132 German prisoners back to the American lines. Six of his detail were killed and three others were badly wounded.

For this extraordinary feat, York was awarded the Distinguished Service Cross, the French Croix de Guerre, with palm, the Congressional Medal of Honor, and was signally honored by the State of Tennessee.

It is a curious fact that at the outbreak of the war Sergeant York was a conscientious objector, being a deacon of the Church of Christ and Christian Unity, a sect that holds it is wrong to kill, even in war. His religious scruples were overcome by reading an excerpt from the Book of Ezekiel, which indicates when it is justifiable to take human life in war.

### **The "Lost Battalions"**

THE first American division to penetrate the Argonne Forest was the 77th, of New York. Always ahead of its objectives, this



division emerged from the north side of the Argonne Forest on the night of October 10th. It was during this advance that the "Lost Battalion" of the 77th, commanded by Major Charles W. Whittlesey, made its historic stand against the German forces that completely surrounded it.

So rapid was the advance of this battalion that it found itself isolated from the remainder of the division. Though lost in the dark recesses of the Argonne Forest and hemmed in by the enemy, Maj. Whittlesey and his command, numbering 463 officers and men, maintained their position for five days. During this period, no rations or other supplies reached them. From their improvised shelter in the forest, they defended themselves as best they could against the fire of the enemy which assailed them from all directions.

On the fourth day, after half the battalion had been killed or wounded, and when the survivors were suffering the pangs of hunger, the Germans sent Major Whittlesey a written proposition to surrender. His reply was a gloriously profane defiance of the enemy.

The Germans strove without ceasing to exterminate the little band of heroes, but in vain. Major Whittlesey on the sixth day succeeded in breaking through the German cordon and with the remnant of his battalion rejoined to the 77th Division.

There was yet another "Lost Battalion" whose experiences were equally as heroic and thrilling. This was the Second Battalion of the 60th Regiment, commanded by Major Baldwin. On October 15, 1918, the second day of the American drive toward the Kriemhilde Stellung, this battalion was ordered to seize the northern edge of the Bois des Rappes, a strong point of the Kriemhilde line. To reach this wooded stretch it was necessary to cross an open space constantly swept by the German machine guns. The battalion runners of this regiment, nothing daunted, passed the gap between the two woods, and entered the Bois des Rappes, skirting an enemy machine gun and putting one out of action there. There they were joined by a detachment of 63 men from the same bri-

gade that had fought their way through the line more to the westward.

Late in the morning, the detachments of battalion runners found themselves on the coveted objective. This position they held for several days, although almost wholly surrounded by the enemy. Repeated attempts were made to send a brigade to their relief, but all were stopped by a murderous cross fire from a score of machine guns in a neck of the adjacent woods occupied by the Germans.

Nevertheless, Maj. Baldwin's battalion of runners did succeed on the fifth day in crossing that gap of death, and rejoining their division, though with the loss of one-third of their number.

### 2d Army Smashes the Kriemhilde Line

THE losses of the First American Army had been so enormous, in the Battle of Argonne Forest, that it was necessary to constitute a second American Army. Accordingly, on October 9th the immediate command of the First Army was assigned to Lieut.-Gen. Hunter Liggett and the command of the Second Army was given to Lieut.-Gen. Robert L. Bullard.

These armies, on October 10th, smashed the formidable Kriemhilde line, on a front of four miles. Four days later the remaining portion of the Kriemhilde line, from Grandpre to the Meuse, was attacked.

One of the most brilliant episodes of the battle was the capture of Grandpre, which lay on the heights overlooking the Aire River and was heavily defended by machine guns.

On October 17th, in a blinding rain, the Yankee engineers threw two bridges across the then swollen Aire River, and while their artillery prevented reinforcements from getting into Grandpre, the infantry advanced from the eastward, charged the ancient citadel on the heights and after bloody hand-to-hand fighting, vanquished the enemy. The German losses were heavy.

On the 23d, the 3d and 5th Corps pushed northward to the level of Rantheville, repelling the enemy's violent counter-attacks. A regrouping of the American forces was then effected for the final advance in the Meuse-Argonne front, which was begun on Novem-



ber 1st. The Artillery force acquitted itself magnificently in support of the advance and the enemy broke before the determined Yankee infantry.

While the 3d Corps was taking Aincreville, Doullon and Andevanne, the 5th Corps had seized Landres, and was pressing through successive lines of resistance to Bayonville and Chennery. The 1st Corps on the second day joined in the movement which now became an impetuous assault that could not be stayed.

Our advance troops surged forward in pursuit, some by motor trucks, while the Artillery pressed along the country roads close behind. By evening of the third day, the German line had been penetrated to a depth of twelve miles and the Yankee guns commanded the important lines at Montmedy, Longuyon and Conflans.

The 3d Corps crossed the Meuse on November 5th and on the next day the "Rainbow" Division of the 1st Corps reached a point on the Meuse opposite Sedan, 25 miles from the line of departure. The Americans had gained the strategical goal which was their highest hope. The Germans' main line of communication had been cut and nothing but surrender or an armistice could save them from complete disaster.

### Gallant Feat of the "Rainbow Division"

THE crossing of the Meuse River and the capture of Dun-sur-Meuse by the 42d or "Rainbow" Division, was one of the most daring exploits of the Argonne campaign. This passage involved first the laying of pontoons across the river in the face of the enemy fire. Then, after the river was crossed, there was a mile stretch of muck to flounder through, leading to a 60-foot canal, where grappling irons had to be used to lower the soldiers down the walls, before they could be pulled through the waters of the canal with ropes.

Never dreaming that the Americans would dare to attempt the crossing at this point, the Germans had neglected to entrench, but

the heights above the town bristled with their guns, which commanded all the crossings. Yet the martial spirit of the American troops triumphed over all these obstacles. The passage was heroically effected and the Germans were quickly cleared out of the Dun-sur-Meuse.

### The Race to Sedan and Its Evacuation

THE goal of the First American Army and of Gouraud's French Army was Sedan, that historic town on the east bank of the Meuse whose capture would cut the German communications and close one of the two remaining lines of retreat still open to the Germans.

In the race for Sedan, which now set in, the 42d (Rainbow) and 77th (New York) Divisions outran all their rivals, arriving simultaneously on the west bank of the Meuse, opposite Sedan, on November 7th. Close behind the leaders were the 1st, 2d, 3d, and 5th Divisions of the Regular Army, the 78th (New Jersey), the 80th (Pennsylvania), 32d (Michigan and Wisconsin), 90th (Texas and Oklahoma), 89th (Kansas and Nebraska), 26th ("Yankee") and the 29th (New Jersey).

Looking across the river they could see the frantic efforts of the German troops to remove their guns and supplies preparatory to evacuation. All that day the German guns on the heights above shelled the American positions with but slight damage.

That night the Germans evacuated Sedan and the roads leading to Metz and other points on the German border were choked with transports and troops bent on escaping from the clutch of the Americans.

The Americans, though clearly entitled to occupy Sedan in force, yielded their rights to the French. Gen. Gouraud made his official entry into Sedan on November 10th, seizing an immense amount of booty and many prisoners.

That very night, Kaiser Wilhelm abdicated his throne and escaped into Holland, finding asylum in the castle of a Dutch nobleman.

## The French Army's Advance Along the Meuse

COINCIDENTLY with the drive of the First American Army, was the advance of Gouraud's Fourth French Army west of the Forest. This belt of thick Forest, six miles wide, alone separated the two armies. Their objectives were the same—first to cut the Sedan-Mezieres railway and then flank the German armies by capturing Sedan.

In their first leap forward the French had advanced four miles in a single day, taking 7,000 prisoners and liberating several towns.

Like the Americans on their right, the French in the opening days of the battle had broken deep into the Hindenberg line and later had penetrated far into the second battle zone, cleared the edges of the Argonne Forest and mastered the entrance to the Grandpre defile, where they awaited the arrival of the Americans.

Opposed by a great part of the German reserves, the French had advanced steadily against almost insuperable obstacles. Gen. Gouraud forced a withdrawal of the Germans behind the Suippe, pressing them backward eight miles in 24 hours.

By October 10th, the Argonne pocket had been wiped out, the Kriemhilde line penetrated, the last organized defences west of the Meuse smashed, the Germans driven into the open, Gouraud's French Army had formed a complete junction with Pershing's American Army at Cornay on the Aire River, and both were pressing toward Sedan.

Their advance endangered still further the German hold on Laon and La Fere, two cities that were hinges for all German movements in Northern France.

From the eastern border of the Argonne to Guise, the whole countryside had now burst into flames. German savagery was wreaking the vengeance of despair on towns and villages. All the way from La Fere to the Argonne, the German armies were in hurried retreat. The whole Laon salient had given way.

The principal German resistance on the entire front was experienced north of the Argonne, east of the Aire River, where the Americans were fighting on both flanks of the French. The German commander, in a

memorable order, had warned his troops that the fate of the German Empire depended on the unconquerable resistance of this front. Responsive to this appeal, the German troops fought with an intensity born of desperation.

Pushing ever forward, through each successive German line of defence, the French arrived with the Americans at their goal—Sedan—on November 7th. The Sedan of 1870 had marked the birth of the German Empire. The Sedan of 1918 marked its collapse.

### Two American Divisions with the French

Two American Divisions—the 2d and the 36th—fought as a part of Gouraud's French Army west of the Meuse. These divisions were instrumental in breaking the last and most formidable of the German lines in the Champagne, thus relieving the city of Rheims from a siege of four years, and by flanking the Germans they made possible the rapid advance of the American Army east of the Argonne Forest.

The 2d Division, on its first day in the line, October 3d, drove the Germans out of the formidable "Essen trench," advancing a mile beyond through a narrow salient in which they were assailed by machine-gun fire from three directions. On October 5th, the gallant Marines of this division, in co-operation with a French regiment, captured the fortified height, Mont Blanc, without the loss of a man, taking 209 prisoners and 75 machine guns. On the following day, units of the 2d Division carried all the positions before St. Etienne, but failed to take the town itself.

During the night of October 6th-7th, the 71st Brigade of the 36th Division relieved part of the 2d Division, coming under fire for the first time. On the morning of the 8th, supported by French tanks, the 71st Brigade hit the German line like veterans, pushing forward through St. Etienne and a half mile beyond, until held up by a wired trench system. The division in a week advanced 13 miles, taking 549 prisoners at a total cost of 2,710 casualties. The 2d Division lost 4,771 men and officers.



WESTERN THEATER, SEPT. 27—OCT. 7

## Two American Divisions Break Through the Hindenberg Line

New York and Tennessee Doughboys Blaze Path for the Capture of St. Quentin  
by the French and of Cambrai by the British, Compelling a  
General German Retreat Towards the Rhine

SECTION 28—1918

### Allied Forces, 750,000

Gen. Ferdinand Foch, Commander-in-Chief  
Gen. Sir Douglas Haig, British Commander  
Gen. Petain, French Commander

Fourth British Army—Gen. Rawlinson  
U. S. 27th Division, Gen. J. F. O'Ryan  
U. S. 30th Division, Gen. E. M. Lewis

Second British Army—Gen. Plumer

Third British Army—Gen. Byng

French First Army—Gen. Debeney

French Second Army—Gen. Degouette

French Third Army—Gen. Mangin

### German Forces, 750,000

Gen. Ludendorff, Chief of Staff  
First Army—Gen. Otto von Below  
Second Army—Gen. von Marwitz  
Third Army—Gen. von Hutier

THE smashing of the great Hindenberg line at its strongest point, compelling a German general retreat toward the Rhine and marking the real crisis of the World War, was the gallant accomplishment of two divisions of American shock troops attached to the Fourth British Army, commanded by Gen. Rawlinson.

The Germans, after being driven successively out of the Lys, Marne and St. Mihiel salients in September, had fallen back on a strongly fortified position known as the Hindenberg line. Here they hoped to remain for the winter. But this was not in accord with Marshal Foch's idea of a proper termination of the War. He intended either to destroy all the German armies or keep them on the run until they were ready to beg for mercy. Consequently he gave them no rest, attacking the German line first at one point and then at another, without intermission.

Selecting two crack American divisions—the 27th New Yorkers and the 30th Tennesseans—to act as storm troops, he ordered a frontal attack to be made on the Hindenberg line, at its strongest point in the St. Quentin sector, by two British armies under Gens. Rawlinson and Byng, and a French Army under Gen. Debeney.

It will be recalled that, late in August, after the Yankees had routed the Germans from the Marne salient, and during the confusion of their first retreat, Gen. Horne's

Canadians had penetrated the northern tip of the Hindenberg line and smashed the "Switch Line" beyond. This rupture, however, was not of vital consequence, for the long line south of this point, remained wholly intact.

### The Hindenberg Line Described

THE Hindenberg line, at this point so-called, was really a maze of parallel defences, some 20 in number, extending from Lens 90 miles southward to the Aisne, and connected each with the other by communicating trenches. Fronting this line flowed the deep Scheldt Canal, 60 feet wide. Beyond this canal, in parallel rows, stretched three barriers of thick cable wire, each 25 feet broad, and so closely strung that a pencil point could scarcely penetrate the mesh. Back of these barriers lay the first line of trenches, built of solid concrete and with machine-gun emplacements every few yards. Farther back was a support line, whose chief defensive feature was a tunnel constructed at a depth of 40 feet underground, with chambers opening from its corridors so commodious as to afford shelter for several army corps. At intervals along the line of this tunnel, stairways and galleries were provided for the ingress and egress of troops, while each of the traverses bristled with trench mortars. In addition, secondary lines were attached to the system. These fortifications



had been built by the forced labor of French and Belgian civilians and by prisoners of war. The Germans regarded the Hindenberg line as impregnable, but they had underestimated the resourcefulness of the Yankee, French and British soldiers.

### **The Allied Advance Begins**

THE drive which resulted in the smashing of the Hindenberg line was begun on September 27, 1918, soon after the First American Army had abolished the St. Mihiel salient. Sweeping forward on a front of 22 miles, the British, French and American troops had arrived close to three great objectives—La Fere, St. Quentin and Cambrai, the strongest outposts on the new German line. In ten days the Allied armies had approached near to all their objectives and taken 10,000 prisoners.

### **Canadians Cross the Canal du Nord**

THE first spectacular feat of this advance was the passage of the Canal du Nord, opposite the village of Bournonville, by two divisions of Canadian troops on September 27th. Supporting the Canadians there were three British divisions, aided by 65 tanks. This passage was effected south of the Arras-Cambrai Road. The canal, at this point, was 60 feet wide, with sloping brick sides, some 50 feet deep. Every yard of its front was under German fire. After the village of Bournonville had been heavily bombed by gas shells, the Canadians fearlessly plunged into the canal, some with scaling ladders for use in descending and ascending the steep sides of the cut. With a minimum of losses they reached their objective at Bournonville.

### **Yankee Troops Storm St. Quentin Tunnel**

THE most daring and gallant action of the campaign was the storming of the St. Quentin Tunnel, incomparably the strongest position on the Hindenberg line, by two divisions of the Second Corps of the American Army—the 27th New York Division, commanded by Major-General John F. O'Ryan, and the 30th Tennessee Division, commanded by Major-General E. M. Lewis, supported by two divisions of Australian troops.

The Americans had taken over this part of the St. Quentin sector from the British on

September 25th. Two days later they were ordered to smash the tunnel if it was humanly possible to do so.

The task was one which might appall the bravest of men. Confronting the Americans were, first of all, three parallel rows of German trenches, with concrete firing steps, each trench protected by a belt of heavy barbed wire 25 feet in width. After breaking through one maze of wire the assailing troops would have to face a tempest of machine-gun bullets fired at close range while advancing toward the second maze. After these three barriers had been passed and the trenches seized, there yet remained to be overcome the formidable obstacle of the Le Tronquoy Tunnel.

For a distance of four miles, near Bullcourt, the St. Quentin Canal runs 40 feet underground through the gigantic Tronquoy Tunnel, which was bored in 1802 by the great Napoleon. So spacious is this tunnel that the wide towpath which borders it affords foothold for many thousand men. Within the tunnel, safe from shell fire, a large part of the German defensive force lay concealed. To ensure their safety they had sealed the tunnel entrances. Access to the firing lines above was gained through many stairways and galleries leading to the various trenches. Before the Germans could be expelled from the Hindenberg line it would be necessary first to capture the three trench lines and then the tunnel.

With two British Armies miles in their rear, and two Australian divisions in their immediate support, the dauntless American troops essayed the difficult task. In a single onrush, the German outpost positions were cleared by the 106th Regiment of the 27th U. S. Division, all New Yorkers. Then the passage of the canal, north and south of the tunnel, was accomplished by the 107th and 108th Regiments, in the face of a tornado of machine-gun fire. Some on rafts, others by foot-bridges, but the majority by swimming after dropping down the sheer sides of the canal, crossed the icy stream and climbed up the steep eastern bank to assault the first line of German trenches.

The indomitable Americans, cutting their way through a 20-foot belt of almost solid



wire entanglements, advanced to the second barrier, through a severe enfilading fire from machine guns planted at intervals of 20 feet along the whole front. Nothing could stop them; they tore through the second maze of barbed wire as though it were paper.

While advancing toward the third trenches against a fusillade of bullets from the heights they were suddenly assailed from behind by a body of German troops that had ascended through the passage ways leading upward from the tunnel. Caught between two fires the brave Americans fought like tigers, losing heavily and taking an equal toll from the enemy. In this crisis reinforcements were sent forward and the Boches in the rear were quickly dispersed.

Fresh German contingents, however, continued to surge upward from the tunnel, and though the areas between the trenches were covered with their dead, they offered obstinate resistance to the Americans throughout the day. But step by step the Americans advanced and before nightfall were astride the tunnel, in which many German soldiers had taken refuge.

The vaunted Hindenberg line had been captured in a single quick assault and American valor had blazed the way for the triumphant advance of two British Armies.

The tired Americans now opened their ranks, permitting the Australian units of the British Army to sweep through and become the first wave of the attack.

### **Clearing the Tunnel**

FIRST the tunnel had to be cleared of its thousands of German occupants. The boches were reluctant to emerge, but after a captured German howitzer had been placed in the mouth of the tunnel and a shell fired within, the Germans came rushing out in wild panic. At the portals of the tunnel, however, the Germans again showed fight, but in a battle lasting throughout the night they were conquered after the mouth of the tunnel had been choked with their dead.

### **Flight of the Germans**

By this time the Germans everywhere were in retreat. The 30th U. S. Division, after breaking through the deep defences of

the Hindenberg line, stormed Bullicourt and seized the town of Nauroy. On their left, the 27th U. S. Division pressed on as far as Jouy, where a bitter struggle took place for the possession of the village.

The fighting on the whole front of the Second American Corps was severe, and in Bullicourt, Nauroy, Guillemont Farm and at a number of other points, amid the intricacies of the Hindenberg line, strong bodies of the enemy held out with great obstinacy for many hours. These points of resistance were gradually overcome, either by the support troops of the American divisions or by the 3d and 5th Australian Divisions.

### **Germany Acknowledges Defeat by Americans**

ON the day following this glorious victory of the Americans at St. Quentin, and a week after the American victory at St. Mihiel, Vice-Chancellor von Payer summoned the six chiefs of parties in the German Reichstag to meet him and said: "Gentlemen, I have an extremely painful announcement to make to you. The High Command telephoned yesterday to the Government that it was convinced of the impossibility of winning the War, and that it was necessary as soon as possible, to ask for an armistice."

### **Foch and Haig Give Americans the Credit**

GEN. FOCH testified that "the taking of the vital spur of the Hindenberg line by the American Second Corps, attached to the British Fourth Army, opened the road to final victory."

Gen. Haig, Commander of all the British forces, was equally explicit, adding that "the deeds of the 27th and 30th American Divisions, which took Bullicourt and Nauroy, will rank with the highest achievements of the War."

### **German Armies in Retreat**

THROUGH the wide gap in the Hindenberg line, opened by the Americans, the British and French Armies quickly advanced in pursuit of the fleeing columns of Prince Rupprecht's Army, liberating many towns and taking many prisoners. The honor of liberating St. Quentin fell to Debeney's Tenth French Army.

## Germany Surrenders—Armistice Signed November 11, 1918

**I**N the hour when the First American Army crashed through the last German defences in the Argonne, the German High Command knew that surrender was inevitable if they would avert the greatest military disaster in the annals of warfare. Moreover, Germany's three allies—Austria, Turkey, and Bulgaria—already had capitulated. It was time to sue for peace. Accordingly, von Ludendorf and von Hindenberg requested the new German Government to negotiate a peace. The first overtures for peace were begun on October 8th, when the

Imperial Chancellor, Prince Maximilian of Baden, addressed a note to President Wilson, asking him to "take in hand the restoration of peace" on the basis of the conditions laid down in the President's message of January 8th. On November 5th, the German Government was notified that Marshal Foch had been authorized to receive German delegates at Rethondes, France, and to communicate to them the terms of an armistice. Five days later the terms were accepted by the German Government, and on November 11, 1918, the Armistice was signed.

EASTERN THEATER, SEPT.—OCT.

### Bulgaria, Crushingly Defeated, Humbly Sues for Peace

King Ferdinand Abdicates His Throne In Favor of Crown Prince Boris

SECTION 29—1918

#### Allied Forces, 300,000

Gen. d'Esperey, Commander  
French Army—Gen. Guillaumat  
Italian Army—Gen. Ferrera, Gen. Mombelie  
Serbian Army—Gen. Mishitch  
British-Greek Army—Gen. Milne  
Jugo-Slavic Division

#### Bulgarian Forces, 400,000

Gen. Tudoroff, Commander  
Gen. Lukov  
Crown Prince Boris

**T**HE day at length arrived when Bulgaria was called upon to pay the price of her perfidy and dishonor. Her contemptible King, Ferdinand, in 1917, had betrayed his people into the hands of the Germanic Powers, subsequently assisting in the spoliation of Bulgaria's long-time allies, Serbia and Roumania. In reward for his assistance, the Germans had treated Bulgaria as a chattel, and even Turkey was bitterly disputing with Bulgaria over the Thracian question. Verily, "the way of the transgressor is hard."

But to return to the military situation. It will be recalled that the offensive operations of the Allies against Bulgaria in 1917 had ended in failure. General Sarrail, whose conduct of that campaign laid him open to suspicion, had been stripped of all authority and Gen. Guillaumat succeeded in control of the Salonika Army, a heterogeneous force of 300,000 men, comprising Greek, Serbian,

French, British, Italian and Cretan elements.

Gen. Guillaumat's inaction led to his recall in June and the eminent Gen. Franchet d'Esperey was then placed in charge of all the Balkan operations.

During the summer of 1918 the Allied line was strengthened. The Italians in July had seized the important junction of Berat in Albania, with 1,000 prisoners. In August Berat was retaken by the Austrians, necessitating a retreat of the Italians and the French.

It was not till September that Gen d'Esperey was ready to begin his campaign. Hitherto, the Allied operations had been controlled from the base at Monastir. D'Esperey decided to launch a surprise attack from the Eastern frontier, across the mountains that rise between the Tchernia and Vardar Rivers. The Allied armies at this time occupied the ranges which formed the old Serbian frontier, although a part of the crest was still held by the Bulgarians.



D'Esperey planned to strike the enemy on a narrow front and break through to the Tchernia. If successful the operation would cut the Bulgarian line in twain.

### **Bulgarians on the Run**

ON Sunday, September 15th, the Serbian Army, under Gen. Mishitch, supported by the French on their left, furiously attacked the Bulgarian first line between Mt. Sokol and Vetrenik, taking the heights in a single rush, and advancing five miles in 24 hours. The Jugo-Slavs meanwhile had captured the peak of Koziak, taking 3,000 prisoners and 24 guns. The Bulgarians were soon on the run, falling back 20 miles on a 25-mile front on the third day of battle. On the 18th the Serbians crossed the Tchernia River and advanced toward Prilep, with every hope of entering a wedge between the Bulgarian right and left armies.

On the 19th the Serbians drove the Bulgars across the Vardar River. Four days later they occupied Gradisco, having advanced 40 miles, in nine days. A combined force of Greeks and British meanwhile had expelled the Bulgars from the Lake Dorian region and were pressing across the Belesh Mountains toward the Strumnitza River. The French troops had captured Prilep, while the Italians were moving north of Monastir into the Tchernia Bend. The direct communications of the Bulgarian armies were now completely severed, and the only way of retreat for their broken right wing was the road from Prilep to Uskub.

The Babuna Pass and the town of Ishtip were taken by the Serbians on the 25th and Uskub was almost within their grasp. The Bulgarian right wing, composed of the 11th German Army, was being pressed northeast toward Kaikandelen, while the left wing was being pushed north to the Strumnitza.

### **Bulgarians Sue for Peace**

THE relentless Serbs and Greeks pursued the now demoralized Bulgars over precipitous mountains, breaking their strongest defences with ease, and routing the enemy everywhere. Seeing that defeat was inevitable, the Bulgarians sued for peace. Gen.

Tudoroff, On September 26th, sent a staff officer to the British headquarters, asking for a suspension of hostilities for 24 hours, pending the arrival of delegates to discuss terms of peace.

Gen. Milne, the British Commander, referred the petition to Gen. d'Esperey, who declined to grant an armistice but consented to receive the Bulgarian peace delegates. The meeting took place at Salonika on September 28th.

The terms of peace laid down by Gen. d'Esperey were: That the Bulgarian Army should be immediately demobilized and its arms and equipment surrendered to Allied control; that the Bulgarians should evacuate all Greek and Serbian territory; that Bulgaria's railroads, ships and other means of transport should be placed at the disposal of the Allies; that Bulgaria should cease to be a belligerent; that the Allies should be permitted to cross Bulgarian territory at will; and that strategic points should be occupied by the French, Italian and British troops.

The armistice was signed on September 30th and Bulgaria ceased to be a belligerent.

### **King Ferdinand Abdicates His Throne**

KING FERDINAND of Bulgaria abdicated on October 4th in favor of his son, Crown Prince Boris, retiring to his estates in Hungary. King Boris, upon his accession, declared that he was "imbued with the spirit of democracy," but his reign was destined to be brief, nevertheless.

### **Serbs Reenter Their Capital**

MEANWHILE events were marching swiftly in the Balkans. The Allied armies had swept forward on all sides. The Serbs captured Veles, and the British Strumnitza on September 27th. On the 30th the French Cavalry entered Uskub and in Albania the Italians captured Berat.

The Serbs entered their ancient capital, Nish, on October 12th, and soon after were in possession of Belgrade. Before November 1st, the Balkan states south of the Danube and the Save Rivers were freed of the enemy.



WESTERN THEATER, SEPT. 28—OCT. 30

## Liberation of Belgium from the Grasp of the German Beast

With American Aid, Laon, La Fere and Lille Taken; Belgian Coast Set Free

SECTION 30—1918

### Allied Forces, 350,000

Belgian Army—Gen. Gillain, King Albert  
 Second British Army—Gen. Plumer  
 Fifth British Army—Gen. Birdwood  
 French Army—Gen. Degouette  
 U.S. 37th Division—Maj.-Gen. C. S. Farnsworth  
 U. S. 91st Division—Maj.-Gen. W. H. Johnston

### German Forces, 250,000

Crown Prince Rupprecht

**T**HE liberation of Belgium from the grasp of the German Beast was begun in the closing days of September, 1918, the same week that witnessed the smashing of the Hindenberg line by two American divisions and the beginning of the Meuse-Argonne offensive by the American Armies.

It was the good fortune of two other American divisions to assist in the final liberation of Belgium. These units were the 37th, or "Buckeye," Division from Ohio, and the 91st, or "Wild West," Division from the Pacific Coast. The glory of setting Belgium free was appropriately shared by the remnant of the Belgian Army, in co-operation with two British Armies and one French Army.

The battle for Belgium's freedom was begun on September 28th, with simultaneous thrusts at the German line, north and south of the Ypres salient, by Gen. Gillain's Belgian Army and Gen. Plumer's British Army. The little Belgian Army proved its mettle by sweeping through the German defences to a depth of four miles on the first day, capturing the Passchendaele Ridge, liberating Dixmude, storming Moorslede and pushing forward to Zarren and Staden. Plumer's British Army on the same day, moving on a ten-mile front, drove the Germans off the Messines-Wytschaete Ridge.

After three days of stern fighting, the Belgian and British Armies formed a junction north of the Houlthorst Forest, the pivot of the whole German line between Armentieres and Nieuport. The Germans had converted this forest into a mammoth fortress, with numberless redoubts, dugouts and concrete blockhouses. From every road that traversed the forest, corridors led into subter-

anean compartments, where the Germans lay hidden like so many cave-dwellers.

At every crossroad there were planted mines of high explosives, operated by clockwork and timed to explode the moment the Belgians entered the forest. Fortunately, the alert Belgians outran the clocks and removed the percussion caps from the mines, thus thwarting the enemy's plans.

The expulsion of the Germans from Houlthorst Forest was bloody business, in which cold steel played a leading role. Thousands of Germans were captured and hundreds of others perished like rats in their underground warrens.

Following these victories the Belgian and British Armies advanced on a 20-mile front to the great Belgian plain, their guns commanding the railroad from Roulers to Lille.

### American Liberators Arrive

GEN. DEGOUTTE'S French Army, to which were attached the two American divisions, and a second British Army commanded by Gen. Birdwood, arrived in Flanders on October 2d. The line of action was then extended southward and a movement against the city of Lille was begun. By this time the grip of the Germans on Belgium had been broken and they were hastily retiring on both sides of the La Basse Canal to escape envelopment from beyond Ypres. With feverish haste the Germans were evacuating Lille, not forgetting to loot the town before leaving.

Meanwhile Degouette's French Army, with its American contingents, were sweeping all before them, both north and south. Hooglede, Handeeme and La Biset fell in quick succession. The Belgians and British, east



and southeast of Ypres, in a single day recaptured ridges which had cost Gen. Haig a whole summer's campaign to take the year before.

All the north and south first-line communications between Lille and the German front, from Dixmude to the North Sea, were cut. A further advance of a few miles north from Roulers would enable the Allies to cut the second lines, leaving the Germans on two sectors with no railroad connection except a circuitous one through Ghent and Bruges. The Flanders end of the Hindenberg line had been smashed completely.

By the middle of October, all Northwestern Belgium had been practically cleared of Germans. The Belgian and British forces had occupied Zeebrugge and Heyst, crossed the Ghent-Bruges Canal and reached the Dutch frontier, where 15,000 Germans, cut off from their retreat by the Allied advance from Ecloo, had withdrawn into Holland and been interned.

### King Albert Reenters Ostend

WITH American co-operation, the Belgian, British and French Armies soon recovered a chain of captive cities—Ostend, Bruges, Lille, Douai, Roubaii, Turcoing, Courtrai, Thielt and Solesmes—which had groaned under German durance for four years.

Before evacuating Ostend, the Germans had planned its destruction. Mines had already been laid and a detail of German troops left behind to explode them. Fortunately, the German soldiers indulged in a final debauch and were discovered hopelessly drunk. When sobered up, they were required to destroy their planted mines.

Of Ostend's 45,000 inhabitants, 25,000 were still in residence on the day, in late October, when King Albert re-entered the city. The joy of the people on beholding their heroic King and Queen was beautiful to witness. As they passed through the streets Albert and his consort were pressed by cheering crowds eager to touch the hems of their garments and kiss their hands.

### How Pres. Wilson Saved Bruges

COURTRAI was found badly damaged by successive bombardments, and with all its

industrial machinery for cloth making removed by the Germans. The town had been completely looted, even the mattresses of the poor people having been seized by the Huns.

Bruges was essentially unharmed, though it had been robbed of every scrap of machinery and had been fined enormous sums on various occasions. Like Ostend, Bruges had been marked for destruction, and 40 of its leading citizens had been taken as hostages only ten days before the German evacuation. President Wilson's intercession saved Bruges. In his reply to the German armistice note, he protested against the devastation that was being carried on in the occupied part of Belgium. At once a counter-order for the release of the hostages issued from Berlin, and the Germans refrained from injuring any buildings or works of art, confining their destruction to the arsenal and German depots.

The Stars and Stripes was the first Allied flag to be raised in Bruges. It was hung by an American artist, S. Arient Edwards by name, who had been living in Bruges for five years. King Albert and his Queen entered Bruges on October 25th, amidst surging masses of people, while the historic belfry chimes rang out a joyous carillon.

Ghent was the last Belgian town to be delivered before the Armistice, the Germans clinging to it as the pivot of their retreat until November 11th. The King made his triumphal entry into Ghent on the next day. The reoccupation of Antwerp was made after the Armistice was signed.

### The Recovery of Brussels

BEFORE leaving Brussels on November 17th, the German soldiers auctioned off their stolen loot, crying their wares for sale on the sidewalks.

A solemn ceremony, proclaiming the liberation of Brussels, was held on November 22d, fully a million people participating in this climax to the long Belgian drama. King Albert received a tremendous ovation. Then followed a review of Allied troops which formed a line ten miles long. American troops, with British and French contingents, marched with the Belgians. The roads out-



side of Brussels were thronged by thousands of liberated prisoners moving homeward and passing outward. Unending groups of liberated civilians mingled with the stream. After the last ceremony of the day, the people gave themselves up to a night of carnival. It was "an international night, a festival of victory, in which soldiers of all the Allied armies took a joyous part."

King Albert and the Belgian royal family made their official entry into Liege on November 30th at the head of the troops who had conducted the heroic defense of that town in August, 1914. General Leman, the heroic defender of Liege, who had been a prisoner until the middle of December, 1917, shared with the King the plaudits of the multitude.

### **America's Share in the Delivery of Belgium**

IN the liberation of Belgium, the U. S. 37th and 91st Divisions played a conspicuous part. At a critical moment in the Flanders offensive, on October 18th, these American divisions had been hastily withdrawn from the American battle line in the Argonne and dispatched to help in Belgium. Detraining in the neighborhood of Ypres, these divisions advanced by rapid stages to the fighting line, where they arrived on October 22d. The

37th was assigned to Gen. Degouette's French Army.

In the Flanders offensive this division attacked and broke down all the enemy's resistance. On November 3d, the 37th drove the Germans across the Scheldt River, after which it returned to Thielt for rest. On November 8th, the division was transferred to the 34th French Corps and again entered the lines along the Scheldt (Escaut) River in a sector with Syngem as its headquarters. Forcing a passage of the Scheldt on the night of November 10-11th, the 37th drove the Germans before them, advancing as far as Dickele and Hindelgem, before the Armistice was signed.

The U. S. 91st Division, on October 19th, passed to the command of King Albert of Belgium. By a clever flanking movement, the troops of this division captured Spitaals Bossche, a difficult wood extending across the central part of the sector, advancing to the Scheldt River and penetrating into the historic town of Audenarde, where centuries before the Duke of Marlborough had gained a famous victory over the French. These divisions received high commendations from their corps commanders for their dash and energy.

### **EASTERN SIBERIA, SEPT.—DEC.**

## **Japan's Activities in Siberia Arouse America's Suspicion**

**In Violation of Agreement, Japan Rushes 73,000 Troops Into Russia**

**How the Japanese Fought the Bolsheviki**

### **SECTION 31—1918**

#### **Japanese Army, 73,400**

Maj.-Gen. Otani, Commander-in-Chief  
Maj.-Gen. Takishima  
Lieut.-Gen. Inagaki

#### **Czecho-Slovak Forces, 50,000**

Gen. Gaida  
Gen. Sirovi  
Gen. Kappel

#### **Siberian Troops**

Gen. Semenoff

#### **Bolshevist-German Forces, 200,000**

Gen. Vacetis, Commander  
Gen. Muravieff  
Gen. Antonoff  
Gen. Horokin

**I**N the autumn of 1918, when the tremendous conflict in France and Belgium was approaching its crisis, the situation in Eastern Siberia became greatly involved, causing the Allies much anxiety. The Bolsheviks were then in control of European

Russia and were extending their sway all through Siberia to Vladivostok. Assisting them were hundreds of thousands of German, Austrian and Hungarian prisoners of war, who had been interned in Siberia. Armed by the Bolsheviks, these German war



prisoners were seizing many towns along the line of the Trans-Siberian Railroad and terrorizing the inhabitants. As yet no force had arisen in Russia which could cope successfully with them. There was, however, an army of Czecho-Slovaks, from 50,000 to 100,000 strong, all former prisoners of war, who had received permission to journey unmolested through Siberia to Vladivostok, where they intended to cross the Pacific Ocean, the American continent and the Atlantic Ocean to France. After starting on their journey across Siberia their passage was delayed by the Bolshevik leaders, acting on the request of Germany. Many clashes resulted in consequence. The Czecho-Slovaks, against their will, were thereby forced into an attitude of hostility toward the Bolsheviks, whereas they had wished to preserve a neutral attitude. The Allied governments, as yet, had neither recognized nor denounced the Bolsheviks, preferring that Russia should work out her own political salvation. But as the Bolshevik menace continued to grow, and especially after the Bolsheviks had broken faith with the Czecho-Slovak troops, the Allies decided to take steps to protect the Czechs from annihilation and at the same time insure the safety of their vast military stores in Vladivostok. Accordingly, the United States Government proposed that a joint army be mobilized in Eastern Siberia to guard Vladivostok, police the Trans-Siberian Railroad and assist the Czecho-Slovaks. The proposal was accepted in August, the express agreement being that Japan, England, France, Italy, China and the United States should each send into Siberia not exceeding 7,000 troops; furthermore, by mutual agreement among these nations, none of the Allied armies were to operate East of Lake Baikal, which divides Siberia roughly in half.

### **Japanese Violate the Allied Compact**

IN accordance with this agreement, the United States Government sent an Expeditionary Force of 7,000 to Vladivostok, under command of Major Gen. Graves, while England, France, Italy and China each sent lesser contingents. The Japanese, on the contrary, in deliberate violation of the Allied compact,

sent an army of 73,400 men into Siberia, and mobilized an even greater force below the border. The Allies viewed these Japanese movements with much apprehension, but as the great conflict in France required their principal attention, no representations were then made to Japan.

The Japanese presently dominated the whole situation in Siberia. General Otani, by virtue of his seniority, became Commander-in-Chief of the Allied Christian forces in Eastern Siberia. By his orders, the Japanese seized all caravan routes and blockaded all posts. Japanese gunboats and monitors were sent up the navigable streams and river into the interior. The Japanese flag waved above every railroad station from Vladivostok to Chita, along both the Amur and the Chinese Eastern Railways, in Siberia and Manchuria. Every railroad bridge and nearly every public building was guarded by Japanese.

No American, Italian, British or French contingent might move in Siberia without first notifying the Japanese of their purpose, though these wily Asiatics in their turn did not deign to notify the Allies of their movements.

If, perchance, a European officer were sent from the base at Vladivostok to a distant city or town, the Japanese staff invariably dispatched a Japanese officer of superior rank to the same place to take command of the situation. No caravan could move in or out of Manchuria or Siberia save under the close scrutiny of Japanese guards.

The arrival and departure of all trains, all ships, were equally subject to their constant scrutiny. In a word, Eastern Siberia and Manchuria were practically in Japanese possession and if the tide of battle in France should have turned against the Allies, Japan would have been in a position to hold those vast regions against all comers. Rumor said that Japan and Germany had concluded a secret agreement under the terms of which Japan was to be given control of Siberia from Lake Baikal to the Pacific, but this libel was denied by the Japanese Government.



### Japan Shows Her Teeth

MEANTIME, the Governments of Great Britain, France, Italy and China, together with the All-Siberian Government at Omsk, had proposed that the United States Government should be vested with supreme authority in the maintenance and operation of the Trans-Siberian Railway, then in a woeful state of disorder. The consent of Japan was sought, but the Japanese Government could not agree on the subject of American railroad control. The Japanese War Board insisted that Siberia was properly included in Japan's "sphere of influence" and that no other nation or group of nations should be permitted to interfere with Japanese control. On the other hand, the Japanese Chambers of Commerce and all the large financial institutions favored American control of the railroad. In the end, the views of the war party prevailed and at their dictation the Japanese Government made counter-proposals which destroyed all possibilities of an Allied agreement regarding the Trans-Siberian Railway.

Our Government, on November 2d, took Japan to task for her obstructive tactics in Siberia, calling attention to the violation of the compact regarding the number of troops which each nation was to send into Siberia and to the objectionable activities of Gen. Takishima.

The Japanese Government very prudently decided to heed the American warning. Gen. Otani was ordered to send home 50,000 of the troops he had taken into Siberia and the Japanese Military Staff called upon Major General Graves to express their regrets for past offenses, and to assure him that in future Japan and the United States would work together in complete harmony in Siberia.

On the other hand, Gen. Takishima, the stormy petrel of Japanese militarism, remained obstreperous. Returning to Japan, he attempted to rally all the anti-American factions to his cause with the view of controlling the Japanese Cabinet in the interests of the War Board. He had made much headway, when suddenly, on November 11th, Germany surrendered and the Siberian plans of the Japanese War Board collapsed.

### Japan's Operations in Siberia

THE operations of the Japanese Army in Siberia in 1918, as made public by the Japanese War Office in Tokio, may be briefly summarized as follows: The first division of troops reached Vladivostok on August 18th, under the supreme command of Major-General Otani. One column was to advance to Khobarovsk, a second was to guard important points on the Ussuri Railroad and a third was to move westward along the Amur Railway and the Amur River.

At that time the main body of the Czech army was marching westward, while a portion of it, together with French and British forces, was being assailed by Bolshevik troops along the Ussuri Railroad. The Japanese troops hastened to assist the Czechs. On August 24th a daring engagement was fought with the Bolsheviks in the neighborhood of Krasfesky. The enemy was severely beaten and retreated northward, the Japanese leaving 190 and the Bolsheviks 300 dead on the battlefield.

In Trans-Baikalia, meantime, General Semenoff's detachment of Siberian troops, which had been fighting single-handed against the combined forces of the Bolsheviks and the Austrian war prisoners, had been gradually pressed back since July and at length retreated into Chinese territory, east of Manchuli in Manchuria. The Japanese residents in that district having complained of Bolshevik persecutions, a brigade of Japanese troops under Lieut.-General Fujii was despatched to protect them. The Japanese joined with Semenoff's troops on August 26th, and in a battle near Manchuli dispersed the Bolsheviks, afterwards advancing into the Trans-Baikal Province. The enemy in that region were very active, and often destroyed the network of Japanese communications, but always they were repulsed.

A third Japanese division was despatched on September 1st in the direction of Trans-Baikalia to aid in rescuing the Czechs. Joining with Semenoff and Fujii, they established connections with the Czech forces that had come from Central Siberia.

In both the Amur and the maritime provinces, the Japanese forces, with Gen. Kal-



mikoff's Russians, marched at top speed 250 miles and on September 4th occupied Khabarovsk. The Bolsheviks, falling back on Blagovestchensk, endeavored to coerce the peasants into joining their army, but before they could carry out their purpose the Japanese, Czechs, and loyal Russians struck them hard, compelling large numbers to surrender and the rest to flee northward. Many of the Bolsheviks threw down their arms and, in the language of the Japanese report, "disguised themselves as good citizens."

A concerted advance of Japanese, American, Russian, Czech, Chinese and other Allied troops was begun in September, from four directions, having for its object the expulsion of the Bolsheviks from the line of the Amur Railway. A portion of the American, Chinese and Russian troops were bracketed with the Japanese 12th Division, which sailed up the Amur River on captured ships.

Gen. Fujii's brigade advanced from the Trans-Baikal Province eastward, while Gen. Junabashi's detachment moved northward

out of Manchuria. Swiftly advancing, against stubborn resistance, the Allies beat down all Bolshevik resistance and by September 22d were in complete possession of the Amur Railway. The occupied regions were at once reorganized and order was gradually restored.

Late in October, for the ostensible purpose of guarding the land telegraph line from Vladivostok to the border of Korea, the Japanese dispatched a column of troops southward. These troops, not only overcame Bolshevik resistance but encountered the hostility of the Koreans.

The prestige of the Bolsheviks in Eastern Siberia had been gradually lowered in all quarters. Nevertheless, small uprisings and local disturbances continued all through November and December until the withdrawal of 50,000 Japanese troops at the request of the United States Government. Up to December 31, 1918, the Japanese casualties included 77 killed, 226 died of illness and 183 wounded.

EASTERN THEATER, OCT.—DEC.

## Poland Regains Her Independence After 140 Years of Bondage

New Republic Wages War with Ruthenia to Recover Province of Kholm

SECTION 32—1918

### Polish Military Forces, 100,000

Gen. Joseph Pilsudski, Commander  
Gen. Joseph Haller  
Gen. Dowbor-Musnicki  
Gen. Michaelis

### Ruthenian-German Forces, 250,000

Gen. Eichhorn, Commander  
Gen. Skoropadsky  
Gen. Morgen  
Gen. Hoffman

**P**OLAND in 1918 once again took her place among the free nations of Europe, not as a restored kingdom, but as a republic, modeled on French lines. The rebirth of Polish independence, after 140 years of vassalage, was attended by bloody and painful scenes, due to the usurpations of the Germanic powers, the encroachments of Bolshevik Russia, the jealousy of the Ruthenians in Galicia and the open hostility of the Ukrainians.

In the first year of the World War, when Imperial Germany and Czarist Russia both were competing for the support of the Poles, the complete liberation of Poland was promised. Neither of these pledges was fulfilled.

In 1915, the Czar assured the people of Russian Poland that the privilege of local municipal autonomy should be granted them in the following year.

When urged to put into immediate effect certain reform measures desired by the Polish people, the Russian Government demurred, saying that such reforms might well wait until after the close of the War. Afterwards, when urging the Poles to take up arms against Germany and Austria, the Russians pretended to be devising a plan of real political union with Poland. Still later, they proposed to substitute for this plan an independent Poland, with legislative chambers. But before the year had closed the Russians

would only consent to grant Poland "more or less self government."

Small wonder that when the German and Austrian Armies overran Russian Poland, in the autumn of 1915, the Poles were grateful for the change of masters. The Germans endeavored to gain the good will of the Poles by granting them certain vital reforms. The Polish language was restored in the courts; a national educational system was introduced into the schools; the children were taught in their mother tongue; and the right of self-government was extended to the Polish cities. These concessions, however, did not suffice to appease the wrath of the Poles. Millions of families had been rendered homeless by the rival armies as they swayed back and forth through the land and the anguish of the people was intense. Famine ravaged the country; in Warsaw alone there were 300,000 Poles reduced almost to skeletons. Work there was little, and even the professional and educated classes were forced to beg for bread in the public thoroughfares. The dread typhus epidemic, wiped out whole sections of the country.

After almost a year of occupation, Germany and Austria at length consented to declare Russian Poland an independent kingdom to be governed by an hereditary monarch on constitutional lines, but this concession was not to go into effect until after the War. It was clearly stated, however, that this new kingdom was to comprise only Russian Poland. Germany and Austria would not consent to restore to Poland the rich provinces they had seized in the three Partitions.

The proclamation guaranteeing the establishment of the Kingdom of Poland was read in the Assembly at Warsaw on Nov. 5, 1916, by Governor General von Bessler. Five days later the Germanic Powers called upon the Russian Poles to volunteer for a Polish Army. Very few recruits answered the call, it being patent to all Poland that the proposed kingdom was to be set up as a mere military and economic annex to Germany and Austria.

The Teutonic Powers next sought to win the support of the Poles by setting up a fictitious national government in the form of a temporary State Council. It was a con-

dition of this grant that "a numerous and well-disciplined Polish Army" should be organized, and that the Polish soldiers should swear allegiance not only to the Provisional State Council, but also to the Governments of Germany and Austria. At the same time, the Germans warned the Poles, that, if they failed to raise a volunteer Army, conscription would be resorted to. The tyrant, von Bessler, then established an iniquitous system of police control, forcibly removing to Germany hundreds of thousands of Polish workmen, to replace German workers who had been recruited into the German Army.

Resenting these usurpations, the Polish Legions generally refused to subscribe to the insulting oath of fraternity with the Germans. In consequence of this refusal they were interned.

Poland's real liberation came in March, 1917, with the dawn of the Russian Revolution. The new Provisional Government of Russia declared Poland a free state and called the Poles to her ranks in the fight for the liberty of the people. The Polish recruits who had answered Austria's call for an Army, refused to take the oath of allegiance. Their commander, Gen. Joseph Pilsudski, was thrown into prison. Whereupon the entire Polish Council of State resigned.

Germany sought anew to placate the Poles by setting up another government in Warsaw, consisting of a Regency Council of three members, a Premier and Cabinet, and a Council of State. Final authority in all matters was still retained by the Germanic Powers. Kucharzewski was made Premier and three conservatives were named for the Regency Council.

### **Polish (Russian) Army Barred from Poland**

ABOUT this time, the Poles in the Russian Army, numbering 700,000, became restive under the spur of the disintegrating tendencies which had taken possession of the Russian forces, and endeavored to organize a separate Polish Army to fight for the liberation of their own country. This worthy effort, however, was marred by political strife. The National Democrats, by seeking to make political capital of the army move-



ment, antagonized the liberal Poles as well as the Kerensky Government, which suspected that the new Polish Army might be employed in the reactionary cause. In consequence of this antagonism, only a small part of the Polish forces was organized as a separate unit. Under command of Gen. Dowbor-Musnicki, this army fought gallantly against the Germans and subsequently against the Bolsheviks, protecting many towns from pillage and massacre.

Prevented by the Germans from re-entering Poland, after the overthrow of the Kerensky Government by the Bolsheviks and the cessation of hostilities, the Polish soldiers were scattered throughout Russia and unable to come to the assistance of their fatherland.

In America, however, through the efforts of Ignace Paderewski, the eminent pianist, who subsequently became Premier of Poland, a considerable army of Polish troops was organized and sent to France, under command of Gen. Joseph Haller.

### **Bolsheviks Betray Poland**

IN the plot to enchain Poland anew, Germany had the full assistance of the Russian Bolsheviks. Thus, on January 16, 1918, Lenine and Trotzky concluded a secret treaty with Germany by the terms of which Germany was to be unmolested while exploiting Poland.

The Bolshevik Government agreed not to interfere in any way whatever in the "organization" of Poland; nor to protest against the "annexation" by Germany of the metal and coal regions of Dombrowa; nor to interfere in Germany's designs on the petroleum industry of Galicia, nor to question the separation from the Polish domain of the Province of Kholm, nor to question the German customs policy; nor to interfere in Germany's economic policy in Posen or the Austrian policy in Galicia.

The Bolsheviks, while reserving the right to spread their iniquitous doctrines in Poland, "through agitators registered in the lists of the German bureaus of instruction at Petrograd and Warsaw," nevertheless pledged themselves not to send any Bolshevik agitators into Germany or Austro-Hungary.

Furthermore, after the new German partition of Poland had been accomplished, if the Polish Army should venture to cross the borders of Ukraina or Lithuania, the Bolsheviks would consider the invasion tantamount to a declaration of war, and in that event pledged themselves to assist Germany and Austria in crushing the armies of Poland. Lenine and Trotzky further agreed, when the Brest-Litovsk Peace Conference should have reassembled, to protest "in the name of Socialism and the abolition of war," against the formation of a Polish Army and the creation of a Polish Ministry of War.

Assurances were given that Soviet Russia would invest neither its own capital, nor permit the investment of French, English or American capital, in municipal, railroad or maritime enterprises in Poland.

Should the German and Austrian Governments decide to modify their political relations in regard to Poland, the Bolsheviks promised to uphold the Germans in any action taken, "even against the opposition on the part of the former allies of Russia." Thus did Lenine and Trotzky again reveal themselves as the cat's-paws of Germany and the foes of human freedom.

### **The Cession of Kholm to Ukraina**

GERMAN and Bolshevik perfidy revealed itself a second time at the Brest-Litovsk Peace Conference on February 9, 1918. Poland, though entitled to representation in the Peace Conference, nevertheless was denied the right of participation. The reason for her exclusion was made clear when the Germans and Russian Bolsheviks agreed to cede the whole of the rich Kholm district in Poland to the "Ukrainian People's Republic," another of the fictitious governments set up by Germany on the ruins of the Russian Empire, in compensation for the privileges which the Ukrainian Government was willing to accord to Germany. When this act of spoliation became known, a wave of indignation swept Poland and such was the fury of the betrayed people that it was found necessary to proclaim martial law throughout certain districts. So threatening did the opposition become, that the German and Austrian Ministers of State hastened to modify



the objectionable clauses of the treaty, by inserting a provision that the Kholm region should not be ceded forthwith to Ukrainia, but that its future would be determined by a mixed commission of Poles and Ukrainians empowered to draw the lines of the new frontier. This supplementary treaty was signed on February 18, 1918.

### **Allied War Council Declares for Poland**

THE Allied governments put themselves squarely on record in favor of Poland's complete restoration when, on June 5, 1918, the Supreme War Council at Versailles adopted a declaration to the effect that "the creation of a united independent Polish State, with free access to the sea, constitutes one of the conditions of a solid and just peace and the rule of right in Europe."

### **Polish Army Formed**

UNDER the decree of the Polish Regency of June 4, 1917, a new Polish Army had been formed, consisting of volunteers recruited in various lands, and particularly in the United States. This army, marching under its own flag and commanded by Polish officers, took its place on the French battlefront on June 22, 1918, and fought gallantly in July on the battlefield of Champagne. A Polish detachment also fought on the Italian front.

The Poles had previously distinguished themselves on the Eastern battlefront, where the Second Polish Corps, commanded by Gen. Michaelis, had gallantly assisted the Russians against the Germans. Another Polish Regiment, known as the Iron Brigade, and commanded by Col. Joseph Haller, deserted from the Austrian lines at Bukowina, joined the Second Corps in Bessarabia and fought valorously against the Germans.

Part of the brigade was captured by the Germans, the remainder retreating across the Dnieper, and effecting a junction with the Czecho-Slovaks in Southern Russia. Gen. Haller subsequently made his way to Paris by way of the Northern route.

### **America's Official Recognition of Poland**

AMERICAN sympathy for Poland in her aspirations for freedom was nation-wide. In mid-July, 1918, Senator Hitchcock, Chair-

man of the Foreign Relations Committee, drafted a resolution recognizing Poland as an independent nation but the measure was not at that time laid before Congress.

With the arrival in this country, early in September, of Roman Dmowsky, President of the Polish National Committee in Paris, the movement for recognition of Poland's claims to independence took on a new impetus. On November 4, 1918, the United States Government formally recognized the Polish National Army as "autonomous, allied and co-belligerent," thus following the example of France, Great Britain and Italy.

### **Polish Demands on Germany**

IN August, the Polish subjects of Prussia laid several demands before the German Government. These included the maintenance of the existing frontiers, access to the Baltic, recognition of Dantzig as a free port, the annexation of certain Lithuanian territory and the abolition of the divided Austro-German administration of Poland. These demands were practically ignored by the German warlords.

The Polish Regency then demanded the establishment of an independent Poland, embracing all the territories inhabited by Poles, but without avail. On October 13th, the Prussian Poles issued a manifesto which declared that "Nothing but the union into one State of all peoples living in Polish lands, a State which shall possess full rights, can guarantee a lasting league of Nations."

The Polish National Committee, on October 24th, addressed a message to the Italian people reciting that representatives of all classes of the Polish population had met at Warsaw and proclaimed the union of all the Polish territories subject to Austria, Germany and Russia.

### **Poles Withdraw from Mid-European Union**

REPRESENTATIVES of eighteen nations of Central Europe which had been subject to alien domination, met at Philadelphia, on October 26, 1918, and organized an informal alliance which they christened the "Mid-European Union." These nations tentatively agreed to present a united front against future aggression by Germany or any other



reactionary power. Their Declaration of Independence was signed in the same hall and at the same table as our American Declaration of Independence in 1776. A new bell, modeled on the historic Liberty Bell, pealed forth as the signatures of the delegates were attached to the document.

Professor Thomas G. Masaryk, afterward chosen President of the new Czecho-Slovak Republic, presided and the nationalities represented were: Czecho-Slovaks, Poles, Jugoslavs, Uhro-Ruthenes, Ukrainians, Rumanians, Italian Irridents, Greeks, Lithuanians, Albanians, and Zionists.

A few days afterwards the Poles, through Ignace Paderewski, announced their withdrawal from the Mid-European Union, on the ground that the Ukrainian Government had failed to relinquish to them certain portions of Galicia and was maintaining troops in regions rightly belonging to Poland.

### **Poles and Ruthenians At War**

GALICIA was the scene of civil strife in October, 1918. A combined force of Ruthenian, German and Bolshevik soldiers, bent upon perpetrating the theft of the Kholm Province from Poland, attacked the Polish military forces and seized the cities of Lemberg and Przemyśl. The civil population of Galicia was rent into violent factions. Serious riots broke out in Lemberg. The Parliament building was partially destroyed, the Post Office blown to pieces, the railway station wrecked and hundreds of citizens killed or wounded.

Early in November, when it became apparent that Germany's downfall was a matter of weeks only, the Poles prepared to rise and overthrow the Teuton yoke. The conservative leaders of the National Democratic Party took the initiative, hoping to prevent the Revolution becoming Bolshevik. A new Cabinet was formed at Warsaw, with Joseph Swierzynski as Premier. This Cabinet endeavored to win the support of the Socialist parties, but without success. The Minister for Foreign Affairs thereupon addressed telegrams to Berlin and Vienna, expressing a desire to continue friendly relations with the Germanic Powers. This act of treachery so angered the Polish Provisional Government

in Galicia that it refused further to recognize the Warsaw Government.

A new crisis arose when Premier Swierzynski proclaimed Poland a People's Republic and invited all parties to unite in forming a government with a popular majority. The proclamation was received with joy by the Polish people, but it angered the Regency Council, who dismissed the Cabinet and forced the authors of the manifesto to retire without waiting for the nomination of their successors.

### **Socialist Republic Proclaimed**

IN retaliation for the dismissal of the Cabinet, the Socialists met at Lublin and proclaimed a republic, to be established on the basis of a Constituent Assembly, universal suffrage, nationalization of land, an eight-hour day, free education, confiscation of capital earned in the War and the abolition of titles. All other reforms were left to the Constituent Assembly, which was to meet in January, 1919. Germany was ordered to remove her armies out of Poland under penalty of attack.

### **Gen. Pilsudski Becomes Dictator**

EARLY in November, a body of resolute Poles broke into the prison and released their idol, Gen. Pilsudski, who had been thrown into a dungeon by the German authorities. Gen. Pilsudski's arrival at Warsaw on November 10th was the signal for a great popular demonstration. A tremendous crowd pressed in upon him with cheers and showered him with flowers. The various political parties vied, each with the other, in persuading Pilsudski to become the head of the Government.

Three days later the Regency Council formally abdicated in favor of Pilsudski, who became Minister for War and virtually the Dictator of Poland.

### **Germans Expelled from Poland**

THE German Government was ordered forthwith to withdraw its troops out of Poland and relinquish as well all claims of sovereignty over the former vassal state. In reply the now humble Kaiser consented to transfer the administration of the country to



the Poles on December 1st. But while withdrawing out of Poland, the Germans began the systematic pillage of the country, seizing all raw materials and even the prime necessities upon which the starving Poles depended. Enraged at this demonstration of German covetousness, Gen. Pilsudski ordered the disarmament of all Germans on Polish territory. By the 15th of November not a single armed German detachment was left on the soil of Russian Poland. In Galicia, too, the Poles summarily expelled the Teutons from their land.

So exasperated were the Poles with the merciless procedure of the Germans, that on December 1st, the Polish National Government broke off all relations with Germany and ordered Gen. von Bessler and Count von

Kessler, the Envoy of the Kaiser, to leave within 12 hours.

Meantime, the pro-German Government of Ukrainia had been overthrown and Gen. Denekine's Cossacks were in possession of the city of Kiev. The Ukrainian National Assembly was dispersed and a provisional Ruthenian Government proclaimed.

During this period of turmoil, Jewish massacres were alleged to have taken place in Poland, but an impartial investigation of the rumors, conducted by Jewish and Gentile committees, indicated that the reports had been greatly overdrawn.

The United States Government, on November 4th, recognized the Polish Army as autonomous and co-belligerent.

WESTERN THEATER, NOV.—DEC.

## German and Austrian Empires Overthrown and Emperors Flee

Republics Established in Poland, Hungary, Czecho-Slovakia, Bavaria and Jugo-Slavia

SECTION 33—1918

THE overthrow of the Empires of Germany and Austria-Hungary; the abdication and flight of Kaiser Wilhelm and Emperor Karl; the deposition of all the kingly, ducal and princely houses of the Hohenzollern and Hapsburg dynasties, and the seizure of the reins of government by moderate Socialists—all these epochal events followed close upon the defeat of the German legions by America's Crusaders.

The rumblings of revolution had been heard for months in Germany. Excepting the Junker class, all the German people were apparently sick of the War in 1918, and would make any reasonable concession to obtain peace. As recently as March, 1918, they had been assured that Gen. Ludendorff's new offensive beyond doubt would compel the Allies to sue for peace on Germany's terms. But after the last great German drive had been halted by the American Marines and Doughboys at the Marne, and when defeat stared Germany in the face, the futility of prolonging the War was manifest to all. Peace at any price was the people's wish.

Kaiser Wilhelm still was held in awe by the nation, but after President Wilson had

made it clear that the Allies would have no further dealings with the Emperor of Germany, the Kaiser fell from his pedestal as a national hero and became a much execrated man.

With the collapse of Germany's military machine, the doom of the Hohenzollerns was sealed. The Socialists, who numbered a third of the entire population, resolved upon revolution, having for their immediate purpose the overthrow of the Empire, the expulsion of the Hohenzollerns and the setting up of a democratical state under Socialist auspices.

Early in September, before the Armistice was agreed upon, the Socialists had perfected their plans for the seizure of the Government. Most of the sailors in the High Seas Fleet, together with a large proportion of the soldiers at the front and all the workmen in the cities, favored the Revolution. The crisis was reached on September 28th, when the Kaiser ordered the Fleet to prepare for a sacrificial battle with the Allied navies, each ship to fight until sunk. Members of the crew of the battleship Kaiser at Kiel mutined on November 3d, killing two of their officers and hoisting the red flag. Their action



proved contagious. The red flag soon waved over the German battleships at Warnemunde, Rostock, Bremen and other ports. The city of Kiel immediately passed under the control of a Soldiers' Council, being governed on the Russian Soviet system. All Germany was soon aflame with revolutionary ardor.

Meanwhile the reactionary Chancellor von Hertling had resigned, but before so doing he induced the Kaiser to issue his decree of September 30th, stipulating for the establishment of parliamentary government. This tardy concession neither appeased the unrest nor satisfied the aspirations of the people. The three majority parties in the Reichstag—Socialists, Catholics and Progressives—agreed upon a new radical program, and named Prince Maximilian as Chancellor. Socialists for the first time were now offered Cabinet positions, all the new ministers being selected from the Reichstag.

With the power at last in their hands, the Socialists determined to rid Germany of the Kaiser and all his Junker advisers. On November 7th, the Reichstag Socialists instructed Chancellor Maximilian to present an ultimatum to Kaiser Wilhelm demanding his abdication. At the same time Philip Scheidemann, the Socialist member of the Cabinet without a portfolio, was sent to the Kaiser's headquarters at Spa, to demand an immediate change in the Prussian Government in conformity with the views of the majority of the Reichstag.

The Kaiser at first refused to abdicate on the plea that "he could not at that moment of peace undertake the terrible responsibility of handing over Germany to the Entente Powers and delivering up the country to anarchy." Subsequently, the Kaiser expressed his willingness to resign as Emperor if he were chosen as "the hereditary President of Germany."

### **Kaiser Wilhelm's Cowardly Exit**

ON the following day, the Kaiser summoned his staff officers to a conference and demanded to know if the troops were still loyal to the Imperial Government. Without exception the officers declared that though the troops would fight to the last breath against the Allied enemy, they would not

fight against their own comrades. This decision grieved the All-Highest exceedingly.

Meanwhile, the impatient Socialists in Berlin were bombarding the Kaiser with telegrams, asking him if he was ready to abdicate, and if not, why not. After pondering the question over night, His Imperial Majesty, Kaiser Wilhelm II—the same Kaiser who aspired to world conquest only a few months before—elected to run away like a coward, instead of facing the situation as an emperor and as a man.

On Sunday, November 9th, two days before the Armistice was signed, the Emperor of Germany in uniform was conveyed across the Belgian frontier into Holland, finding asylum in the Castle of Count Bentinck at Amerongen. His ignominious flight aroused the derision of both hemispheres. On the same day Prince Maximilian announced that the Kaiser had "decided to renounce the throne."

### **Revolutionists in Control**

THE Revolution spread with astonishing rapidity throughout Germany. In a single week the hitherto docile German people seemed to have burst the fetters of Kaiserism. All the German battleships were seized by the revolutionists; trains bound for the front were stopped and the soldiers on board were disarmed; the garrisons in the various cities were automatically placed under Soviet rule; the Krupp works were closed and the workmen dismissed.

By November 10th, Berlin was in control of the revolutionists, with Friedrich Ebert, a Socialist acting as Chancellor; the red flag was floating over the royal palace; Karl Liebknecht, the Socialist, was snoring nightly in the Kaiser's sumptuous bed, and a Workmen's and Soldiers' Council was administering the Municipal Government. The great Gen. Hindenberg had placed himself and the entire German Army at the disposal of the People's Government "in order to avoid chaos." Fourteen of the twenty-six states of Germany, including all four kingdoms, were in the hands of the revolutionists.

### **Fall of Lesser Rulers of Germany**

ONE by one, like a row of falling dominoes, the petty little kingly, ducal and princely



houses of Germany were toppled over. The first monarchs to go were King Friedrich August of Saxony, who was dethroned, and the Duke of Brunswick, the Grand Duke of Oldenburg and the Grand Duke of Mecklenburg-Schwerin who abdicated, all on November 10th. In rapid succession these other petty rulers renounced their opera-bouffe thrones: King Ludwig III of Bavaria, King Wilhelm II of Wurttemberg, Grand Dukes Friedrich of Baden, Wilhelm Ernst of Weimar and Adolf of Mecklenburg-Strelitz, Dukes Charles Edward of Saxe-Coburg-Gotha, Edward of Arnhalt, Ernest II of Saxe-Oldenburg, and Bernard of Saxe-Meiningen, Princes Leopold IV of Lippe, Heinrich XXVII of Reuss, Friedrich of Waldeck, Adolf of Schaumburg-Lippe and Guenther of Schwartzburg-Rudolstadt.

### Rival Socialist Factions Compete for Power

THE ascendancy in the new government was gained by the more moderate Socialists, the power being at first lodged in the hands of a triumvirate of Socialists named Ebert, Schiedman and Lundsberg. Karl Liebknecht, who championed the extreme Socialist cause, seemed to have but a small following. The Army, though radical, was opposed to Bolshevism. The entire Northern German Fleet and the island base of Heligoland were in the hands of the Soldiers' Councils, and a Soldiers' Council had been formed at the battle-front which dictated the policies of Gen. Hindenberg himself. One week after the Revolution began, all Germany seemed amenable to Socialist control.

On the surface, tranquility prevailed, but underneath the surface, revolutionized Germany was in a state of ferment. Violent controversies and feuds broke out among the Socialistic leaders, and rival factions arose to compete for power. A cabinet of six "moderate" Socialists, headed by Eberts and Haas, and styling themselves the People's Commissioners, proclaimed the German Republic and assumed to exercise supreme authority.

The extreme Socialists, whose spokesmen were Karl Liebknecht and Rosa Luxemburg, organized the "Spartacans" party, and openly preached anarchy. These and other

factions were soon to learn that the real authority in Germany was lodged in the executive committee of the Soldiers' and Workmen's Council, who had planned a Soviet Government, modeled on Russian Bolshevist lines.

On November 25th, an agreement was reached between Ebert's government and the Soldiers' and Workmen's Council, whereby the supreme power of the German Socialist Republic was to be vested in the latter and to be exercised through its executive committee. A National Council of Deputies from the Councils of all the German states was summoned at Berlin on December 16th, and it was tentatively agreed to hold a general election on February 16, 1919, for delegates to a Constituent Assembly which should determine the permanent future government of Germany.

### Kaiser Wilhelm Abdicates His Throne

ON November 28, 1918, Emperor Wilhelm of Germany forever renounced his rights to the crown of Prussia and the rights to the German Imperial Crown, at the same time releasing all officials and officers from their oaths of fealty. He urged these absolved officials, "until such time as a new organization of the German Empire exists," to aid those who effectively held the power in Germany "to protect the German people against the menacing dangers of anarchy, famine and foreign dominion."

Crown Prince Frederick, who had been interned on the Island of Wieringen, Holland, renounced his rights to the Prussian and German thrones on December 1st.

The Revolutionary Government treated the deposed Emperor with high consideration. He was permitted to retain his private fortune in cash, amounting to \$5,000,000 and all his private landed properties, which included 83 estates and castles, worth many millions. His wife, Augusta Victoria, joined her husband at Amarongen castle on November 28th.

### Bavaria and Baden Secede from the Empire

THE disintegration of the German Empire began to set in on November 7th, when a "Republic" was proclaimed at Munich and a decree passed deposing the reigning dynasty.



In December following, Kurt Eisner, who had served as Bavarian Prime Minister ever since the deposition of the dynasty, gave notice of a complete breach of relations with Prussia and Germany, "owing to the efforts of Berlin to deceive the people by withholding the truth about conditions."

The liberal party of Baden likewise issued a proclamation demanding a complete separation from Prussia and from the German Government.

### **Republics Set Up in Rhineland and Brunswick**

THE first "Republics" set up on the ruins of the German Empire were those of Rhenish Westphalia and Brunswick. Early in December, 1918, at a mass meeting held in Cologne, a resolution was unanimously adopted by 5,000 citizens favoring "the construction of a new German state composed of the Rhineland and Westphalia."

### **The "Counter-Revolution"**

A COUNTER-REVOLUTION broke out in Berlin on December 24th. In a riotous demonstration, sailors from the Fleet, accompanied by mutinous soldiers, assaulted the Castle with machine guns and rifles, shattering the heavy castle doors on the east side and the balcony from which the Kaiser had so often addressed the Berlin people. The revolutionists then seized the royal stables and for two hours dominated the Bruderstrasse and parts of the Breitestrasse. The "revolution" was nipped in the bud by the Guard Cuirassiers, who arrived on the scene with field guns. After 64 of their number had been killed, the mutineers surrendered. During this affray, the interior of the palace suffered much damage.

### **Austrian Emperor Also Abdicates**

EMPEROR KARL of Austria-Hungary also abdicated his throne on November 12th, but unlike the craven Emperor of Germany, he did not run away like a mongrel dog. Manfully accepting the inevitable, he bowed his head to the people's will and withdrew with his family to a residence a few miles outside of Vienna. From the moment of his accession to the throne of the Hapsburgs, during the War, Emperor Karl had earnestly striven

for peace, but the destinies of Austria were then swayed by the Emperor of Germany, and Karl went down in the common ruin. It was his fate to suffer for the sins of his father, the wicked Emperor Franz-Joseph, who, yielding to the persuasion of Emperor William, had imposed on little Serbia the harsh terms which resulted in Universal War. Some weeks later, Emperor Karl left Austria for Switzerland.

### **Austria-Hungary Divided Into Six Parts**

THE Austro-Hungarian Empire, successor to the Holy Roman Empire, which for centuries had been the dominant state of Europe, literally was wrenched apart after the defeat of the Austrian armies in Italy and Roumania in 1918. All of Polish Austria was seized by the Poles. Slavokia fell to the Czechs, who also seized those portions of Austria outside of Bohemia in which they claimed a preponderance of population.

The Roumanians, after the internment of Gen. Mackensen's army, occupied all of Transylvania and the eastern part of the Banat. Serbia seized Bosnia and Herzegovina, the western third of the Banat, and the three southern counties of Hungary lying north of the river Danube and Drave.

Italy occupied the "Redeemed Provinces" as far as the divide of the Tyrolese Alps and also portions of Carinthia and Carniola. The Kingdom of Hungary was seized by the Socialists and took on a republican form of government.

All that remained intact of Austria proper was a small state comprising less than 8,000,000 inhabitants. With the dissolution of the monarchy a provisional government, having a coalition cabinet, was established in October. Later a Constitutional Assembly was elected, and finally an Austrian Republic was set up. Pending negotiations of peace, Austria was technically occupied by the military forces of the Allies.

### **Hungarian Republic Seizes Big Estates**

AFTER the spontaneous dissolution of the Austro-Hungarian Empire in October, a Republic was proclaimed in Hungary and a coalition government organized, under Socialist auspices, with Count Karolyi, a mem-



ber of the old nobility, as President. This provisional government embraced in its membership Socialists of all degrees, Bourbons of the old aristocracy and at least two extreme radicals who were subsequently identified with Bela Kun's Bolshevist Government. Count Karolyi, as a conscientious radical, affected to desire the establishment of a truly democratic state within the borders of old Hungary. Through his efforts, the huge landed estates of the crown and of the nobles were taken over in the people's interests and subdivided into small tracts for sale to the peasants on easy terms. Karolyi proved his good faith by voluntarily relinquishing his own large estates to the Government.

Almost from the start, President Karolyi encountered the sinister opposition of the Bolsheviki who were bent on forcing a social revolution. The Bolsheviki succeeded in organizing Soldiers' and Workmen's Councils in Budapest and other large cities, but they failed in their efforts to organize Soviets among the peasants. Having acquired the landed estates of the crown and the nobility, the peasants were content and moderately prosperous. As yet the Russian chimera of Soviet rule held no attractions for them. Consequently the ceaseless efforts of the Bolsheviki to overthrow Karolyi's Government had ended invariably in failure.

All was not easy sailing, however, for Karolyi's ship of state. There were breakers ahead due to the proposed partitioning of Hungary. The Roumanians, Serbians, Czecho-Slovaks and even the Austrians had laid covetous eyes upon the fair lands of Hungary and sought from the Inter-Allied Peace Council permission to seize certain sections of that country. At the time of the Armistice, the Allied Army of Occupation had fixed provisional military boundaries in Central Europe, declaring them merely temporary and not ultimate boundaries. But the Hungarians feared they would be despoiled of their lands and their country reduced to the dimensions of a small agrarian state. President Karolyi, who had complete faith in the justice of the Allied Peace Conference at Paris, urged the Hungarian Government to have patience, trust in the Paris Conference and above all to withdraw all military

opposition to Roumania, Serbia and Czecho-Slovakia. Karolyi's opponents, especially the Bolsheviki, warned the people that their President's faith in the essential justice of the Entente Allies would not be justified; that the claims of the three Slavic nations to large portions of previous Hungarian territory would surely be recognized by the Allies and Hungary's degradation would be certain. So matters rested at the close of 1918. We shall see, in the review of 1919, how through a blunder of the Karolyi Government Bolshevism gained the ascendancy in Hungary. The story is told on Page 574.

### The Czecho-Slovak Republic

FIRST among the subject races of the fallen Austrian Empire to gain their freedom were the Czecho-Slovaks. As far back as May, 1917, a home-rule declaration was made in the Austrian Parliament in the name of the Czechs of Bohemia, and by the Poles, Czecho-Slovaks and Jugo-Slavs. The Slav leaders were immediately imprisoned, but on July 20, 1917, they were released by the young Emperor, Karl. A Constituent Assembly, comprising all the Czech Deputies in the Austrian Parliament, was held at Prague, on January 6, 1918, at which a resolution was adopted, demanding Bohemian independence. In February the various Czech Socialist groups in Bohemia united. On April 2, 1918, the Austrian Premier, Count Czernin, denounced the Czech leaders as "high traitors." Following a national Bohemian convention at Prague, on April 13, 1918, which was attended by 6,000 delegates, Premier Czernin resigned, the Parliament was adjourned and Emperor Karl threatened Bohemia with partition. On May 1, 1918, Czech demonstrations were made all over Bohemia and on May 17th the Czechs held a Congress at Prague, at which resolutions were adopted calling for "World Democracy, a real and sovereign National People's Government, and a Universal League of Nations, endowed with the necessary authority." The Austrian Government sought to stifle the movement by expelling the Czech leader, Dr. Karel Kramer, by suppressing the Czech newspapers and by arresting many of the leaders.



Meanwhile, back in December, 1917, Premier Clemenceau of France had authorized the organization of a Czecho-Slovak Army in Siberia. The Czecho-Slovak state was first officially recognized on April 23, 1918, by Premier Orlando of Italy. Great Britain recognized the Republic on August 3d, the United States on September 2d, and Japan on September 9th. A Declaration of Czecho-Slovak Independence was published at Paris, on October 18, 1918, the local government taken over in Prague, October 28th, and the Czecho-Slovak Republic was formally proclaimed on October 29th. The draft of the Constitution was completed at Geneva, Switzerland, on November 2d, when officers were elected, with Thomas G. Masaryk as President and Karel Kramer as Premier.

The Czecho-Slovak Republic, as first established, was composed of the former Austrian states of Bohemia, Moravia, part of Silesia and the district in Hungary known as Slovia. It has a population of about 13,000,000, and an area of 52,000 square miles. The form of government is democratic. Suffrage is universal, both men and women having the right to elect all officers in all departments of the Government. The Court system established by the Austrian Empire was taken over by the new Government. Separation of church and state was decreed. The vast majority of the population is Roman Catholic, with a small Protestant and Jewish minority. There is a complete system of popular and secondary education, with about 5,000 primary schools and 600 secondary schools, together with several universities. The Republic maintained three armies, in the last year of the War, one in France, one in Italy and a force of approximately 100,000 policing the Trans-Siberian Railroad at the request of the Allied governments.

### **Poland Regains Her Freedom**

THE ancient Kingdom of Poland, which had been conquered and partitioned by the rulers of Prussia, Russia and Austria in the period of 1772-1795, was happily restored in 1918, after the three great empires, which had held her in bondage for 140 years had themselves passed into oblivion. In 1916, when all three empires were fighting for

their existence and the aid of the Poles was greatly desired, Czar Nicholas promised self-government to the Poles. Kaiser Wilhelm also held out glittering hopes to the subjugated nation. In November, 1916, the Russian Provisional Government appointed a Provisional Council of State for Poland, promising the restoration of that country on racial and geographical borders, with self-government. When the Germans overran Russian Poland they set up a Regency Council over the country in December, 1916. On September 12, 1917, the Germans granted Poland a temporary constitution. On April 5, 1918, a new cabinet was appointed, headed by M. Steozkowski.

On Armistice Day, November 11, 1918, the Germans still held one-half and the Austrians one-quarter of Poland, but the Teutonic armies were forced to withdraw out of the land, leaving the Polish people in possession of their ancient heritage. Even before the German withdrawal, a Polish Provisional Government was formed and its first concern was to organize a Polish Army, 500,000 strong, including many Poles from the United States, to combat the Bolsheviks. Gen. Pilsudski, an able leader, was chosen as temporary President, and Ignace Paderewski, the eminent pianist and composer, but lately returned from a concert tour of America, was named Prime Minister.

The Russian Bolshevik Government sent many agitators, with much gold, into Poland in the hope of corrupting the freed people, but they signally failed. The familiar Bolshevik plan of forming "Soldiers and Workmen's Councils," was not successful in Poland. Equally futile was the attempt to form peasant Soviets. Division and ownership of the land by the peasants already had been guaranteed by the Polish Provisional Government and the peasants were given a stated period of time in which to complete the very moderate payments that had been stipulated. Only among the Jewish refugees in Poland, numbering several millions, did the program of commission awaken enthusiasm. The real Poles, the noble Slavs, were true to their democratic ideals and to their church. As a last resort the Bolsheviks enlisted the aid of the Polish and Russian Jews to stir up



racial and religious antagonism, as an entering wedge for Bolshevism in Christian Poland, and to a degree this plan proved effective.

Late in 1918 a general election was held in Poland, resulting in the return of an Assembly representing all political factions and the formation of a coalition cabinet. This new Government is a republic modeled on French Government lines, the Cabinet being responsible to the Assembly. Its foremost figures were Gen. Pilsudski, a moderate Socialist, and Paderewski, representing the Nationalists, both ardent patriots who had labored unceasingly for Polish freedom. The Jewish Bolsheviki and other radicals tried every possible ruse to produce a breach in the Government, but without success.

Meanwhile the Polish Army, with its large contingent of American Poles, was waging continuous active warfare against four foes—Germany to the West, the Baltic states to the North, Soviet Russia to the East, and the Ukraine to the Southeast. Time and again the Poles appealed to the Allied Council at Paris for assistance in their struggle against the numerous foes that beset them on all sides, but without avail. Despite the fact that Germany, with its Baltic associates had an army of 600,000 on the Polish front, the Allied War Council could not agree upon a plan to aid poor Poland.

Nevertheless, at the close of 1918, the Poles had been able to defend themselves successfully against their myriad powerful enemies. Better still, they had not capitulated to the Bolsheviki.

WESTERN THEATER, NOV. 11—DEC. 16

## Victorious Allies Enter Germany, Seize All Cities on the Rhine

Recovery of Alsace-Lorraine by France an Occasion of Great Rejoicing  
American Forces Occupy Coblenz—German Army Warmly Welcomed in Berlin

SECTION 34—1918

### Total Allied Forces, 6,000,000

Marshal Foch, Generalissimo

Ten French Armies, 2,500,000

Gen. Petain, Commander

Five British Armies, 1,500,000

Gen. Haig, Commander

Three American Armies, 1,338,169

Gen. Pershing, Commander

Two Belgian Armies, 300,000

King Albert, Commander

One Italian Army, 300,000

Gen. Diaz, Commander

### Allied Armies of Occupation

American, 470,000—Gen. J. T. Dickman

British, 350,000—Gen. Robertson

French, 550,000—Generals Mangin, Fayolle, Gouraud, Castelnau, and Hirschauer

Belgian, 300,000

### German Army of Retreat, 3,000,000

Gen. Groener, Commander

First Army Group—Gen von Below

Second Army Group—Gen von Hutier

Third Army Group—Gen. von Carlowitz

Fourth Army Group—Gen. von Marwitz

**T**HERE were 9,000,000 soldiers entrenched on the Western battlefronts when the Military Armistice was signed on November 11, 1918. Of these the Allies claimed 6,000,000, apportioned among 21 armies, and the Germans 3,000,000, represented by four great groups of armies, together with 150,000 horses.

According to the terms of the Armistice,

German troops were required to evacuate Belgium, France, Luxemburg and Alsace-Lorraine by November 25th; all the terrain west of the Rhine and a belt of land six miles wide on the east bank of the Rhine was to be vacated by December 11th; the bridgeheads at Cologne, Coblenz and Mainz, and the surrounding territory were also to be vacated on December 11th.



The Germans lost no time in evacuating all the invaded territory in France and Belgium. Their withdrawal into Germany was conducted by Gen. Groener, who had succeeded Ludendorff as Chief of Staff in the last days of the War.

### **The Armies of Occupation**

EIGHT Allied armies, with a total strength of 1,670,000 men, were selected to occupy the evacuated territory, but of these only 1,150,000 troops were to invade Germany and seize the bridgeheads on the Rhine. To this Army of Occupation, America contributed 470,000 men, with 250,000 assigned to the Rhine; France 550,000 men, with 400,000 to enter the Rhine zone; Britain 350,000 men, of whom 300,000 were to go to the Rhine, and Belgium 300,000, with 200,000 of these assigned to the Rhine.

The evacuation of Belgium and France by the German armies was hastily accomplished. So rapid was their withdrawal, that the Allied armies, ten days after the Armistice was signed, were enabled to reoccupy Brussels in Belgium, penetrate into Luxemburg and reach Saarbrücken and the line of the Rhine to the Swiss border. The Belgians meantime had advanced 50 miles, the French 40 and the British and Americans 30. Antwerp and Mulhouse were liberated on November 17th, Brussels on November 22d and Strassburg on November 23d. The liberated peoples everywhere were delirious with joy.

### **3d American Army Begins March to Rhine**

THE American Army of Occupation, designated as the Third Army, and placed under the direct command of Major-General John T. Dickman, began its march to the Rhine on Sunday morning, November 17th, advancing on a 50-mile front. Gen. J. J. Pershing, the Commander-in-Chief, accompanied the Army part way on its journey.

The precaution was taken to dispatch engineers in advance of the Yankee troops to inspect bridges and roads, search for mines, bombs and traps of every description, and examine wells and streams for traces of poison and disease. The path of this army lay through Lorraine.

Montmedy, an important town in the Brie iron region, went wild with joy when the

5th Regiment of American Marines, heroes of Chateau Thierry, swung into the central square singing "Hail, Hail, the Gang's All Here." The Stars and Stripes waved over the town hall as the Yankees entered Montmedy, and everywhere the tricolor of France floated from flagstaves.

East of Verdun, it was necessary to demolish the barriers which guarded the old German front before passage was possible. Every three feet or more, on this front, huge pillars of reinforced concrete arose, connected with two-inch cables. Dynamite blasts disposed of these pillars. Later, the Yankee troops worked in relays wrecking another "Chinese wall," consisting of huge steel rails, rising five feet high above ground and sunk in concrete foundations six feet deep. Subsequently, barriers of tanks were encountered at Mars-la-Tour and barriers of logs chained together were found at Etain. All these were duly demolished.

As they approached the German border, the Yankee soldiers met an endless stream of released prisoners and civilians returning from Germany. The whole countryside was found dotted with derelict guns and transports abandoned by the Germans in their flight. When Pershing's Army halted on the Longwy-Briey line they had completed the first leg of their march to the Rhine.

### **Briey Mines are Demolished**

PROOFS of vandalism were everywhere visible in the Briey Valley as the Americans passed through. The Germans had systematically dismantled the coal and steel plants. After shipping the more prized pieces of machinery to Germany, the vandals had demolished the blast furnaces, steam engines, boilers, tools, gearings and electric lighting fixtures not connected with the actual working of the mines. For three years the mines had been worked to their full limit by the forced labor of 15,000 prisoners, who were driven to the last ounce of their energy by their merciless German task masters. In the last year of the War the Germans had concentrated there some 500 heavy guns and 7,000 machine guns for defence.



### **American Army Enters Luxemburg**

THE advance of Gen. Pershing's army into both Lorraine and the Duchy of Luxemburg was in the nature of a triumphal procession; through villages filled with cheering people, down streets afflutter with American flags. Gen. Pershing entered the city of Luxemburg on November 21st at the head of his troops, amidst the joyous acclaim of the populace, the screeching of sirens and the ringing of church bells. School children presented each soldier with a chrysanthemum and tossed flowers in their pathway. A parade of Luxemburgers lent eclat to the occasion. From the balcony of the ducal palace, Gen. Pershing and the Grand Duchess of Luxemburg reviewed the troops as they passed. Everywhere the streets and squares were filled with cheering crowds.

### **Americans Occupy Treves in Germany**

FROM Luxemburg, the German frontier was crossed at several places by details of Gen. Pershing's army on November 23d, the Signal Corps and the ambulance units being first to set foot on the soil of the Rhineland. The front lines of the American Army now rested on the line of the Sauer and Moselle Rivers.

On December 1st, the American Army crossed the Sauer and Moselle and entered Germany, spreading out on a front of 60 miles. Treves, which had been chosen as Gen. Pershing's advance headquarters, was the first important Rhine city occupied. The populace showed no signs of hostility, merely preserving a sullen silence. The whole vicinage, in truth, seemed wrapped in depression. German burghers stood stolidly in their doorways, watching the Yankee soldiers pass, without uttering a word. If they betrayed any emotion, it was one of fear. No trace of a German Army in force was seen and there was no clash between the soldiers and civilians.

### **Coblenz Under American Control**

ON December 2d, the American troops resumed their march toward the Rhine. It was arranged that having crossed the Rhine, they would occupy a sector some 60 miles long, forming an arc of a circle, having Coblenz as

its pivot. Units of the American forces were immediately entrained for Coblenz. This important city passed under complete American military control on December 8th, the municipal authorities co-operating. American sentries were posted at the western ends of the four bridges that here cross the Rhine, the eastern ends being guarded by German soldiers. Across the Rhine, on the rocky promontory that rose 400 feet above the river, stood the historic castle of Ehrenbreitstein. Several regiments of German soldiers were still quartered there. This great fortress was occupied by Yankee soldiers on December 10th.

With Old Glory waving and bands playing, three American divisions, the First, Second and Thirty-Second, crossed the Rhine on December 13th. Three days later the American Army reached its final objective on an arc of 20 miles radius from the Coblenz bridgehead. The entire Third Corps, and the 1st, 2d and 32d Divisions, were stationed on the east side of the Rhine, while the Fourth and Seventh Corps remained on the west bank. The Second American Army was meanwhile established at Luxemburg.

In less than a month the American forces had advanced 200 miles, occupying 5,000 square miles of German territory, having a population of one million.

Three French divisions shared the southern part of the Coblenz sector with the Americans, while one American division, the 3d Regulars, took over part of the French bridgehead at Mainz.

The sullen demeanor of the German populace now gave way to one of fawning. Everything possible was done to propitiate the Americans, evidently in the hope of inducing a forgetfulness of German barbarism. Gen. Dickman, however, refused to countenance this fraternization of Americans and Huns. The Yankee soldiers were strictly enjoined to have no further social intercourse with the Germans.

A code for the government of the inhabitants of all regions in Germany occupied by Americans was issued on December 22d by Gen. Pershing. Sales of firearms in Coblenz were prohibited; stringent regulations were made preventing the sale of intoxicants by



civilians to American soldiers; all theaters and cafes were compelled to close at 11 o'clock at night; public buildings were utilized as headquarters, but hotels and private homes were used as billets.

### **British Army Crosses the Rhine**

WHILE the Americans were marching toward Coblenz, the British and Belgian Armies of Occupation were advancing Rhineward, through the same gap which the armies of von Kluck and von Buelow had used in their first invasion of Belgium.

Their course, from Malmedy through Montjole to Duren, led the Britishers over steep hills covered with fir forests, along edges of deep ravines and through the dark, mysterious depths of the forest of Duren. The British, on December 9th, crossed the Rhine at Cologne, and by the 14th had taken possession of the bridgehead at that place.

### **Belgian Retribution Visited on the Huns**

DERISIVE retribution was visited upon the Germans at Aix-la-Chapelle, when the Belgian Army of Occupation published an order requiring all German civilians to step off the sidewalks and doff their hats as Belgian officers approached. Shocked beyond measure, the Germans at Aix noisily protested to the Armistice Commission, but they subsided into silence when told that the new Belgian rules were identical with those which the Germans had imposed upon the Belgians after Brussels had been occupied in 1914. The Belgians, however, did not intend to maintain the rules they had posted in derision in Aix-la-Chapelle. Having taught the Huns a needed lesson, they withdrew the order and the humiliation of the Huns was at an end.

### **French Armies Recover the "Lost Provinces"**

THE reoccupation of Alsace-Lorraine by the French armies was attended by jubilant demonstrations on the part of the populace. The entrance of Gen. Petain into Metz, of Castelnau into Colmar, of Fayolle and Gouraud into Strassburg and of Hirschauer into Mulhouse formed ceremonies marking the restitution to France of her "lost provinces" and necessarily military in character.

When Gen. Petain made his triumphal entry into Metz on November 18th, mounted on a fine white charger and attended by his entire staff with a few American and British officers attached, a shout went up that drowned the whirr of the many airplanes flying overhead.

French flags fluttered from the forts crowning the circle of hills above the city; crowds surged forward, breaking the line of guards, to get a glimpse of the great commander; young girls and children appeared wearing the ancient Lorraine costume, with its frilled headdress and bright petticoats; German soldiers in uniform walked arm in arm with French poilus, and joy was everywhere.

Metz, on December 8th, had another jubilant day when its governor received President Poincare, Premier Clemenceau, Marshall Joffre, Gen. Haig and Gen. Pershing. On this occasion, Gen. Petain was presented with his baton as a Marshal of France. During the review, American troops had the honor of leading the line, to the strains of the Star Spangled Banner.

Strassburg opened its arms to Marshal Petain and the flower of the Army of France a few days later, General Castelnau, Fayolle and Gouraud participating in the triumph. Crowds cheered the poilus to the echo all along the route of parade. After the military review, Alsatian societies paraded the streets up until a late hour, singing their patriotic songs. On December 9th, Strassburg welcomed President Poincare and Premier Clemenceau. Gen. Pershing and Ambassador Sharp were there and received cries of "Vive l'Amerique."

### **French Occupy Mainz**

THE entry of the armies of France into Mainz on December 14th completed the invasion of Germany by the Allies. It was one of the most memorable ceremonies of the occupation. Here the resentment of the populace was shown as in no other German city that had been occupied. Many of the homes were tightly closed, and few of the male citizens appeared on the streets. Generals Mangin and Fayolle met the local authorities at the Grand Ducal Palace, after the review, and



assured them that, however natural reprisals might appear, Germans had nothing to fear so long as they accepted the French occupation in a proper spirit.

### The Whole Rhine Front Occupied

THE Germans had surrendered the whole of their principal waterway, their sacred Rhine, without a murmur. Their long "watch on the Rhine" had been interrupted at last. The Allied forces occupied its west bank from Switzerland to Holland, while other Rhine territory on the east bank had become for the time neutral. Treves, Coblenz, Aix-la-Chapelle, Cologne and Mainz were in possession of Entente garrisons; Alsace-Lorraine had been lost, and Prussian Poland was destined to pass to other hands.

### Berlin Welcomes the Whipped German Army

BERLIN, then in the control of the Socialist Government, extended a noisy welcome to the defeated German Army on its return, December 11th. Millions thronged the streets. Day after day, for a week, as the welcome continued, President Ebert mounted a rostrum and addressed the home-coming men, who were arriving at the rate of 10,000 a day. Regimental flags were crowned with laurel wreaths and even the guns were covered with flowers. Dancing went on all night in 50 cabarets, while German profiteers—and there were many of them—sipped \$10 wine and moaned: "We are trying to forget!"

WESTERN THEATER, NOV. 21—DEC. 27

## Germany Surrenders 200 Warships to Allied Naval Forces

In One Week 129 Submarines Are Interned Off the Coast of Scotland

SECTION 35—1918

#### Allied Grand Fleet Commanders

Admiral Sir David Beatty, Commander-in-Chief  
Admiral Sims, American Squadron  
Admiral Rodney, American Squadron

#### German Fleet Commanders

Admiral von Reuter  
Commodore Togert  
Commodore Harder

THE most spectacular incident of the Armistice occurred in late November, 1918, when the Germans surrendered 200 vessels of war, including 9 battleships, 12 cruisers, 50 destroyers and 129 submarines. There remained to be surrendered, on a subsequent day, 50 torpedo destroyers and two battleships which were then undergoing repairs. With the surrender of these ships, Germany as a naval power ceased to exist. The extinction of Germany's Navy automatically raised the United States to second position among all the naval powers of the world.

### The First U-Boats Surrendered

THE internment of the enemy vessels was begun on November 20th, when the first flotilla of 20 German U-Boats was surrendered. At daybreak, a British squadron of five light cruisers and 20 destroyers, commanded by Admiral Tyrwhitt on the flagship Curacao, steamed out of the Harbor of

Harwich, England, and headed for the Dutch coast, where the U-boats were in waiting. High above the British vessels there soared a huge observation balloon. Approaching the Dutch coast, 20 German U-boats were discovered in line, accompanied by two German destroyers which were to take the submarine crews back to Germany after the transfer. No flags were flying from the German ships and their guns, in accordance with the terms of the surrender, were trained fore and aft.

A bugle sounded and the British crews took up their stations ready for any possible treachery. The leading destroyer, in response to a signal from Admiral Tyrwhitt, turned and led the way toward England, the submarines following. On reaching a point some 20 miles off Harwich, British crews were put on board the submarines to take them into harbor. With the exception of the engine staffs all the German sailors remained on deck. After the submarines had been taken through the gates of the harbor the



German crews were transferred to transports and sent back to Germany. Complete silence reigned as the submarines surrendered, orders having been issued forbidding any demonstration.

### German High Seas Fleet Interned Off Scotland

THE surrender of the German Battle-Fleet to the Allied navies off the Scottish coast, on November 21st, was an even more impressive spectacle. The Allied Armada, consisting of the British Grand Fleet, commanded by Admiral Sir David Beatty, an American squadron commanded by Admirals Sims and Rodney, and a French squadron, had steamed out from the Firth of Forth, at 1 o'clock on the morning of November 21st, moving in two long columns six miles apart.

Arrived at their rendezvous, 60 miles off the coast of Scotland, the fleet dropped anchor and awaited the arrival of the German vessels. Previously the British light cruiser Cardiff had been dispatched to the German base to pilot the German vessels to the Allied rendezvous.

The Cardiff, on approaching the German base, hoisted the signal, "Follow me," and the second greatest naval force in the world meekly trailed after the little British cruiser, which in turn took its course from an observation kite balloon. The German fleet consisted of 71 vessels, including nine dreadnaughts, five battle cruisers, seven light cruisers and 50 destroyers.

Steaming at the stipulated speed of ten knots an hour, and with their guns pointing fore and aft as ordered, the surrendered German fleet followed the little Cardiff through the gauntlet of Allied ships, stretching 14 miles east and west. In advance came the five great battle cruisers, Seydlitz, Derflinger, von der Tann, Hindenberg and

Moltke, moving along three cable lengths apart. Immediately following them were the nine German dreadnaughts—Friedrich der Grosse, Koenig Albert, Kaiser, Kronprinz Wilhelm, Kaiserin, Bayern, Markgraf, Prinz-regent, Luitpold and the Grosser Kurfuest. Three miles astern of these came the light cruisers, Karlsruhe, Frankfort, Burnberg, Emden Brummer, Koln and Bremen. Then, after another gap of three miles, came five columns of destroyers, ten abreast.

During the passage of the German vessels, the Allied gunners were at their posts, ready to open fire at the first sign of treachery. Over the surrendered ships circled a British dirigible, acting as eyes for the Allied Fleet.

When the last of the German ships had been penned up in the flanking columns, the Allied ships put about in squadrons, reformed their lines and escorted the captive vessels into the Scapa Flow, a landlocked bay in the Orkney Islands north of Scotland. Inspection parties from the British Fleet boarded the German ships to make sure that all the conditions of the Armistice had been observed. Some of the German crews were retained for maintenance work, but the remainder were returned to Germany.

Only one accident occurred during the whole proceeding. One of the German destroyers, while on its way across the North Sea, struck a mine and sank.

### 129 Submarines Interned

ANOTHER flotilla of German submarines surrendered on November 21st, and others on succeeding days until a total of 129 U-boats had been delivered into the keeping of Great Britain. It was the most complete ship surrender in all history and marked the destruction of that German naval power which only two years before had boasted that it controlled the seas.

GERMANY, DEC.

## Spartacists Launch Counter-Revolution with Poor Success

Liebkecht's Bolsheviks Attempt to Prevent Calling National Assembly

SECTION 36—1918

THE Spartacist or Bolshevik faction among the German Socialists, whose leaders were Liebknecht, Ledebour and Rosa Luxemburg, attempted, soon after the Armistice, to launch a counter-revolution. When the Central Congress of Delegates from the Soldiers' and Workmen's Councils met at Berlin on December 15th to discuss the date and place of holding the proposed National Assembly, President Richard Muller was interrupted, midway of his speech, by a radical Spartacist, who, after declaring that he represented 250,000 workmen then gathered outside the Palace, read a list of demands along Spartacan lines. These included the retention of all power by the Soldiers' and Workers' Councils, the organization of a Red Guard Army and a pledge that no National Assembly should be called.

These demands proved most unpopular. In the general uproar that followed, the intruder left the Chamber. It developed that he was the spokesman, not for 250,000 workmen, but for 7,000 temporary strikers who had been cajoled into accepting Liebknecht's leadership.

Later in the day, a resolution was presented, asking the Congress to invite Liebknecht and Rosa Luxemburg to attend "as advisors." This caused another great tumult and after 20 minutes of disorder the resolution was voted down by five to one. Liebknecht himself, at the moment, was addressing an immense crowd in the street from his perch on the roof of the Diet Building.

On the following day, government troops dissolved the Spartacists' Soldiers' and Workers' Council and removed Liebknecht's lieutenants from all the positions they occupied.

Elections to the National Assembly in the former Duchy of Anhalt, on the same day, resulted in a victory for the Majority Socialists, who polled 92,229 votes, against a total of 66,951 for the combined bourgeois groups.

The Spartacists failed to obtain a sufficient number of signatures to nominate.

At the second meeting of the Congress on December 17th, Ledebour attacked Commissioner Ebert and several speakers denounced the Government as being weak. On the third day of the Congress, another Liebknecht delegation, professing to represent 250,000 workers, forced its way into the Chamber on the threat of a general strike, and the same chaotic scenes were witnessed as on the first day.

Their leader demanded, first, that Germany should be constituted as one republic; second, that all power should be vested in the Soldiers' Workmen's Councils; third, that the highest executive power should be exercised by the Executive Council; fourth, the abolishment of the Council of People's Commissioners; fifth, measures for the protection of the Revolution; sixth, disarmament of the counter-revolutionists; seventh, arming of the proletariat; eighth, propaganda for the establishment of a Socialist World Republic. These demands were practically ignored by the Convention. Later in the day, another delegation of Spartacists sought to enter the hall, but were refused admittance.

At this session the Congress appointed a Central Council to exercise parliamentary supervision over German and Prussian cabinets and with the right to appoint and depose the People's Commissioners of all Germany, who were to be chosen from the Social Democratic Parties. The Congress rejected a resolution demanding the elimination of the bourgeois class from the Government. Great dissatisfaction with the Government's foreign policy was expressed, especially the rupture with Spain and the break in the relations with the Polish Government. Meanwhile, the strike movement in Berlin had greatly extended.

The Spartacans had plotted a coup de force for the session of the Congress on December



19th, hoping to prevent the fixing of a date for a National Assembly. Their plan was to pack the galleries, and, while the debate was in progress, open the doors to thousands of striking workmen who should then dissolve the Congress by force, as was done in Bolshevik Russia.

The delegates, in anticipation of such a move, had agreed to forego debate and take an immediate vote before the workmen should assemble for the proposed invasion. This was done, and by vote of 400 to 70, the Congress called a National Assembly for January 19, 1919.

A new Central Executive Committee was chosen, consisting of 27 soldiers and workmen, all Majority Socialists, thus eliminating Ledebour and Muller and enhancing the prestige of Ebert and Schiedemann. This committee was clothed with veto power and could eject obstreperous Cabinet members. The closing hours of the Congress were devoted to problems of Socialization, including approval of state control for such industries as were in shape for the experiment. Adjournment was taken on December 20th.

#### **"Friends of the People League" Formed**

IMMEDIATELY after the adjournment of Congress, a "Friends of the People League" was formed in Berlin, under the leadership of those Hohenzollern cat's-paws, Prince Maximilian, of Baden; Hugo Haas, Independent Socialist; Count von Bernstorff, former Ambassador to the United States; Matthias Erzberger, Centrist, and Dr. Solf a former Foreign Minister.

#### **Hindenberg's National Army Plan Adopted**

ON Christmas Day, 1918, the Government accepted Gen. von Hindenberg's plan to form a People's Guard or National Army. In his proclamation, Hindenberg referred to the "mighty achievements in war of the German Nation in arms, trained in warfare which did not collapse before a world of enemies." To the radicals he imputed the desire to destroy the German Army as a step toward the utter destruction of the national strength of the German people and the prevention of the reorganization of the German Empire on a sound political and economic basis.

#### **Beggary in Berlin**

CHRISTMAS DAY in Berlin, under the Revolution, presented a picture of unrelieved misery. The streets were filled with beggars and street vendors. Nearly 100,000 unemployed laborers tramped the streets. Crippled and invalid soldiers in great numbers either begged for money or peddled cigarettes, soap and sweetmeats brought in from west of the Rhine. New strikes had broken out in the Silesian coalfield, due to Spartacist agitation, and the supplies of fuel were so scarce that all Berlin was shivering.

#### **Revolt of the Sailors**

THE first clash between the Spartacists and the Ebert Government broke out in Berlin on the night of December 23d, when armed sailors who sympathized with the Liebknecht faction attacked the loyal Government troops. Victory at first rested with the Spartacan sailors, who took possession of the Royal Palace and the adjacent stables.

Early the next morning the Government troops attacked the Spartacists and before daylight regained possession of part of the Palace. Hearing that the Spartacists were to be reinforced by rescue parties, the Government troops drew up a number of field guns and shelled the Castle and the stables.

After a cannonade lasting a quarter of an hour, white flags were displayed from both buildings and a truce was called. The negotiations for a capitulation, however, were without result and the conflict was resumed. The sailors planted machine guns on the roofs of the stable, but these were quickly put out of action. An hour later, the rebellious sailors surrendered, after losing 64 men to 3 casualties among the Government troops.

In this emergency, with rumors of Spartacist plots filling the air, the Ebert Government decided to retain Field Marshal von Hindenberg and Gen. von Grover in their respective commands, at the same time dismissing Vice-Admiral Hipper, Vice-Admiral Bachmann and Captain Hinke. A compromise with the revolting sailors was arranged. On their agreement not to participate in any future revolt against the Government, they were permitted to remain in Berlin as part of the Republican Soldiers' Guard.



### Cabinet Resignation

As the year was drawing to a close, a political crisis developed in the Government. President Ebert warned the Central Council that it must take full responsibility for all measures to maintain law and order which the People's Commissioners should find necessary; otherwise the Majority Socialists

would not remain in the Government. This crisis culminated in the resignation of Haas, Barth and Dittman from the Cabinet. At the same time, rumors were current that the Spartacists were purchasing great supplies of machine guns with funds supplied from Bolshevik Russia. On December 31st, a Bolshevik republic was proclaimed in Silesia.

### EASTERN THEATER

## Many "Republics" Arise on the Ruins of the Russian Empire

Ukrainia, Lithuania, Poland, Czecho-Slavia, Jugo Slavia, Courland, Esthonia, Finland, Cis-Caucasia.

SECTION 37—1918

**W**HEN the vast Russian Empire, with its 51 provincial governments and its aggregate population of 185,000,000, finally disintegrated in 1917, the many oppressed nationalities comprised within the empire were prompt in the assertion of their independence.

Many of the liberative movements, especially those involving the Poles, the Czecho-Slavs and the Jugo-Slavs, were motivated on purest patriotism. Other abortive attempts at independence, like those of Ukrainia and the ephemeral governments proclaimed throughout Siberia, were in the interests primarily of the selfish owners of colossal estates who as lesser Czars wished to continue the oppression of the peasants without imperial interference. Finding themselves unable to coerce the peasants, these "patriots" invoked the aid of Germany.

Still other abortive governments, like the "People's Republics" that had their brief day before being extinguished were set up by the radicals, but these were foredoomed from the start.

Another group of governments arising from the ruins of the empire—of which Courland, Livonia and Esthonia are typical—were originally proclaimed by German diplomats in the interests of the German upper classes who had lived so long in those Baltic provinces as to be regarded in a sense as the real "rulers." A brief survey of the scenes attending the birth of these various governments may prove informative to the reader.

### Finland Sets Up Republic with German Aid

ONE of the first acts of the Russian Revolution was the restoration of autonomy to Finland. The Grand Duchy of Finland was proclaimed, March 21, 1917, to be a free and independent state in a Russian Federation. The manifesto revoked all laws that were contrary to the old constitution, freed all Finns who had been imprisoned or exiled for religious or political offenses, and promised the establishment of a Diet, or local legislature, with independent government.

Under the existing Finnish Constitution all authority was vested in the Emperor of Russia, who was also Grand Duke of Finland. This arrangement proving unsatisfactory, the Finnish Diet, on July 19, 1917, passed a bill giving Finland a government independent of Russia's authority. Thereupon the Russian Provisional Government, on August 3, 1917, ordered the dissolution of the Finnish Diet and the summoning of a new one on November 1, 1917.

The new Diet had been in session several days when Kerensky's Revolutionary Government in Russia was overthrown by the Bolsheviks, who, through the Government of the Soviets, declared the right of the Russian peoples to secede without waiting for the sanction of a Constituent Assembly.

A manifesto issued by the People's Commissaries, or Bolshevik Ministers, on November 23d, confirmed the right to freedom and self-determination on the part of the various nationalities in Russia, saying that



"this right of the Russian peoples to their self-determination is to be extended even as far as separation and the forming of independent states."

Finland, accordingly, on December 5, 1917, declared its own independence. On December 9th, the President of the Finnish Senate, by proclamation, declared that the Finnish Diet had assumed sovereign power and had instituted Finland as an independent republic. The declaration of independence was recognized by Sweden, France, Norway, Denmark and Germany and, finally, on January 9, 1918, by the Russian Provisional Government.

Socialist strike riots and civil war followed. The Red Guards, corresponding to the Bolsheviki, set up a government at Viborg, and the White Guards, organized by the pro-German landowners, set up a rival government at Vasa. On March 7, 1918, after invading Finland and occupying the Aland Islands, Germany signed a peace treaty with Finland. In co-operation with the White Guards the Germans took part in the civil war, occupying Helsingfors on April 13th and Viborg on April 30th.

### **Courland, Livonia and Esthonia Independent**

By favor of Germany, the adjoining provinces of Courland, Livonia and Esthonia, on the east shore of the Baltic Sea, were declared independent states early in 1918, under the terms of their treaty with Russia. Germany's motives were quite transparent. The ruling classes of these provinces were Germans, while the peasants were mostly Letts, Finns and Esthonians. Through her wealthy subjects in those provinces, Germany expected to rule all three eventually.

Courland, whose chief port is Libau, on the Gulf of Riga, is slightly larger than Maryland, and has a population of 812,000. It was once a part of Poland. The name Courland comes from the Kur race, who were Letts.

Livonia, with a population of 1,778,000, is about the size of Massachusetts and New Hampshire together. A century ago this province was known as "the corn granary of Europe." Peopled chiefly by Letts, it has been subject in turn to Poland, Sweden and

Russia. The German ruling class first entered Livonia in the 13th century.

Esthonia, known in the Middle Ages as Kolyvan and subsequently as Tallin and Reval, is about the size of New Jersey and has a population of half a million. The upper classes are German and the peasants are Finns and Esthonians.

### **The Lithuanian Republic Proclaimed**

LITHUANIA, in 1915, was overrun by the Germans, who refused to vacate the province when they made their treaties of peace with Russia and Roumania.

A Congress of Lithuanians, at Vilna, in January, 1918, proclaimed a Lithuanian Republic, reaffirming the independence declared first in 1905 and again in October, 1917. Two months later, on March 13, 1918, Lithuanians, in convention at New York City, proclaimed an independent Lithuanian Republic. This republic was recognized by Germany on March 23, 1918, and received the sanction of the Kaiser on May 12th. The organization of a Provisional Lithuanian Government proceeded in due time.

The Lithuanians, the Letts, and the Prussians are three branches of an ancient race of Asiatic origin and related to the Hittites, Tartars, Mongols, Vandals and Huns. Ever since their migration to the shores of the Baltic they have been continuously at war with the Slav races. In 1569, Lithuania was incorporated with the Kingdom of Poland, and after that country had been partitioned in the 18th century, the Lithuanians became subject to Russia.

For 40 years before the World War began, the Russians had placed a ban on the Lithuanian language in public places, including courts, railroad stations, schools and churches. In 1897, the German Emperor imposed a similar ban on the Lithuanians subject to his empire, but this was abandoned on May 7, 1904, after which the language spread to most of the Lithuanian schools of all grades. Lithuania has an estimate population of 7,000,000 and in area is larger than New Mexico.



### Czecho-Slovaks Gain Their Independence

THE Czechs of Bohemia and the Slovaks, both of Slavic origin, had been variously subjects of Russia, Austria, Prussia and Turkey for centuries, but they had never lost hope of eventually regaining their independence.

After the overthrow of the Russian Empire, a home-rule declaration was made in the Austrian Parliament on May 30, 1917, in the name of the Czechs of Bohemia, and by the Poles, Czecho-Slovaks and Jugo-Slavs. Their leader, Dr. Kramer, was then imprisoned, but he was released in July, 1917, by the young Austrian Emperor, Karl.

A Constituent Assembly of all Czech deputies in the Austrian Parliament was held at Prague on January 6, 1918, at which a resolution was adopted demanding Bohemian independence. A union of the various Czech Socialist groups in Bohemia was effected in the following month.

Count Czernin, the Premier of Austria-Hungary, denounced the Czech leaders in Parliament as "high traitors."

A National Bohemian Convention, held at Prague on April 13, 1918, and attended by 6,000 delegates, declared for independence, whereupon the Austrian Parliament adjourned, Premier Czernin resigned and Emperor Karl threatened Bohemia with partition.

Meanwhile, on April 8-10th, the movement for independence received fresh support at a Congress of Oppressed Nationalities held at Rome. On May 1st, Czech demonstrations were held all over Bohemia.

The Czechs of Bohemia, at Prague, on May 16th, held a second Congress of Oppressed Nationalities, which was attended by Slovenes, Croatians, Serbians, Bosnians, Italians, Bukovinians, Roumanians of Transylvania, Slovaks of Hungary, and Poles from Galicia, Silesia and Posen.

This Congress, on May 17th, adopted a resolution calling for "world democracy, a real and sovereign national people's government and a Universal League of Nations, endowed with the necessary authority." The Austrian Government arrested many of the delegates, expelled Dr. Kramer, and suppressed the revolutionary newspaper *Narodni*

*Listy*. But the aspirations for freedom of these various nationalities could not be suppressed. Hundreds of thousands of Czecho-Slovaks deserted from the Austrian Army to the armies of Russia and Italy and when the Armistice was signed they were assured of freedom under not one, but several, independent nations.

### The Jugo-Slavs Acquire Their Freedom

THE Jugo-Slavs ("Southern" Slavs), like their Czech brethren in the North, also sought to escape from the bondage alike of Austria-Hungary, Turkey and Russia. On April 8th a Jugo-Slav Congress of Oppressed Nationalities was held at Rome, Senator Ruffini presiding. There were delegates present from Italy, Poland, Roumania, Serbia and from National Committees of the Czechs and Jugo-Slavs.

The Congress unanimously adopted the general resolutions agreed upon between the various nationalities and the Italo-Jugo-Slav Convention in which they declared for separate national independence. The United States Government expressed its heartiest sympathy with the movement. After the Armistice the Jugo-Slavs were enabled to set up a separate government of their own.

### Poles Regain Their Ancient Kingdom

POLAND, a section of ancient Sarmatia, which, in the fifth century comprised all of Russia, from the Vistula to the Caspian Sea, was a Duchy in the sixth century and a powerful kingdom in 992. At the height of its power, the kingdom of Poland embraced a territory 700 miles square, and its kings were elected for life by a General Diet of the nobility.

After dominating a large part of Europe for seven centuries, the Kingdom of Poland was partitioned by Russia, Prussia and Austria between the years 1772 and 1795. Stanislaw II, the last King of Poland, abdicated in 1795, dying a state prisoner at St. Petersburg in 1798.

Two revolutions among the Poles were suppressed, one led by Kosciusko in 1794 and another in 1846-68. Russian Poland, by ukase, was put absolutely under Russian laws, in 1868, and the use of the Polish lan-



guage in public places prohibited. This prohibition was extended to the use of the Polish language in the law courts and other public offices in 1876. In 1885, more than 35,000 Poles were expelled from Prussia.

In November, 1916, the Russian Provisional Government appointed a Provisional Council of State for Poland and promised the restoration of that country on racial and geographical lines, with self-government. The Germans, meantime, had overrun all Russian Poland, and set up a Regency Council over the land in the December following.

In September, 1917, the German usurpers granted Poland a fictitious constitution. On April 5, 1918, a new Cabinet was formed, headed by M. Steozkowski.

All of the ancient kingdom of Poland was restored by the Peace Conference, following the Armistice, and steps were taken to establish a stable government. But from the outset, restored Poland was beset by enemies, including the Russian Bolsheviks, the German Army and the pro-German Ukrainians.

Ignace Paderewski, the famous pianist, as Premier, was the first to guide the helm of the Polish ship of state through the sea of troubles on which it entered.

### **The Ukrainian People's Republic**

UKRAINIA, that part of Southwest Russia extending southward from Lithuania to the Black Sea and eastward from Hungary to the Don Cossacks, with an estimated population of 30,000,000, was proclaimed free and independent by its Rada or Parliament on November 20, 1917, and formally recognized as such in a preliminary treaty of peace signed at the Conference at Brest-Litovsk on February 8, 1918.

The parties to the treaty were Germany, Austria-Hungary, Bulgaria and Turkey on the one hand, and the pro-German Ukrainian Parliament or Rada on the other. On April 29, 1918, at Kiev, the Congress of Ukrainian Peasants chose Gen. Skoropadski as hetman, or ruler.

The Bolshevik element, meanwhile, had parceled out the big estates of the Ukraine among the peasants and now sought to gain control of the Government. Civil war, with much bloodshed, ensued. By invitation of

the rich landowners holding seats in the Rada, a German Army invaded Ukrainia, ostensibly to put down the Bolsheviks but in reality to seize the wheat supplies and attach Ukrainia to Germany.

On May 2d, a German military dictatorship was set up in Ukrainia. A week later, a new pro-German Government was formed with Nicholas Oustemovitch as President. The Russian calendar was supplanted by the Gregorian calendar. Ukrainian was made the official language in courts, schools and government offices.

An uprising of the peasants followed and an army of 250,000 Germans was sent into Ukrainia to suppress them.

Following the Armistice, on November 22d, an all-Ukraine Government, composed of the General Staff of the Volunteers' Army, was formed at Ekaterinodar, with the object of re-establishing South Russia on a federated principle. On December 6th, Gen. Skoropadski, Hetman of the Ukraine, was put to death and the Unionist troops captured Kiev after a battle in which 10,000 men were killed.

### **Lesser "Governments" Formed**

Two separate, autonomous "Governments" were proclaimed in Siberia on July 10, 1918. One with headquarters at Novonikolaiefsk, on the River Ob, was declared to be radical in character, though anti-Bolshevist, and based on universal suffrage, with a Constituent Assembly representing all classes of the population.

The other, with headquarters at Harbin, was proclaimed by General Horvath, Vice-President of the Chinese Eastern Railroad, he posing as dictator.

### **Albania Declared Independent by Italians**

ALBANIA, a former province of Turkey lying on the eastern coast of the Adriatic Sea, which had been made an independent state after the Balkan Wars, was overrun by the Austro-German-Bulgarian forces in 1916 after the conquest of Serbia and Montenegro. Reconquered by the Italian forces on June 3, 1917, Albania was proclaimed an independent country under Italian protection.

**Bessarabia Unites with Roumania**

BESSARABIA, or Wallachia, as it was known in former times, united with Roumania in 1918 after the Peace of Bucharest. Its 1,500,000 inhabitants are mostly Roumanians. Turkey had separated this province from Moldavia in 1812 and given it to Russia, but after the Crimean War the provinces were reunited. In 1859, Moldavia and modern Wallachia united to form the Kingdom of Roumania. Russia once again acquired Bessarabia in 1878 after her war with Turkey, and held it in subjection until after the Socialists had overturned the Russian Empire in 1917.

**Cis-Caucasia Becomes an Independent State**

CIS-CAUCASIA, which includes the northern division of the vice-regency of the Caucasus, at the instigation of Germany and Turkey, in 1918, declared its independence from Russia, assuming the title of "The Union of the Independent State of the Mountaineers of the Caucasus." It constitutes exclusively the Russian Georgia and Armenia. Of its estimated 7,000,000 inhabitants, 3,000,000 are Georgians, 2,000,000 are Armenians and the remainder are Turko-Tartars, Russians, Jews, etc.

NEUTRAL EUROPE. NOV.—DEC.

**European Neutral Nations Face Political Crises After Armistice**

How Germany's Collapse Affected Holland, Scandinavia, Switzerland,  
Spain and Luxemburg

SECTION 38—1918

**A**LL those European nations that continued neutral during the World War were destined to face grave political crises immediately after the Armistice was signed. The German Revolution, following in the wake of Russian Bolshevik successes, had emboldened the Socialists to plot similar uprisings in Holland, Scandinavia, Switzerland, Spain and Luxemburg.

In Holland the Socialist leader, Troelstra, incited the masses to revolution, declaring that the time had come when they should take the affairs of government into their own hands, and set up a Soviet Republic governed by a Supreme Council of Soldiers and Workmen. The National Revolutionary Committee went a step further in advocacy of the abolition of royalty, renunciation of the state debt and other Bolshevik innovations.

Renewing his appeal for revolution, Troelstra declared that Queen Wilhelmina could not rely upon the Army to suppress the Social Democrats because the Army consisted of workers who had been treated "so abominably" by the wealthy classes that they were imbued with a vast hatred for their masters. Nor could the Government, he averred, place dependence on the police force,

in any attempt to overawe the Social Democrats.

Another revolutionary Socialist, after demanding the immediate abdication of Queen Wilhelmina, urged a general strike of the workingmen of the country. He also advised all demobilized troops to refuse to surrender their arms until they were assured of food supplies for themselves and their families.

Queen Wilhelmina, in a proclamation addressed to the people, asked their co-operation during the grave crisis, declaring that a radical minority was threatening to seize power in the state and announcing her intention to maintain authority and keep order. Energetic steps were taken to suppress the Socialist outbreak. Troops of cavalry were quickly assembled at Amsterdam and The Hague, all public buildings were guarded by soldiers and Bolshevik gatherings were dispersed.

The people rallied to the support of Queen Wilhelmina. An immense crowd assembled on November 18th, on the parade grounds at The Hague to pay homage to the queen and her husband, the German Prince Henry. The Socialists had arranged for a rival gathering at The Hague the same day, but the masses of the people would have naught to do with



them. Instead, the Hollanders generally wore the orange rosette of royalty. The failure of the Socialist meeting marked the collapse of the "Revolution" in Holland. Social disturbances predicted to take place in January failed to materialize, although it was said that 4,000,000 gulden had been sent into Holland for Bolshevik propaganda.

### **Bolshevist Plot to Seize Switzerland**

THE Government of Switzerland, on November 9th, two days before the Armistice was signed, had announced its intention of breaking off all relations with the Russian Soviet Government because of Bolshevik attempts to spread revolutionary propaganda throughout Switzerland. Immediately after the Armistice, these Bolshevik agents in Switzerland brought about a general strike of employees in public utilities work. A tie-up for three days resulted. It had been the expectation of the Russian and German Bolshevik agents that a bloody revolution, if started in Switzerland, might be extended into Italy and France. Due to the alertness of the Swiss Government, the plot was foiled. The Government despatched the First Division, composed of French-speaking Swiss soldiers exclusively, to the German-speaking cities of Berne, Zurich and Basle, where order was promptly restored. The Swiss Army, commanded by Gen. Ulrich Wille, after restoring order, was demobilized.

### **Sweeping Reforms in Sweden**

CONCURRENTLY with the German revolution, the Socialist elements in Sweden perfected their plans for the overthrow of the monarchy and the establishment of a Soviet state, modeled on the Russian Bolshevik lines. Manifestos were issued in various cities calling for the organizing of Soldiers' and Workmen's Councils. The Government, by making concessions to the wage earners, nipped this Bolshevik plot in the bud. Democratic reforms were immediately announced. The franchise was extended to both sexes on equal terms and the power to declare war and control foreign affairs was invested in the hands of the Parliament. These concessions so pleased the people that they pledged their loyalty anew, giving the Bolsheviks no

further encouragement. Thenceforward, Sweden occupied herself in contesting with Finland for possession of the Aland Islands, which are peopled largely with Swedes.

### **Denmark Wants Northern Schleswig Returned**

THE fall of the Kaiser, and his subsequent flight, was the signal for a noisy Socialist demonstration in neutral Denmark, led by radicals who thought to overturn the Government. They made but little headway, and Denmark soon busied itself with the redress of its national grievances. Denmark, 50 years before, had been despoiled of the provinces of Schleswig-Holstein. Since then, much of this territory had become Germanized, but Northern Schleswig is Danish in language, in culture and in sympathies and has through more than 50 years fought unceasingly for its Danish nationality and its Danish mother tongue. The Danes therefore asked that the Northern Schleswigers be given an opportunity to determine their future nationality through a plebiscite, a prayer that was granted through the efforts of President Wilson.

### **Norway Holds Aloof**

THE radical Revolution in Germany failed to bring any strong reaction in Norway, which had been strongly sympathetic to the Allied cause throughout the period of the War and had no great industrial hives in which Bolshevism might find a breeding place. Nevertheless, the Socialists in the cities so endeavored to gerrymander the election districts as to gain the ascendancy over the agrarian element which preponderates in Norway. This stealthy move did not succeed. Thenceforward, Norway busied herself in seeking indemnity from Germany for her heavy loss of ships through submarine operations and from the United States for the 400,000 tons of Norwegian ships which our Government requisitioned during the War. The subsidence of radicalism in Norway was shown in the autumn elections for the Parliament, resulting in the loss of 22 Socialist seats and a gain of 29 seats for the Conservatives.



### Separatist Movement in Spain

THE Spanish King, Alfonso, and the majority of the Spanish people, were staunch friends of the Allies, but the Spanish Cabinet was so awed by the majesty of Kaiser Wilhelm as to feel that a neutral policy during the World War was the wisest course to pursue. Spain, therefore, slumbered during the World War. With the fall of the German Empire, however, Spain awoke at last and took notice, especially of the proposal to establish a League of Nations. King Alfonso congratulated President Poincaré with all his heart, on having reached the end of "this glorious epic of the French Army and nation which have shown us all what bravery and patriotism mean."

The Reformist party swept the old Spanish Cabinet out of office on November 17th and urged many measures of reform. These included compulsory universal military service, autonomy for any province which demands it, making the King responsible to the Ministers, and giving the Parliament power to pass a bill over the King's veto. Diplomatic relations with Bolshevik Russia and with Germany were severed. Political unrest was seen in the revival of the movement for a separate government for Catalonia. The deputies from that district withdrew from Parliament and Catalonia no longer recognized the authority of Madrid. In retaliation the rest of Spain began a boycott of Catalonia.

### Overturn in Luxemburg

AFTER the Armistice, the Grand Duchy of Luxemburg was the scene of bloodless revolution. Angered by the announced purpose of their ruler, the Grand Duchess Marie Adelaide, to marry a German nobleman and thus Germanize their fatherland, the people surrounded the palace, shouting "Abdicate! Abdicate!" Grand Duchess Marie promptly abdicated in favor of her younger sister, Charlotte, and fled into Switzerland.

The people had intended to overturn the Grand Duchy and set up a republic in its stead, but through external opposition the complete revolution miscarried.

The Luxemburgers accused the French Army of Occupation under Gen. de la Tour, and even the American forces under Gen. Pershing, with having prevented the overturn of the monarchy, but these libels were indignantly denied.

Grand Duchess Charlotte, on her assumption of power, sent an appeal to President Wilson, urging him to defend the rights of Luxemburg as an independent state in the Peace Conference. The Luxemburg Chamber, meantime, had adopted a motion asking that Luxemburg's form of government be decided by referendum vote. A Socialist motion, demanding the immediate abdication of the new Grand Duchess, was rejected. Subsequently, both Belgium and France sought to gain possession of Luxemburg by plebiscites, but the Peace Congress gave neither nation any encouragement in their purpose.

ALL OCEANS, JAN.—DEC.

## American Fleet Checks the Activities of German Submarines

British Block the Harbors at Zeebrugge and Ostend

Germans Sink Hospital Ships—United States Transports Torpedoed

SECTION 39—1918

**D**URING the critical period preceding America's entrance into the War, the German submarines had been destroying ships of all the Allied and neutral nations twice as fast as the world's shipyards were building them.

From both enemy action and marine risk, down to January 1, 1918, Allied and neutral

shipping had lost since the War began 11,827,752 gross tons, while the total output of their shipyards, in the same period was 6,606,275 tons. The maximum of losses had been reached in the second quarter of 1917, just when America was preparing to deal the death blow to Imperial Germany, the losses being 2,236,934 gross tons of ships.



Thanks to the American Navy and the anti-submarine devices of our inventors, the German submarine menace was almost immediately curbed. So relentless was the American pursuit of the German submarines that the ship losses in the last quarter of 1917 were reduced 50 per cent, the total tonnage lost being only 272,843. At the same time, the output of the American shipyards was enormously increased. Over 200 German U-boats were destroyed.

The German naval activities in 1918 began with the bombardment, on January 14th, of the port of Yarmouth, England, five civilians being killed and eight injured.

A British squadron on January 20th engaged a Turkish squadron at the entrance to the Dardanelles. The Turkish cruiser Midullu, formerly the German cruiser Breslau, was sunk and the battle cruiser Sultan Selim, formerly the German cruiser Goeben, was damaged and beached. Two British monitors were also sunk. A week later a British submarine was sunk while attempting to enter the Dardanelles.

The British armed boarding steamer Louvain was sunk in the Mediterranean on January 21st with a loss of 224 lives.

On January 27th, the Cunard liner Ardanian was attacked and sunk when off the Irish coast. The passengers were saved.

German destroyers in the straits of Dover, on February 15th, sank eight British boats.

The German cruiser Wolf returned to Kiel, February 24th, completing a commerce raiding trip in the Atlantic, Pacific, and Indian oceans.

On March 19th, the German raider Alexander Agassiz was seized.

The Celtic was torpedoed off the Irish Coast on April 1st, but reached port in safety.

The German transport Frankland was destroyed by a mine near Noorland on March 22d, Admiral von Meyrir being killed by the explosion.

Ten German trawlers were sunk in the Kattegat on April 15th.

#### **American Transports Sunk**

THE American transport Tuscania, carrying 2,401 soldiers to France, was attacked off the Irish coast on February 6th. While the

boats were being launched, 166 passengers were drowned. The survivors were landed at Larne, Ireland.

The British mercantile cruiser, Moldavia, carrying American troops to Europe, was torpedoed without warning on the night of May 25th and 50 Americans soldiers were killed by the explosion which resulted.

The American transport President Lincoln, a former German vessel, returning from Europe to the United States, bringing wounded men home, was torpedoed in broad daylight on May 25th. Several members of the crew were lost, but all the wounded were saved.

On April 11th, the American steamship Lake Moor, manned by Naval Reserves, was sunk in European waters with a loss of 44 men and officers.

On October 6th, the United States transport Ticonderoga was sunk and 243 lives were lost.

The Japanese transport Hirando was sunk in October, in the Mediterranean, with a loss of 300 lives.

The British mail boat Leinster was sunk in October with a loss of 481 lives.

#### **Vessels Sunk Off American Coast**

FOURTEEN other American vessels were sunk late in May off the North Atlantic Coast by German submarines, with a loss of 58 lives. These included the liner Carolina, the tanker Herbert L. Pratt, the steamship Winneconnie and nine schooners. All these vessels were sunk by a U-boat which had been lurking for days in the path of shipping off the Jersey coast and the Delaware Capes. The crew of the Carolina alone perished, all other rescued Americans being landed at Atlantic ports.

#### **Hospital Ship Sunk with 234 Lives**

THE British hospital ship Landover Castle, bound from a Canadian port for England, was sunk without warning by a submarine seventy miles off the Irish coast on the night of June 27th, and of the 258 persons on board only 24 were saved.

The hospital ships Dover Castle and Rewa were also torpedoed at night, one in the British Channel, the other in Bristol Channel.

The Glenart Castle, serving as a hospital



ship, was sunk in Bristol Channel on February 26th, and 153 lives were lost.

### Italians Sink Austrian Warships

ITALIAN Naval units, on May 14th, carried out a daring raid on the Austrian Naval base in Pola Harbor. The Italian craft, after penetrating through a line of guardships, a chain of mines and a heavy steel net strung from shore to shore, sank a battleship of the superdreadnought type. In June, two tiny Italian motor boats crept up alongside the Austrian dreadnought *Szent Istvan*, off the Dalmatian Coast, and sank her with torpedoes. The last remaining first-class Austrian battleship, the *Virtus Unitis*, was sunk in October by Italian destroyers.

### U. S. Cruiser San Diego Sunk by a Mine

THE United States cruiser, *San Diego*, struck a mine and sank off Fire Island on July 19th, with a loss of 48 seamen, chiefly firemen.

Depredations of U-boats off Cape Cod were reported in 1918. In view of thousands along the beach, a German submarine shelled and burned a tugboat and sank three barges without warning. Of the 41 persons on board these craft, three men were wounded. Two hydroplanes from the Chatham aviation station, circling over the U-boat, caused her to submerge, only to reappear and resume firing.

On July 22d, after a 24-hours' fight with submarines, the White Star liner *Justicia* sank off the Irish Coast. Four hundred of the passengers and crew were saved.

### Allied Raid on Durazzo

THE Austrian naval base at Durazzo was successfully raided on October 2d by Italian, British and American naval forces. On nearing the coast all the attacking ships came under the fire of the coastal batteries, but the American "Chasers," by means of skillful zigzagging, escaped the fire of the guns and sank an Austrian submarine that was making ready to attack a British warship.

### Neutral Nations Lose Heavily

EARLY in 1918, Germany began a submarine blockade of Spanish ports as a result of a commercial treaty signed between Spain

and the United States. On February 9th, the *Sebastian* was sunk while en route to New York; the *Mar Caspio* was sunk on February 23d, the *Neguri* on February 26th, the *Sardinero* on February 27th, and a grain ship chartered to the Swiss Government on March 2d.

Norway's losses, from German depredations, had reached a total of 755 vessels by the end of April, 1918, accompanied by the loss of 1,006 seamen. The Norwegian ship *Havna* was torpedoed, March 4th.

### Mutiny in the Austrian Fleet

EARLY in May mutiny broke out in the Austrian Navy. Beginning at Pola it spread quickly to Cattaro, where the crews of six cruisers and several destroyers hoisted the red flag. The German sailors held aloof from the Austrians and there were encounters between them and the mutineers, the guns of one cruiser being turned on another. After eight days of revolt, the mutineers consented to surrender their vessels on receiving written guarantees that their grievances would be settled.

### 200 German Submarines Sunk

GERMANY admitted in the year 1918 the loss of 200 of her submarines. Of these, 82 are thought to have been destroyed by the barrage laid by the United States Navy across the mouth of the North Sea, 72 off the Belgian coast, 16 in the Mediterranean, 5 in the Black Sea, 3 in the Baltic, and 21 others had been blown up or interned by their crews. The fate of the crew of one of these U-boats, which sank after striking a mine near the entrance to Zeebrugge harbor, may be regarded as typical. When the vessel sank in twenty fathoms of water, the only chance of escape left open to the crew of forty men was to force open the conning tower and trust to the compression of air in one part of the vessel to force each man, like a torpedo, to the surface. Some of the crew, rather than take this chance, committed suicide. The others were shot to the surface, but hardly had they reached the sea-level when the air-pressure burst their lungs and twenty of them sank like stones. Only two of the crew survived the ordeal.



On November 20-21st, the German naval units surrendered to the Allies.

On December 4th, the British warship Cassandra struck a mine in the North Sea,

and soon sank to the ocean's bottom.

The thrilling story of the American Navy's effective contest with the German submarine peril is given in greater detail on Page ???

FRANCE AND ENGLAND, DEC.

## President Wilson Royally Welcomed in France and England

Millions Tender Homage to the Chief of the American Republic

SECTION 40-1918

**S**HORTLY after the Armistice was signed, President Wilson announced his intention of going to France, after the opening of the regular session of Congress in December, for the purpose of taking part in the discussion and settlement of the main features of the Treaty of Peace.

He named as representatives of the United States at the Peace Conference, besides himself, Secretary of State Robert Lansing, Col. Edward M. House of Texas, Henry White, former Ambassador, and Gen. Tasker H. Bliss.

The President appeared before a joint session of Congress on December 2d and delivered his annual address, in which he said that he considered it his paramount duty to attend the Peace Conference and translate into action the great ideals for which America had striven.

The President and his party, which included Mrs. Wilson, sailed on the transport George Washington from Hoboken, N. J., December 4th, arriving at Brest on December 13th. The President's transport was accompanied all the way across the Atlantic by the battleship Pennsylvania, flying the flag of Admiral Henry T. Mayo, and by the destroyers Wickes, Woolsey, Tarbell and Yarnell.

The brief welcoming ceremonies at Brest being concluded, President Wilson and the members of his party boarded a special train which brought them to the Bois de Boulogne station in Paris on Saturday morning, December 14th. Here the President was warmly greeted by President Poincare, Premier Clemenceau, Andre Tardieu and other high officials. He was then conducted

to the residence selected for him, that of Prince Murat, in the Parc Monceau.

President Poincare, later in the day, gave a formal luncheon in honor of President and Mrs. Wilson, and in his address of welcome offered the thanks of the French nation for the invaluable aid which America had spontaneously rendered to the cause of liberty and justice. He also eulogized the American soldiers, comparing their enthusiasm with that of Crusaders marching toward the Holy Land.

In his response, President Wilson said that the thought of the people of the United States turned to something more than the mere winning of the War. It turned to the establishment of eternal principles of right and justice. The War must be won in such a way, and the questions raised by it settled in such a way, as to insure the future peace of the world and lay the foundations for the freedom and happiness of its many peoples and nations.

Receiving a deputation of Socialists on the day of his arrival, President Wilson proposed a League of Nations as the only means of preventing a repetition of the wrongs committed in the World War. That day the Municipal Council of Paris conferred upon President Wilson the title of "Citizen of Paris."

On Sunday, December 15th, President Wilson laid a wreath on the tomb of Lafayette, with a card attached bearing the inscription: "In memory of the great Lafayette, from a fellow servant of liberty."

A luncheon was given in honor of President and Mrs. Wilson, December 16th, in the City Hall of Paris, addresses being made by Adrien Mithouard, President of the Municipal Council, M. Autrand, prefect of the Seine,



and President Wilson. In the course of the ceremonies, a representative of the Council presented to President Wilson the great gold medal of the city of Paris and to Mrs. Wilson a diamond brooch.

The American Ambassador, William G. Sharp, on December 17th, gave a dinner in honor of President and Mrs. Wilson and President and Mrs. Poincare. On this day, President Wilson held conferences with Marshal Foch, Ambassador di Cellere of Italy and other dignitaries. The President also visited the headquarters of the American Peace Delegation and announced his purpose of paying social visits to Italy, England and Belgium.

King Victor Emmanuel of Italy, accompanied by the Prince of Piedmont, heir to the Italian throne, came to Paris expressly to greet President Wilson, the reception being held in the Murat Mansion on December 19th. King Victor officially invited the President and Mrs. Wilson to be his guests at the Quirinal in Rome.

President Wilson, the same day, attended the ceremony making Marshal Joffre a member of the French Academy. In his inaugural speech, Marshal Joffre eulogized the American nation, saying that history does not record a more marvelous achievement than that of millions of men (Americans) voluntarily breaking away from their peaceful pursuits to cross the seas, where lurked death; to come thousands of miles from their country and give up their lives for a noble cause, a great ideal.

President Wilson on December 20th received Premier Orlando and Foreign Minister Sonnino of Italy and later returned the call made by King Victor Emmanuel. On the following day, the Sorbonne bestowed upon the President the degree of doctor, *honoris causa*, in recognition of his work as a jurist and historian.

On December 22d, President Wilson visited the Red Cross hospital at Neuilly, where he shook hands and talked with 1,200 badly wounded American soldiers. Later in the day the President visited the French hospital at Val de Grace.

On Christmas Day, President Wilson visited the headquarters of the American Expe-

ditionary Force in Chaumont, France, and later reviewed a large number of troops near the village of Humes, being introduced by Gen. John J. Pershing. He told the soldiers that everybody at home was proud of them and had followed every movement of the United States Army with confidence and affection. The whole nation was waiting to welcome them home with an acclaim such as never greeted any other army.

### A Visit to England

AFTER taking their Christmas dinner at Montigny-le-Roy and visiting a number of soldiers in their billets, President Wilson and party took train for Calais, arriving there on the 26th. They were met by Vice-Admiral Sir Roger Keyes, Commander of the British Dover Patrol, who escorted them aboard the hospital ship Brighton for the trip across the Channel to England.

At London the President received a great reception, among those assembled at the Charing Cross Station being the King and Queen, Lloyd George, Gen. Robertson and Admiral Wemyss. As guests of King George the party were escorted to Buckingham Palace, multitudes lining the thoroughfares through which they passed.

In the evening President and Mrs. Wilson were entertained at a state banquet in Buckingham Palace, which was attended by all the royalties and celebrities in the Kingdom. The King's speech and the President's response were equally felicitous.

Saturday, December 28th, being President Wilson's 62d birthday anniversary, he received many congratulations. At the American Embassy in the forenoon, President Wilson addressed deputations from various bodies. In the afternoon, President and Mrs. Wilson drove to Guild Hall, where they were the guests of the city of London. Later, at the Mansion House, a luncheon was given in the President's honor by Lord Mayor Horace Marshall.

At Carlisle, on the following Sunday, President Wilson visited the site of the chapel in which his grandfather had ministered and the house which his grandfather had built.

On the following day the President visited Manchester. While at luncheon, the President



received a telegram asking him to visit Southampton and receive the freedom of the city. Replying, he expressed his cordial thanks for the honor, but said it was absolutely necessary for him to return to France.

Returning to London, President and Mrs. Wilson were guests of a dinner party given by King George and Queen Mary, which was

attended by many dignitaries. On the following morning the Presidential party said good-bye to England and started on their journey to Paris. It is doubtful if even royalty ever was accorded the reception which England tendered to President and Mrs. Wilson.

EASTERN THEATER, SEPT.—DEC.

## Lenine and Trotzky German Agents and Traitors to Russia

Sensational Disclosures by U. S. Government, Showing Bolshevik Movement  
Financed by German Imperial Bank

SECTION 41—1918

**P**ROOF that the Bolshevik Revolution in Russia was instigated by the German General Staff, financed by the Imperial Bank and other German financial institutions, and organized by a coterie of German agents, headed by Lenine and Trotzky, was forthcoming in September, 1918, when the United States Government made public the report of Edgar Sisson, an agent of the Committee on Public Instruction in Russia during the winter of 1917-18.

Documentary evidence was disclosed, proving that the Brest-Litovsk treaty was a betrayal of the Russian people arranged by the agents of Germany in Russia. It was proved that a hand-picked German Commander had been chosen to "defend" Petrograd against the German armies; that German officers had been secretly received by the Bolshevik Government as military "advisers" and as spies upon the Embassies of Russia's allies; that other German officers had been given commands in the Russian Army and as directors of the Russian military, foreign and domestic policy; that the Bolshevik Government was in reality a German Government, controlled wholly by German agents, acting in the interests of Germany and betraying the Russian people and their European Allies for the benefit of the German Imperial Government.

The evidence further proved that the Bolshevik leaders, to attain the same German-inspired ends, had betrayed the working classes of Russia whom they pretended to represent.

After the Red Revolution two circulars were seized from the Russian secret archives by Lenine and Trotzky, and turned over to the German General Staff, containing proof that Germany was plotting war on June 9, 1914, several weeks before the assassination of the Austrian Archduke, which was made the pretext for the War. One circular contained the order issued to all industrial concerns in Germany to open the sealed envelopes containing their industrial mobilization plans and registered forms in order that they might be prepared for the inevitable war for which the excuse had not yet been found.

The second circular was an order from the German General Staff of the High Seas Fleet, dated November 28, 1914, calling for the mobilization of all destructive agents and spies in the United States and Canada for the purpose of preventing the sailing of ships from American ports to Russia, France and England. The order calls upon them to cause explosions, strikes, delays, embroilments and difficulties, and it recommends the employment of anarchists and escaped criminals for the purpose.

Another document proved that Germany supplied a list of Russian leaders, "satisfactory to the German General Staff," to be candidates for re-election to the Bolshevik central committee, and the list was so chosen, with Lenine and Trotzky as leaders.

### \$25,000,000 German Gold for Lenine—Trotzky

EVIDENCE was discovered, in the form of a letter written by the President of the Ger-



man Imperial Bank to the Bolshevik Commissioner of Foreign Affairs (Trotzky), bearing date of January 8, 1918, proving that \$25,000,000 in gold had been put at the disposal of Lenine and Trotzky to cover the cost of maintaining the infamous Red Guards and agitators in Russia.

Four days later, the same bank sent \$2,500,000 to Trotzky to cover the cost of sending a Russian revolutionary leader to Vladivostok to get possession of the vast stores of American and Japanese war materials accumulated at that port, and, if necessary, destroy them.

Further communications show that an understanding existed between the German Government and Lenine whereby Germany would control all Russian industries. It was agreed that, for five years from the signing of peace, English, French and American capital in Russia was to be banished and not to be allowed in the coal, oil, machine, chemical and drug industries. These Russian industries were to be developed jointly by ten German and ten Russian specialists, while Ger-

many and Austria were to enjoy the unlimited privilege of sending into Russia mechanics and qualified workmen. Other foreign mechanics and workmen were not to be allowed to enter Russia for five years after the conclusion of peace. Private banks in Russia were to be established only by consent of German and Austrian bankers.

Trotzky, moreover, consented to provide fraudulent passports for German officers who were going to England, France and America as spies and enemy agents.

Other letters were discovered, revealing in detail how the Bolshevik leaders and German officers plotted the assassination of Russian Nationalist leaders; the destruction of Polish Legionaries in the Russian Army; the disorganization of the Roumanian Army and the deposing of the Roumanian King; the substitution of officers, "satisfactory to Germany," in command of Russian troops instead of patriotic Russian generals; the employment of German soldiers in Russian uniform against the Russian soldiers.

#### EASTERN THEATER

### Leaders of Bolshevism Revealed as Apostate Jews from America

How These Enemies of Law and Order Sought to Overthrow the Christian Church and Reduce Woman to a State of Degredation

SECTION 42—1918

**B**OLSHEVISM stood revealed in 1918 as the figurative Beast of Revelations, the predicted Antichrist that should aim at the overthrow of all Christian civilization, setting up in its stead the abomination of atheism and of anarchy in a godless world.

This eruption of Satanism in Russia had its echo in America, among a group of apostate Jews—men who had forsaken the religion and the teachings of their fathers and scoffed at all things religious.

Trotzky, who shared with Lenine the leadership of the movement, comes of a wealthy Jewish family. His uncle, Jivotoffsky, was the purchasing agent for the Allies in Russia under the empire, and when his nephew assumed power, he was established in Sweden as the agent of the thievish Bolshevik leaders, selling Russian mines, boats and mate-

rials to the German Government after Trotzky had catalogued the loot. For some time prior to America's entrance in the War, Trotzky was engaged in editing a Jewish Socialist paper on the East Side of New York until the part-Jewish Emperor of Germany, William II, sent for him to wreck Russia with the weapon of Bolshevism.

Volodarsky, the Bolshevik Minister of Publicity, is a Philadelphia Jew, who went to Russia during Kerensky's regime.

Vriitzky, another Bolshevik leader, was a writer for a Jewish newspaper in Philadelphia. A foe to all religions, Vriitzky took particular pleasure in persecuting those Russian Jews who would take no part in the Bolshevik movement.

Rhinestone, the Bolshevik chief of propaganda, was a Jewish druggist in Buffalo, an



atheist and a Socialist. Kaneneff, another Bolshevik cabinet officer, is Trotzky's brother-in-law. Martoff, the Bolshevik Envoy to Siam, was a New York Jew of the well-known "Internationale" stripe. Mitke Rubenstein, Pollock, Goureutch, and Dr. Rakowsky, other leaders in the Bolshevik movement, were Jews.

These apostate Jews from America, who did the unholy bidding of the pagan rulers of Prussia, resolved to destroy the Christian Church throughout the world. Though apostates from Judaism, they nevertheless spared the synagogue, protected the Jewish usurers and respected pagan institutions as well. All their fury was directed against the Christian Church and Christian wealth.

We have the testimony of the venerable Archbishop of Omsk, President of the Supreme Administration of the Orthodox Church in Russia, as to what these fiends accomplished. After seizing the supreme power in Russia in 1917, the Jewish Bolsheviks proceeded to extirpate not only the cultivated laymen of Russia, but also the representatives of the Church.

The Kremlin Cathedrals of Moscow and those in the towns of Yaroslav and Simferopol were sacked and many churches defiled.

Historical sacristies, as well as the famous libraries of the Patriarchs of Moscow and Petrograd, were pillaged.

Vladimir, Metropolitan Bishop of Kiev, together with 20 Bishops and hundreds of priests, was assassinated. Before killing them, the Bolsheviks cut off the limbs of their victims. Some of the Christians were buried alive.

Religious processions, followed by great masses of the people, at Petrograd, Toula, and Kharkov were fired upon.

Whenever the Bolsheviks were in power, the Christian Church was persecuted with much the same ferocity as under the pagan Roman Emperors in the first three centuries of the Christian era. Nuns were violated, women made common property, and license and the lowest passions were rampant. Everywhere were death, misery and famine. The population was utterly cast down and subjected to most terrifying experiences.

Some were purified by their sufferings, but others succumbed.

### Girls as State Property

UNDER Bolshevik rule, the home was to be abolished, woman was to be degraded; free love was to supplant the Christian ordinance of marriage, and girls were to be regarded as mere instruments of propagation and as common property of the Bolsheviks. Decrees establishing the new status of girls and women under Bolshevik rule were issued by the Soviets at Vladimir, Luga, Kolpino and other cities. That of Vladimir is given as follows:

"Every girl who has reached her 18th year is guaranteed by the local Commissary of Surveillance the full inviolability of her person. Any offender against an 18 years old girl, by using insulting language or attempting to ravish her, is subject to the full rigors of the Revolutionary Tribunal.

"Anyone who has ravished a girl who has not reached her 18th year is considered a State criminal and is liable to a sentence of 20 years' hard labor unless he marries the injured one. The injured, dishonored girl is given the right not to marry the ravisher if she does not so desire.

"A girl having reached her eighteenth year is to be announced as the property of the state. Any girl having reached her 18th year and not having married, is obliged, subject to the most severe penalty, to register at the Bureau of Free Love in the Commissariat of Surveillance. Having registered at the Bureau of Free Love, she has the right to choose from among men between the ages of 19 and 50 a cohabitant husband.

"Remarks:

"1. The consent of the men in the said choice is unnecessary.

"2. The man on whom such a choice falls has no right to make any protest whatsoever against the infringement.

"The right to choose from a number of girls who have reached their 18th year is given also to men. The opportunity to choose a husband or a wife is to be presented once a month. The Bureau of Free Love is autonomous.



"Men between the ages of 19 and 50 have the right to choose among the registered women, even without the consent of the latter, in the interest of the state. Children who are the issue of these unions are to become the property of the state."

### Starvation in Russia

PETROGRAD, under the Bolshevik rule, was described as a "city of horrors." Terrorism and famine had combined to reduce the population to one-half its former size. At the close of 1917, the population of Petrograd was 2,400,000; in June, 1918, it was only 1,400,000.

## Amazing Supernatural Phenomena Spectral Warriors In the Heavens and On the Battle Field

"St. George" Leads Retreat from Mons—"Virgin Mary" Ministers to Wounded at Ypres  
"Angelic Horsemen" at Le Cateau—"Bowmen" at Vitry-le-Francois Inspire French  
"St. Michael" Leads Russian Forces on to Victory

SECTION 43—1918

**E**VEN as the Angelic Host, visible in the skies, hovered above the armies of the Crusaders whilst they were battling against the forces of Islam, eight centuries before, so did the Spectral Warriors reveal themselves to multitudes of soldiers, above and by the side of the Allied armies in France, Belgium and Russia throughout the World War, mysteriously participating in crucial battles and apparently exerting their supernatural power in support of the Christian as against the Pagan cause.

These apparitions were most frequently seen during the earlier stages of the War, in those crucial days when the slim armies of the Allies were so nearly overwhelmed by the German hordes.

They accompanied the British retreat from Mons, the French retreat from Charleroi. They were seen in the heavens at the Battle of the Marne, when Gen. Foch gained his miraculous victory in the Marshes of St. Gond, which forever dispelled the German hopes of world conquest.

As supernatural nurses, amidst a tempest of bullets, they ministered to fallen British and Belgian soldiers on the Ypres battlefield.

They appeared as troops of cavalry, clad in armor and galloping through the heavens in advance of the British and French armies.

Again, as legions of bowmen, stepping out of the tenth century into the age of long-range guns, they marched through adjacent

fields in step with the Allied forces on their marches.

One radiant Presence, mounted on a white charger and holding in his right hand an up-right sword, was identified by the British tommies as "St. George," by the French poilus and the Russian mujiks as "St. Michael."

Joan of Arc, also mounted on a snow-white charger, frequently appeared to the French poilus, and always as a harbinger of victory for French arms.

These Appearances were so well attested, and were witnessed by so many thousand soldiers, of all nations and all creeds, believers and unbelievers, credulous and uncredulous, that it is absurd to dismiss them either as the vagaries of superstitious minds, due to overwrought nerves, or as optical delusions, founded upon the phenomena of gorgeous sunsets.

### The Angels of Mons

MANY British soldiers have testified that "St. George and his angel warriors" rendered supernatural aid to the British Expeditionary Force during their memorable retreat from Mons to the Marne on or about August 28, 1914.

Three German armies had suddenly attacked the two British corps at Mons, compelling an immediate retreat. The destruction of the British forces seemed imminent.



All day long the British were pressed back, fighting gallantly as they retreated and barely escaping envelopment.

About 8 o'clock that evening, the Germans launched a whirlwind cavalry attack on the British flank. It seemed as if the end had come, as if the British must surrender.

Suddenly, in the heavens, directly above the advancing Germans and facing the British, appeared a luminous angel with outstretched wings. At that moment the attack ceased abruptly and the German Cavalry fled to the rear, enabling the British to reform their broken line and resume their orderly retreat.

Subsequently, a German lady in Berlin, writing to friends in Paris, said that the German Cavalry officer in charge of the attack had been sharply censured for his failure to overcome the British on this occasion. In his defence, he averred that the cavalry charge was successfully begun, but that suddenly his troops of horses had turned sharply around and fled like the wind, and nothing could stop them. It was, he said, like going at full speed and being pulled up suddenly on the brink of a precipice. "We simply could not go on. Those devils of Englishmen were up to some kind of deviltry and we could do nothing; we were powerless."

Those "devils of Englishmen," however, declared their belief that their miraculous deliverance was due to the agency of a supernatural Presence they supposed to be "St. George."

### Description of the Three Angels

A PARTIAL description of the Apparition was given by a British officer as follows:

"I could see quite plainly in mid-air a strange light which seemed to be quite distinctly outlined and was not a reflection of the moon, nor were there any clouds in the neighborhood. The light became brighter and I could see quite distinctly three shapes, one in the center having what looked like outspread wings, the other two not so large but quite plainly distinct.

They appeared to have a long, loose hanging garment of a golden tint and they were above the German line facing us. We stood watching them for about 35 minutes. All

the men with me saw the figures in the heavens and afterwards several men came over from other groups and told us they had seen the same luminous figures.

"We had noticed a bright star under the feet of the heavenly figures. After they disappeared the star remained and we learned it was the morning star. Our officers cheered their men by saying: 'Well, men, God is with us.' The effect on the soldiers was noticeable. Former slackers in the ranks became heroes, and one man, noted for his blasphemies, gave up swearing and cursing."

### The Mounted Angel at Vitry-le-Francois

ONCE again, during the retreat from Mons, the British were aided, some aver, by a supernatural Presence. For 48 hours, without food or drink, the British soldiers had retreated under a tropical sun. Choked with dust and harried by German shells, they marched, marched, marched until ready to drop. At Vitry-le-Francois, the Germans advanced in a final charge. Let an English Wesleyan Methodist officer tell what happened:

"The Germans had come over the hill like a solid wall—no end to 'em—and I just gave up. No use fighting the whole German race, thinks I; it's all up with us. The next minute a yellow mist or cloud of light arose over the Germans and when it cleared, there was a tall man with yellow hair in golden armour on a white horse, holding his sword up and his mouth open as if saying, 'Come on, Boys!' Then, before you could say knife, the Germans turned right around and we were after them, fighting like ninety. We knew it was St. George. The Frenchmen saw the same Vision, but they called it St. Michael, and heard the Presence cry out: 'Victory!'"

Another English witness, describing his feelings on this occasion, said: "We were ready to drop in our tracks for weariness, but after the Vision appeared and the boches turned about, our trumpet call sounded and each man sprang to his arms to find himself anew. I felt exhilarated, as if I had just come from a swim in the sea. Fit! Just grand! And every man felt likewise. Yes, sir, those Germans were coming on in waves, when suddenly the great man on the white



horse appeared in the heavens and then I knew the boches would never get to Paris, for God was fighting on our side."

### **The Spectral Cavalry at Le Cateau**

QUITE as marvelous as these impressions, was the experience of a French column, during the retreat from Le Cateau on the evening of August 27, 1914. As told by a French poilu: "In the fields, on both sides of the road along which we were marching, there appeared a large body of horsemen, having the appearance of squadrons of cavalry. They seemed to be riding across the fields, in the same direction we were following, and keeping level with us."

### **The Angel Nurse of Ypres**

REV. OSWALD WATKINS, an English Army Chaplain, heard many French soldiers speak of a supernatural Presence on the bloody battlefield of Ypres. While the bullets were falling like hail, the luminous figure of a woman was seen moving about the battlefield, ministering to the wounded and comforting the dying. In awed whispers the French soldiers declared that the angel nurse of Ypres was none other than the Blessed Virgin Mary.

### **Jeanne D'Arc Appears**

"As for Joan of Arc," said one soldier, "I know her well, for I am from Domremy, also. I saw her brandishing her sword and crying, 'Turn! Turn! Advance!' And we did advance, driving the boches before us."

### **The Spectral Bowmen**

AN extraordinary story, reminiscent of the tales of the Crusades, is told by an English Catholic officer: "A party of 30 men and an officer had been cut off in a trench. Rather than be caught like rats in a trap, they decided to make a sortie. With a yell of 'St. George for England' they dashed out into the open. As they ran, they became aware of the Presence of a large company of Spectral Warriors, armed with bows and arrows, accompanying and even leading them

on against the enemy's trenches. At the head of the bowmen there appeared an heroic Presence mounted on a white horse. At sight of these bowmen, the Germans opened fire on them, paying particular attention to the figure on horseback, but none of the German bullets found their mark. Now note this uncanny sequel. In the skirmish which ensued, many Germans fell dead, but not one of them bore the marks of a bullet or arrow wound! After the spectral bowmen had disappeared, a German prisoner was anxious to know the name of the leader of the bowmen, 'for although he was a conspicuous figure, our men were unable to hit him'."

### **"Instinct" of Cavalry Horses Averts Massacre**

A TROOP of British Cavalry had been ordered to advance along a main highway and take a certain wood. Arrived at a crossroad leading to their destination, the horses stopped in their tracks and could not be induced to follow the road. The troop commander proceeded further along the highway and turned down a road running parallel to the course which the horses had refused to pursue. They learned afterwards that a strong German ambush awaited them along the road which the horses had refused to travel.

### **Russians Also Saw St. Michael**

THE same spectral figure, mounted on a charger and brandishing a sword, which the French thought to be St. Michael and the English St. George, was witnessed frequently by the Russian soldiers, who also named it "St. Michael." With its appearance victory invariably attended Russian arms.

All these Apparitions and others that might be mentioned, together with the phenomenal electrical storms which accompanied the crucial battles of the War, notably that of the St. Gond Marshes, where Foch started the Germans on their retreat from the Marne, strengthened many soldiers of all armies in their belief that the world had indeed entered upon those "Last Days," which were to be ushered in by "signs in the sun and moon and skies."



BRITISH DOMINIONS, JAN. — NOV.

## England's Conscription Laws Bitterly Opposed in the Dominions

Australia and New South Wales Vote Twice Against the Draft. Draft Riots in Canada—Failure of Conscription in Ireland

SECTION 44—1918

THE measures adopted by the Canadian Government, in March, 1918, to enforce the Conscription Law passed by the Canadian Parliament in the preceding December, were provocative to widespread revolts, accompanied by much bloodshed, particularly in the French province of Quebec. The reluctance of the French Canadians to accept Conscription was due in part to their resentment at the efforts of the Imperial Government to stifle the French National Spirit and suppress the French language in the schools of Canada.

Of the 8,000,000 inhabitants in Canada, 3,000,000 are French, concentrated chiefly in the province of Quebec but with large representation in all the Eastern provinces. For many years the French have controlled Quebec as part of the Canadian Federation. In their schools they have taught both the English and French languages impartially. They have also maintained the use of their mother tongue in the bilingual schools of Ontario.

Early in 1913, the British authorities in Canada sought to restrict the use of the French language in the bilingual schools of Ontario to the primary grade, desiring to teach English only in the higher grades. It was by similar methods that the German and Russian despots had endeavored, though in vain, to crush the spirit of nationality surviving in their subject peoples.

Naturally the French Canadians protested against the decree; the faculties of many French schools refused to obey the order and when threatened with punishment they promptly closed the schools. An appeal was taken to the courts of Canada and of Great Britain. In 1916 the London Privy Council handed down a decision upholding the Ontario Education Department and dismissing the appeal of the French Canadians. Thus, in the midst of a World War, fought in

behalf of oppressed nationalities, Great Britain was alienating the allegiance of the noble French Canadians by methods identical with those practiced by the Germans.

In retaliation for this act of oppression, the French Canadians refused to enlist for the War in any great numbers. Of 380,000 men recruited up to 1917, only about 34,000 were Frenchmen. In May, 1917, Premier Borden returned from a trip to England with the announcement that the Government intended to ask Parliament to pass a Conscription Bill. Protests against Conscription were made on every side. Virtually all the French Canadians, besides the Labor Unions and the hundreds of thousands of Germans and Austrians residing in the Western Provinces of Canada, opposed the Conscription plan. Nevertheless, on June 11, 1917, the Conscription Bill was introduced into the Canadian Parliament and in early August it became a law.

The Nationalist Party, which comprised Canadian Frenchmen, Laborites, Germans and English pacifists, indulged in threats of secession, but inasmuch as the term of Parliament would soon expire and a new election be held, it was decided to take no steps toward secession until the voice of the people could be ascertained.

The Government, fearing defeat, adroitly outwitted the anti-Conscriptionists. Parliament enacted a special War Franchise Bill, which extended the suffrage to all women relatives of Canadian soldiers, together with women nurses, red Indians and even Hindus, but withholding the franchise from all other Canadian women. The War Franchise Bill moreover, deprived of their votes all conscientious objectors to military service (in which category were included 70 per cent of the French Canadians throughout Canada), and all natives of enemy countries who had lived in Canada less than 15 years. This



monstrous piece of gerrymandering served only to infuriate still further the French Canadians. In the elections held in 1917 under this new Franchise Law, the Government won 137 Parliamentary seats as against 93 for the opposition. Quebec, however, voted almost as a unit against Conscription. A motion for secession was actually put before the Canadian House, but was promptly squelched.

The Pacifists endeavored to defeat Conscription by passive resistance. Thousands of them failed to register, while most of those who did register claimed exemption on various grounds. In Quebec, where the personnel of the draft boards was almost exclusively French Canadian, nearly all the claims for exemption were allowed, some boards exempting their entire lists. So, in despite of the draft, Quebec supplied but few soldiers to the Canadian army.

In March, 1918, the Government gave notice that the law should be enforced at all costs. Large bodies of troops were mobilized in Quebec and a round-up of draft-evaders was begun. Riots ensued, but these were invariably suppressed with an iron hand and at a cost of considerable bloodshed. At last, seeing that further resistance was useless, the anti-Conscriptionists yielded to the inevitable, and Quebec furnished a fair quota of recruits during the latter months of the War. But very few of these recruits, however, were destined to take their place on the battle-line, owing to the sudden cessation of fighting on November 11, 1918.

#### **Australia Votes Against Conscription**

The British Government failed in its purpose to impose a Conscription Law on both Australia and New South Wales, due principally to the vigorous opposition of the powerful labor organizations. New Zealand, alone among the English possessions in the Antipodes, consented to Conscription.

At the outbreak of the World War, the youth of Australia, New Zealand, and New South Wales had rallied to the colors with great enthusiasm. But when disclosure was made of the awful slaughter of the "Anzacs" at Gallipoli, at the close of 1915, a reaction set in. Australians hesitated when

asked to volunteer. Premier Hughes had promised the Imperial Government 300,000 Australian troops in June, but on the designated day Australia was 50,000 short of its quota. Premier Hughes proposed a referendum on the question of Conscription. When this referendum was taken, on October 28, 1916, Conscription was defeated by 60,000 votes. There followed an epidemic of strikes, which for a time threatened Australia with economic paralysis.

Again, in 1917, a referendum vote on Conscription was taken, and once again Conscription was rejected, this time by a majority of 200,000 votes. In New South Wales the majority against Conscription was 140,000. Thereupon the labor organizations issued a manifesto condemning the further prosecution of the War and demanding the immediate calling of a conference, to negotiate a peace on the basis of the mutual evacuation of occupied territories. A movement for a "general strike" was also inaugurated, but this was summarily broken by Government troops.

New Zealand, on the contrary, voted for Conscription, although the labor organizations opposed the measure bitterly.

#### **Conscription Fails in Ireland**

The British Government, in 1918, while denying to Ireland the right of self-government, in accordance with the terms of the Home Rule measure enacted by three successive Parliaments, still had the temerity to attempt to impose Conscription on the defrauded nation. Early in that year a farcical "Convention" of Irishmen was held behind closed doors in Trinity College, Dublin, ostensibly to harmonize the difficulties existing between the 85 per cent of the Irish people who had voted for self-government and the 15 per cent in Ulster who had threatened rebellion and secession if the Act of Parliament should be put in effect. Instead of being chosen by the Irish people themselves, the delegates to that secret "Convention" were hand-picked by the British Government. All of them were frankly hostile to the Act of Parliament, guaranteeing Irish freedom, and for the most part were advocates of the Ulster cause.



Only a few days after the "Convention" assembled for its secret debates, Premier Lloyd George announced in Parliament that the Irish people need not hope for independence; the utmost concession they might expect would be a nondescript "Home Rule" government with separate "Parliaments" for the two sections of Ireland. The Army, the Navy, and the customs would all remain in control of Great Britain. Sir Edward Carson, the leader of the Ulster Rebels, who had been rewarded for his treasonable acts by a seat in the British Cabinet, resigned his post in the Cabinet as a sign that he could not compromise on the Home Rule question.

In April, after the United States Congress had passed a resolution favorable to Irish freedom, Premier Lloyd George put forth a new Home Rule proposal contingent upon the Irish nation accepting a Conscription Law. The proposal was rejected with scorn by 85 per cent of the Irish people, including many Ulsterites. In Parliament a lively debate ensued on the Conscription Bill for Ireland. The Nationalist leaders notified Lloyd George that they would accept neither his Home Rule Bill nor Conscription. British newspapers even denounced the Irish Conscription Bill as "midsummer madness" and "an insane blunder" on the part of the Premier.

The Irish patriots proceeded to organize the Volunteers for resistance to Conscription, whereupon the British Government sent into

Ireland an army of 90,000 soldiers, supplied with cannon, tanks and airships, with orders to suppress any possible armed rebellion. Gen. French, the former Commander-in-Chief of the British Forces on the Western Front, in May was named as Lord Lieutenant of Ireland. By his orders hundreds of Irish patriots were seized and deported into England, there to languish in prisons without formal accusation or trial, on the pretence that they were "laying a revolutionary plot in the United States with the aid of German agents." Premier Lloyd George stultified himself by accepting this libel as true, and upon it basing his postponement of the application of Home Rule in Ireland.

Though the British had assembled a large army on Irish soil, still they were unable to enforce Conscription in Ireland, nor did they succeed in breaking down the spirit of the Irish people.

Following the Armistice, in November, 1918, the British Parliament was dissolved and a new election held, resulting in a sweeping victory for the Irish patriots. Seventy-three Sinn Fein candidates were elected to Parliament. Instead of taking their seats in the British Parliament, however, they formed a Parliament of their own, declared Ireland an Independent Republic, drew up a Constitution, elected a Government, established law courts and have functioned as a Government ever since.

#### WESTERN THEATER.—NOV.

### War in the Air Strikes Terror Among German Population

#### Raids on London and Paris Answered by Numerous Allied Attacks In Germany

SECTION 45—1918

**T**HE Allies in 1918 also wrested from the Germans the supremacy in aviation. Due to a shortage of materials essential to planes, the Germans were unable to replace their airships as fast as destroyed. They relied largely upon the Scandinavians and the Swiss to supply them with motors, but even then they were not able to compete successfully with the Allies. Zeppelins had completely disappeared from the skies, being found impracticable in warfare. Aerial operations grew in importance on all fronts,

because of the marvelous development of airplanes and the development of the technique of flying.

German air squadrons, on January 29th, bombed the Kent and Essex coasts and penetrated inland as far as London, killing 68 and wounding 183 persons. On March 8th, London was again raided and 11 persons were killed and 46 injured.

Paris was bombed by German airplanes on January 30th, 45 persons being killed and 207 injured. Again, on March 11th, nine



squadrons of German planes attempted a raid on Paris, but only a few of the machines were permitted to reach the city.

The Germans, throughout January, also made incessant raids on the French cities near the front. Dunkirk, Calais, Boulogne, Nancy, and Belfort suffered especially from the showers of bombs.

The Allied air squadrons were equally active. Frequent attacks were made on French and Belgian cities, held by the Germans, especially on Lille, Bruges, Ostend, and Zeebrugge.

In retaliation for the raids on London and the English coast towns, British night bombing machines carried out many successful raids not only on French cities held by the Germans, but on the Rhine cities as well. On February 9th, a ton of bombs was dropped on the railway junction east of Metz. On February 16th, British machines dropped 400 bombs on German aerodromes near Ghent, Tournai, and Laon. Three days later the British birdmen attacked Treves.

Great aerial activity prevailed on March 8th, 400 bombs being dropped on several German ammunition dumps East of St. Quentin.

On March 10th, British planes flew over to Stuttgart, Germany, and bombed the Daimler works there, hitting several munition factories.

Two days later, the factories and barracks at Coblenz, Germany, were attacked, with much havoc resulting to German munition factories.

On the Italian front there was also great activity. Austrian planes, on January 26th, bombed Treviso and Mestrex. Two Americans, William Platt and R. C. Fairfield, engaged in Red Cross work, were killed.

The Italians retaliated with frequent raids on the Austrian line. The chief attacks of the Italians were aimed at Pola, the Austrian

naval base in the Adriatic Sea, which was raided many times, with damage resulting both to the Austrian ships in the harbor and to the naval establishments. Trieste was bombed a number of times with good results.

The Austrians, in January, bombed Vicenza, Bossano, Treviso and Padua almost continuously, wrecking the wonderful old churches and palaces in those towns and causing 15 deaths.

Allied squadrons raided Cologne, on August 22, killing 124 occupants of a large hotel and 60 clerks in public buildings.

Chemical factories at Mannheim, Germany, were successfully attacked and so large a quantity of chemicals destroyed that the Germans were unable to replenish their supplies for weeks.

During June, the Allies raided 74 German cities and towns.

During July, 96 raids were made in Germany and 81 tons of bombs were dropped. Coblenz was raided three times, Mannheim four, Metz five, Oppenburg seven, Saarbrücken three, Stuttgart two, Thionville five and Treves two. These raids so greatly terrified the inhabitants that many Germans moved into the interior of the country.

Continuous raids into Germany were made in August and particular attention was paid to the poison-gas factories at Mannheim. Scarcely a day passed without at least one raid upon vital German strongholds.

In the closing weeks of the War 72 separate raids were made on Zeebrugge, 64 at Ostend and 63 at Bruges. In addition to these, a great number of attacks had been delivered on other military works in the coastal area.

A United States air squadron of 18 De Havilland machines, equipped with Liberty motors, made a successful flight over the German lines on August 16th.



## How the Latin-American Nations Stood in the War

SECTION 46—1918

ONLY eight of the 20 Latin nations of Central and South America declared war against Germany. They were Brazil, Cuba, Panama, Nicaragua, Guatemala, Costa Rica, Haiti, and Honduras. Four of the republics, Bolivia, Peru, Uruguay, and Ecuador, severed diplomatic relations with the German Empire. One republic, San Salvador, announced its "benevolent neutrality" toward the United States, permitting the use of her ports by the Allied warships. Six of the Latin-American nations remained neutral. They were Mexico (which was under suspicion of pro-German leaning), Argentine, Chile, Colombia, Paraguay, and Venezuela.

When Germany, on January 31, 1917, began its submarine blockade of the coasts of England, France and Italy, strong protests were made against this violation of international law by eight of the Latin-American states—Brazil, Cuba, Bolivia, Haiti, Honduras, Guatemala, Peru, and Uruguay.

The subsequent loss of Haitian lives on the torpedoed steamships *Karnak* and *Montreal* called forth a proper protest from Haiti to Germany. The then haughty Germans at once handed the Haitian Charge d'Affaires his passport, thus compelling Haiti in turn to dismiss the German Charge d'Affaires in June, 1917.

Cuba and Panama were the first of the Latin-American states to declare war on Germany, on April 7, 1917, the day following America's entrance in the War. Brazil's justification for breaking diplomatic relations was the sinking of the steamer *Parana* by a German submarine, without warning, on the night of April 3, 1917, off Point Barfleur. Although Brazil declared her neutrality on April 25th, yet she revoked it on June 4th, and finally on October 26th, the Brazilian Congress proclaimed a state of war between Brazil and Germany. Guatemala, Nicaragua, Costa Rica, Honduras, and Haiti, in their declarations of war, all took pride in "making common cause with the United States of America."

The sinking of the Peruvian bark *Lorton*, on her way from Callao to a neutral port outside the submarine zone, with a cargo of nitrates, on February 4, 1917, brought from Germany an offer to submit the case to a German prize court. Peru rejected the offer and broke off diplomatic relations.

When the German submarines illegally sank the Argentine sailing ships *Monte Protegido* and *Oriano*, Argentina wrested from Germany a promise to respect Argentine shipping and to pay an indemnity for all damages resulting from illegal acts.

While the diplomatic negotiations were in progress between Argentina and Germany, the German ambassador, Count Luxburg, despatched his dastard message to his government through the Swedish Legation at Buenos Aires, recommending the sinking of Argentine vessels without leaving any trace. The Argentine Government quickly dismissed this unscrupulous diplomat, and public indignation ran so high that the Argentine Senate and House passed a resolution urging the immediate severance of diplomatic relations with Germany. The President, however, refused to approve the resolution, and Argentina remained neutral.

Uruguay, in severing diplomatic relations with Germany on June 18, 1917, set up a Monroe Doctrine of its own in declaring that any American nation which fights in defense of its rights against a power of another Continent shall find an ally in Uruguay.

All of the Central and South American Republics, even when not involved in the complications which had drawn the United States into war with Germany, nevertheless identified themselves with the principle in defense of which the United States entered the War and with the traditional friendship which united them to us. Thus spake Ecuador, Venezuela, Chile, Paraguay, and Colombia. Mexico alone harkened to the voice of German propaganda, but wisely declared her neutrality, while at the same time extolling Belgium's resistance to German invasion as "the most heroic act of modern times to the glory and example of weak nations."



# EUROPE'S WAR WITH BOLSHEVISM 1919

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Poland's Valiant Army Alone Holds Back the Red Horde  
Kingdom of Anti-Christ Firmly Established Throughout Russia**

### GERMAN TREATY SIGNED AT VERSAILLES

**- Peace Conference Precipitates New Warfare  
England At War Again In Ireland, Egypt and India  
Terrible Massacres by British Armies in India and Egypt  
German Armies Invade Baltic States After the Armistice  
Communists Seize the Government of Hungary  
Spartacists Attempt a General Revolution In Germany  
D'Annunzio and Italian Followers Seize and Hold Fiume  
United States Refuses to Ratify German Peace Treaty  
Senate Repudiates the League of Nations Covenant**

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### Survey of Events in the Year 1919

**E**MBATTLED Europe, at the dawn of the year 1919, whilst gazing wistfully upon a mirage of universal peace, was suddenly summoned to go "on with a new war" before breaking "off with the old." Her altars and her hearths had been menaced anew and by a foe infinitely more subtle and satanic than was Germany even. From out the red chaos of Russia, and wearing the appropriate mask of Bolshevism, Antichrist had emerged, leading forth his myrmidon armies upon their fourfold mission to attempt the conquest of the whole world, the entire destruction of the Christian edifice, the expulsion of God from His universe, and the utter degradation of all mankind in a state of hopeless servitude in a Universal Atheistic Empire.

Although the defense of Christendom was their sacred and perpetual charge, still in this grave crisis the Great Powers of Europe proved morally delinquent, being strangely loath to accept the Bolshevik challenge openly. Instead of engaging their own invincible and instant armies in battle with the Bolshevik hordes, they rather ignobly chose to wage war by proxy and by indirection. Upon their initiative, the burden of European defense was transferred to the weak shoulders of those newly liberated and secedent states—Poland, Ukraina, Siberia and the Baltic republics—themselves all spent and maimed after five years of unremitting warfare and scarce able as yet to stand alone.

Had the Powers of Europe consented to assist these aspiring republics unconditionally, supplying them with the necessary implements of warfare, and at the same time allowing



them a free hand in the organization of their own military forces, perhaps all might have gone well. But such was not, unfortunately, the purpose of the Great Powers. The exigencies of European statecraft and of high finance, it appears, required the adoption of a less ideal war policy. That policy concerned itself much less with ways and means to accomplish the defeat of the Bolshevik armies and the suppression of the Soviet state, than with measures which might insure the restoration of integral Russia, with all its implications of Czarism and of serfdom. The motive behind this policy was quite transparent. France and England, it appears, by virtue of their colossal loans to the Czar's government, totalling billions of dollars, held virtually a first lien on the fallen Empire of Russia. Now the Bolsheviks, upon their seizure of the Governmental power, had repudiated the Russian national loan. Similarly, the secedent Russian provinces, after achieving the distinction of statehood, had disclaimed their liability for the whole Imperial debt. Evidently, then, if the French and English financiers were ever to be reimbursed in full amount of their enormous loans to the Czar's government, Imperial Russia must be restored entire, as she existed prior to the Revolution of 1917, even though liberty should perish throughout Russia. The vast majority of the emancipated Russian people held Bolshevism and Czarism in equal abhorrence, but rather than submit again to the tyranny of the Czars with the certainty of losing possession of their landed properties, acquired since the Revolution, they would accept the rule of Bolshevism temporarily until such time as they might arise and throw off that detestable yoke also. Those Russian provinces which had seceded and proclaimed their independence also were fully resolved never again to give their allegiance to the Empire. On the other hand, the Russian Royalist faction, with perhaps a million adherents, and including the nobility, the dispossessed landlords, the professions and some 50,000 military officers, who had escaped into Southern Russia after the Bolsheviks rose to power, were plotting for the restoration of the monarchy. They had even made overtures of alliance to the European creditor nations, pledging themselves in the event of the restoration of the Empire to pay the Russian national debt in full, and proposing to lead any armies which might be organized to wage war first against the Bolsheviks and then against the Russian Revolutionists. Their wishes prevailed. France and England together agreed to finance the anti-Bolshevist campaign on all fronts, but particularly in Ukraina and Siberia.

Eight nondescript armies were finally organized, the command throughout being vested exclusively in the Royalist officers. Reactionary to the core, and detesting democracy in all its forms, these officers were secretly pledged, after disposing of the Bolsheviks, to restore Czardom in Russia, reconquer the secedent states, dispossess the peasants of their landed property and reduce the emancipated peasants to their former status of serfs. Before the disclosure of this Czaristic plot, the loyal Cossacks and Siberians in large numbers had enthusiastically rallied round the National standard, but later, when the ulterior motives of the Royalists were revealed, it was necessary to resort to conscription in filling the gaps in the ranks due to wholesale desertion. Thenceforward, at the bayonet's point, the unwilling Cossacks were coerced into joining the armies of Kolchak, Denekine, Yudenitch, and Ivanoff, and it has been darkly hinted that for every one so coerced into the ranks two were shot in cold blood for refusing to participate in a military campaign that had for its ultimate object, not the overthrow of Bolshevism merely, but the revocation and complete betrayal of the liberties of the Russian people.

The eight armies at length were set in motion, converging upon the Soviet strongholds, Moscow and Petrograd. In its initial phases, the general advance of these motley armies was wonderfully successful. Driving back the Bolshevik hordes on every front, they advanced rapidly, liberating scores of towns and villages and drawing round the Bolshevik citadels an ever-narrowing circle of steel. Suddenly, and with victory apparently in sight, the entire offensive collapsed. Due to the brutal discipline enforced by the Royalist officers, and the fear that the defeat of the Bolsheviks would but presage the restoration of Czarism



and their own enslavement, large numbers of the Cossacks mutinied on every front. Wholesale desertions took place, entire regiments going over en masse to the enemy. At the same time the population of many districts rose up in the rear of the discordant armies, harassing them continually. Several formidable bandit armies now made their appearance, attacking the flanks of both Kolchak's and Denekine's columns. Now was the time for the enemy to strike back! From his lair at Moscow, octopus-like, the Bolshevist Beast reached out his terrible arms in eight directions, seizing and completely crushing the Russo-Baltic armies, one by one. Only broken fragments of the once victorious armies succeeded in escaping from the grasp of the Beast.

The European Powers, now genuinely alarmed, took steps to repair the damage done. New armies were organized, and supplied liberally with all the paraphernalia of war, including tanks, airplanes, machine guns and gas bombs. Again the National forces were set in motion and again they drove back the Bolshevist columns, this time advancing to within sight of the gates of Moscow and Petrograd. But at the psychological moment, the Bolshevist fury was again let loose, and as before all those converging armies were either crushed to pieces or scattered to the four winds, never to reassemble for battle. Bolshevism had triumphed over all its external and internal foes, on every front!

With her eastern frontiers left open and undefended, it was feared that Europe might be immediately invaded and even devoured by the Bolshevist Beast, but this was not to be. Providentially, as it now appears, the Red hordes were not enabled to penetrate into Europe; though no army, except that of Poland alone, now opposed them, still they were deterred by some invisible, irresistible Power. They did succeed, however, in establishing the Kingdom of Antichrist throughout Holy Russia—an eighth part of the entire habitable globe—and 150,000,000 Christians submitted their docile necks to the godless yoke.

In lieu of a military invasion of Western Europe, the Bolshevik government now attempted its conquest and corruption by propaganda. Emissaries were sent into all the Western countries to preach the near advent of the Atheistic Empire, but only in Hungary were they successful. Due chiefly to the inertia of a famished population, the Hungarian radicals succeeded in seizing the powers of government and imposing their will upon the passive nation for a few months until dispossessed by a Roumanian army. Throughout this brief Communist regime in Hungary, a reign of terror persisted, thousands of worthy Christians, regardless of sex or age, being put to death by torture, some of them being buried or burned alive, by a Bolshevist "Commission" composed exclusively of apostate Jews. Not a few orthodox Jews, God-fearing men, who adhered to the religion of their fathers and who repudiated the tenets of Bolshevism, shared the fate of their Christian neighbors.

The so-called German Republic, which arose on the ruins of the Empire, gave early assurance that its inherited Vandal instincts remained unimpaired. During the greater part of 1919, fully 400,000 German soldiers continued under arms. One German army adventured into the Baltic region, attempting to Prussianize those states, six months after the Armistice! It cost the Allied Supreme Council a large expenditure in notepaper and postage stamps and a further loss in time and patience to politely order those Huns out of the Baltic region! Another German armed force was permitted to threaten Poland at a time when that liberated nation was generously using her army as a dike in holding back the Bolshevist flood which threatened momentarily to overflow into Europe. While the Huns were thus defying the Great Powers, the Supreme Council at Paris continued to hold its own armies in leash, although the Germans might easily have been brought to their senses had a few corps of Allied troops been sent forward to occupy Berlin.

Germany was not, however, to escape wholly unscathed for her crime against humanity. Early in the year 1919 she was in the throes of Civil War, when her own brood of



Bolshevists, the self-styled Spartacists, arose in insurrection, seizing many public buildings in the larger cities and even invading the sacred precincts of the Kaiser's former palace. The insurrection ended with the defeat of the Spartacists and the subsequent assassination of the foremost leaders.

The British Empire was virtually at war throughout the year with three of her subject nations who had asserted their indubitable right to independence and self-government. A considerable British army, supported by tanks, airplanes, machine guns, and gas bombs, was sent into Ireland to crush the spirit of the Irish people who had exercised their self-evident right to set up a Republic in 1916. The expedition, however, failed in its purpose. Although hundreds of Irish patriots were torn from their homes and transported to England, there to languish in dungeons without trial, still the Irish Republic continued to function secretly in all its departments. The Irish Law Courts practically superseded the Crown Courts throughout Ireland. Though their sessions were held clandestinely, yet their writs carried from end to end of Ireland. Renewed efforts were made to induce the Irish nation to repudiate their Republic and accept a Dominion form of government with two separate Parliaments, one for Ulster and the other for the rest of Ireland, but the proposal was rejected with scorn. Nothing short of complete independence would now suit 90 per cent of the Irish nation.

In India also the British Government faced a serious situation. The much oppressed natives, Hindus and Mohammedans alike, demanded redress of many grievances and a larger share as well in the government of the country. Some few concessions were made them, but on the whole there was little amelioration of their condition. In order to enforce their demands the natives inaugurated a national boycott of British trade and British schools. This policy resulted in dreadful reprisals on the part of the British. At Amritsar, where thousands of Hindus had peaceably assembled in their public park or square, they were surrounded by the British soldiers and slaughtered in cold blood. Some 300 were killed and 1500 wounded in this atrocious massacre. Gen. Dyer, the author of this dastardly crime, though removed from his command, was subsequently rewarded for his services to the Crown by a gift of \$50,000 in gold, subscribed by the British public.

In Egypt, too, there was vast unrest and widespread insurrection, wholly due to the violation by the British Government of its solemn pledge to restore their government to the Egyptian people at the conclusion of the World War. The crisis of the revolt was reached when a distinguished group of delegates, elected to plead Egypt's cause before the Peace Conference were seized by British officials, cast into prison on the Island of Malta and there detained until the Peace Conference had adjourned. Indignation meetings were at once held in all parts of Egypt, and frequent clashes between the Arabs and the British soldiers took place. Many public buildings were destroyed by the indignant natives. These encounters culminated in what has been described as a merciless massacre of Egyptian students in the streets of Cairo by British troops. Following this massacre a huge army, under command of Gen. E. H. H. Allenby, the conqueror of Palestine, was hurried into Egypt and by a demonstration in force succeeded in cowing the Egyptians into submission. But all attempts to pacify them failed.

The Peace Conference at Paris held the close attention of the world during the first half of the year 1919. Contrary to the general expectation, the decisions of the Conference tended to reopen rather than heal the ancient feuds existing among the nations. Although the door of freedom was opened to a few liberated races, it was slammed shut in the faces of other deserving nations, in particular such advanced peoples as the Irish, the Hindus and the Egyptians, who have been so long suffering under the British yoke.

Some of the results flowing from the Peace Conference were utterly iniquitous, as to instance one case only, the theft of the Shantung peninsula from China and its bestowal

upon Japan. The outrageous confiscation of the lands of an Allied nation by approval of England and France, and against the protest of the United States, taught the world that Imperialism was by no means dead; that Cæsarism still strode the planet.

The Covenant of the League of Nations, which formed a part of the German Peace Treaty, proved unacceptable to the American nation, and it was in due time rejected by the United States Senate on the ground that its acceptance would be equivalent to transferring the government of the United States into the custody of a coterie of European diplomats, who would be empowered to involve us in wars of their own making and ultimately degrade this greatest of all nations of earth to the status of a vassal state.

Since the signing of the German Peace Treaty involved the acceptance of the Covenant of Nations, our Government withheld its signature. Hence, a state of war between this nation and Germany continued to exist, though only in a technical sense.

England and France were the principal beneficiaries from the World War. Between them they held in 1919 a quarter of the entire land surface of the globe, and their ships were presumed to control the seven seas also. In addition to their former possessions, they now control the greater part of the continent of Africa and nearly the whole of the former Turkish Empire.

Italy acquired much new territory as a result of the World War, but was much chagrined at losing Fiume, the historic seaport on the Adriatic coast, whose Italianity has been undisputed for 2000 years. Though Italy had been promised Fiume as a reward for her participation in the War, and had subsequently wrested the port from Austria, still she was forced to relinquish it, because President Wilson insisted that it belonged to the Czechoslovaks, those liberated subjects of Austria and Germany, who now perhaps outnumbered the Italians in the district. With the patriotic purpose of restoring Fiume to Italy, Gabrielle D'Annunzio, the poet-aviator, at the head of a body of volunteer troops, seized the port and held it against the united protests of the Allied Powers and of the Italian Government.

The European convulsion of 1919, historically reviewed for the first time and in chronological order in the ensuing pages, is held by many eminent theologians to signify the second phase of the Battle of Armageddon—that "Great Battle of the Lord" predicted to occur in the Last Days of the World, first by the holy prophets of Israel 2500 years ago, and again in the Book of Revelations at the beginning of our era. As in the first phase of Armageddon, the assault upon the Christian citadel by the pagan host of Germany was repelled, so also, in the second phase, the attempted conquest of all Christendom by the Atheistic hordes, marching under the red banner of Bolshevism, was doomed to failure. But the end is not yet. Antichrist is merely held at bay in Russia gathering his forces for another and final attempt to effect the overthrow of Christian civilization.



GERMANY—JANUARY

## Spartacists Attempt Overthrow of Germany's New Government

Bloody Uprisings in Berlin and Many Other Centers Are Finally Quelled.

Karl Liebknecht, Rosa Luxemburg and Kurt Eisner Assassinated

SECTION 1—1919

GERMANY'S own brood of bolsheviks, the self-styled "Spartacists," struck savagely if futilely at the foundations of the Fatherland, in the opening weeks of 1919, enlisting the support of many thousands of former soldiers and sailors in an abortive effort to seize the reins of government. Bloody scenes were enacted in many cities before the outbreak was quelled.

The first riotous demonstration had occurred in Berlin, on December 24, 1918, when a body of German sailors, "beggars in rags," with machine-guns and rifles opened fire on the Castle stables and on the White Hall, shattering the sacred balcony from which the Kaiser in a better day was wont to address the awed multitude. Entering the Palace, the rebels took possession of its north and east wings. There they were reinforced by several companies of infantry. Two hours later the Guard Curassiers arrived at the scene of disorder and with field guns, easily expelled the rebels from the Castle. This skirmish proved to be the overture, merely, to the general uprising.

Berlin soon was in a state of utter disorganization and lawlessness. From improvised fortresses, in various parts of the city, the guns of the Spartacists spattered missiles day and night. These rebel strongholds frequently changed hands, sometimes twice within 24 hours. The rebels exulted when Eichhorn, the Berlin Chief of Police, after assuring them of his warmest sympathy, allowed the Spartacists to establish their headquarters in the Central Police Station. From this vantage point, Karl Liebknecht, the leader of the Spartacists, directed the revolt, and for its possession many furious battles were fought.

On January 6th, the Spartacans seized the Spandau Arsenal, with its stores of rifles and ammunition. Thus equipped, they were able to wage successful battle with the Government troops. One mob of rebel volunteers seized the Post Office, the Telegraph Office and several newspaper offices, which they afterwards barricaded. Another body of Spartacists made an unsuccessful assault upon the Chancellor's Palace, which was well defended by Prussian Guards with armored cars, machine-guns and artillery. As the masses of rebels drew near, they were repeatedly driven back at the point of the bayonet, with heavy losses. On the same day, a Spartacist delegation laid before the Government proposals for a compromise, but they were told that no compromise was possible while the revolutionists continued to occupy public buildings. That night a state of siege was proclaimed in Berlin.

The Spartacan revolution spread rapidly throughout Germany. Sympathetic strikes took place in Dresden, Dusseldorf, Eisen, Dortmund, Brunswick and Munich. In the Bavarian capital a mob of several thousand German Spartacists attempted to storm one of the largest banks. Premier Kurt

Eisner thereupon threatened to declare war against Germany unless order was restored.

With the arrival of Field Marshal von Hindenberg, at Berlin, on January 8th, the hand of the Government was strengthened. Loyal troops succeeded in capturing the Brandenburg Gate, after a prolonged struggle, and at a cost of many casualties. The various strongholds of the Spartacans were attacked with vigor, the battle raging with greatest violence around the Tageblatt building and the Wolff News Bureau, where the rebels had placed many machine guns.

By January 10th, however, the Government was in command of the situation. Cavalry and Prussian Guards were massed at all gates. All the public buildings had been recaptured but the Spartacans still held some of the railroad stations and the subways. Eichhorn, the traitorous Chief of Police, had fled and many of the Spartacan leaders had transferred their activities to the provinces. A general industrial strike was called for January 19, the date set for the National Assembly.

The principal Spartacan stronghold in Berlin, the Vorwarts building, still held out and from this point of vantage the rebels ceaselessly fired upon the troops and populace in the streets below. After being shattered by Government artillery this building was stormed and captured by Hindenberg's troops on January 11th. Of its Spartacan defenders, 300 were killed and 700 wounded. The total of their dead in the subsequent fighting reached 1300. During the same period 1000 innocent civilians were killed or wounded. The Government troops captured 500 prisoners, 1200 rifles and over 100 machine guns. It seemed as though the backbone of the Spartacan revolt in Berlin had been broken.

The government victory over the Spartacans at Police Headquarters was equally decisive. At 6 a. m., on January 12th, Government gunners opened a heavy bombardment with seven-centimeter guns from the roofs of adjacent houses. The Spartacans answered with a spirited but futile machine-gun fire. In less than an hour tremendous holes had been torn in Police Headquarters, bringing the second story crashing down. A moment later a white flag was hoisted as a sign of unconditional surrender.

On January 13th, the Spartacans made a final desperate attempt to recapture the Anhalt Railway Station, but they succeeded only in delaying the arrival of several trains filled with Government troops. Thenceforth they gave themselves over to looting. A branch office of the Disconto Bank was robbed of \$50,000 and goods valued at \$25,000 were removed from a big department store.

On January 14th, the Government required that every citizen should surrender his fire-arms within 24 hours on pain of a heavy fine and five years' imprisonment. Following this decree, thousands of arms were surrendered peaceably.



A new Chief of Police, Richter, was appointed. His first care was to rearm the police, who had been deprived of their weapons by the traitor Eich-

horn. Orders were issued for the arrest of the Spartacan leaders, Liebknecht, Ledebour, Meyer, Radek and Rosa Luxemburg.

## Karl Liebknecht and Rosa Luxemburg Killed

Karl Liebknecht and Rosa Luxemburg, the accepted leaders of the Spartacans, both met a tragic end on the night of January 15, 1919. Captured in a house in the suburbs of Berlin, Liebknecht at first denied his identity, asserting that his name was Marcossou. When confronted by Frau Marcossou, however, he acknowledged the truth. He was then removed under a strong guard to the Eden Hotel, in front of which a tumultuous throng had gathered.

When the crowd clamored for his life, Liebknecht derisively remarked to the soldiers on guard: "They would kill Jesus Christ himself."

Fearing violence, the officer in charge decided to remove Liebknecht in an automobile to the Moabit prison. On the way to the prison, the car broke down, and Liebknecht was shot dead, it is alleged, while attempting to escape.

Rosa Luxemburg also had denied her identity; she even had threatened the officers who held her. She, too, was removed to the Eden hotel, which was then surrounded by an enormous mob. When they demanded her life, the guard attempted to save her by asserting that she had been taken away.

Refusing to accept his statement, the crowd rushed inside the hotel and seized the misguided woman. She defended herself bravely, but was knocked unconscious by heavy canes in the hands of assassins.

A detail of soldiers rescued Rosa from the mob, and, placing her in an automobile, headed for the

Moabit prison. They had gone but a few hundred yards, however, when a man jumped on the running board and shot at Rosa, killing her.

Still the car proceeded on its way until, at Hitzig-bridge, the masses were so dense that its path was blocked. There Rosa's body was snatched from the car and borne away into the darkness.

## Bavarian Premier Assassinated

Kurt Eisner, the Bavarian premier and inveterate foe of the Hohenzollerns, was assassinated in February, 1919, by Count Arco Valley, a member of the ancient Wittelsback family, sometime rulers of Bavaria. That the murder of Eisner was inspired in Germany admits of no doubt.

Eisner, at the Berne Socialist Congress, had publicly exposed the War guilt of the Central Powers; he even professed to have in his possession documentary evidence proving that the German General Staff were still collaueing with the Russian Bolshevik government.

Fearing the political effect of Eisner's revelations, the German and Bavarian monarchists at a secret meeting, decided to remove him from their path. Count Arco Valley was chosen by lot to assassinate the premier. He shot and killed Eisner in Munich. In reprisal, Count Valley, Minister Auer and Clerical Deputy Oesel of the Bavarian Diet were shot dead by Spartacans.

## IRELAND AND AMERICA—JANUARY

### Irish Republic Proclaimed and Irish Parliament Sits In Dublin

Sinn Fein Party Wins 73 Seats in British Parliament, but Refuses to Occupy Them  
President DeValera Visits America—British Army Attempts to Overthrow the New-Born Republic

## SECTION 2—1919

THE Sinn Fein ("Ourselves Only") movement overspread three-fourths of Ireland during 1919, practically all the inhabitants, excepting a comparatively few privileged office holders, favored manufacturers and fanatic Ulsterites, insisting upon their inalienable right of self government.

In the British general elections held in December, 1918, the Sinn Fein party gained 73 seats in the British Parliament. Asserting that the election constituted an act of self determination, and declaring that their choice was an Irish Parliament in an Irish Republic, they refused to take their seats in the British Chamber. Instead, 25 patriotic Irish Parliamentarians, meeting secretly in Dublin on January 21, 1919, declared the independence of Ireland and organized a "Dail Eireann" or Irish parliament.

Charles Burgess was elected Speaker. He appointed Prof. Edmond De Valera, Arthur Griffiths and Count Horace Plunkett a committee to present the claims of Ireland at the Paris Peace Conference. Prof. De Valera and Arthur Griffiths were in prison

at the time, but on February 3d, De Valera escaped from prison and later in the year came to the United States to plead the cause of Ireland. On April 5th, De Valera was elected President of the Irish Republic at a private session of the Parliament held in Dublin.

The Tory Government of Great Britain ineffectively exerted all its powers to stay the progress of liberty in Ireland. Many of the Irish patriots were thrust into prison and kept there without trial. Others were deported to England without trial or conviction. The homes of the patriots were broken into by British soldiers and searched for incriminating documents. A British army variously estimated at 40,000 to 100,000, supported by heavy cannon, field guns, machine guns, tanks, airplanes and other infernal devices, was planted on Irish soil, with Gen. Sir John French, a former commander-in-chief of the British forces, in command. This Army attempted without success the coercion of Ireland. Many collisions occurred between the patriots and the troops,



and several casualties resulted on both sides, but the Irish patriots refused to be bullied.

Meantime, the Tories of Britain exerted themselves to prevent the presentation of Ireland's cause before the Peace Conference. In spite of his academic and rhetorical promise to the whole world that all subject nations should have the opportunity of self determination, President Woodrow Wilson shut his ears to Ireland's plea for recognition at the Paris Conference, thereby encouraging the British Tory Government in their delusion that the freemen of America would not uphold the cause of Irish freedom.

Never were Tories or toadies more egregiously in error. President Edmond De Valera's tour of America was one continuous ovation. Immense crowds greeted him everywhere. The largest halls in the largest cities were packed by enthusiastic Americans of all creeds and classes, voicing the almost unanimous desire of this nation that Ireland's independence of Great Britain be acknowledged. De Valera was greeted by civic dignitaries of high

degree, clergymen of all denominations and the audiences which applauded him were representative of every shade of political and religious opinion known to this Republic.

The Congress of the United States passed a resolution urging that the claims of Ireland to independence be heard. State legislatures put themselves on record in favor of Ireland's freedom. Cities and towns extended formal welcome to De Valera.

Meantime, a little coterie of Ulster ministers, financed by the linen manufacturers of Belfast, who have grown enormously wealthy on the sweated labor of the women and girls of Ulster, also toured America with the hope of stirring up religious feeling against the Sinn Fein. They were instantly challenged by the Protestant Friends of Ireland in America, including many Presbyterian and Episcopal pulpit orators of renown, who assured their audiences that religion did not enter into the question of Irish independence, but that on the contrary many of the Sinn Fein leaders were Protestants. The Ulsterites faded from sight and were heard from afterward as addressing secret meetings merely.

WESTERN THEATER, JAN. — JUNE

## Italy, France and Belgium Take Pres. Wilson to Their Hearts

The President Breaks Away From the Peace Conference for a Brief Visit to America

SECTION 3 — 1919

PRESIDENT WILSON'S visit to Italy, in the opening days of 1919, on invitation of King Victor Emmanuel, was attended by popular demonstrations comparable only to those accorded to a Cæsar or a Pompey. On New Year's Day, upon his return to Paris from his visit to England, President Wilson and party started out on their journey to Italy. Reaching Modane, on the Franco-Italian frontier, they were met by Ambassador Thomas Nelson Page, Count Macchi de Cellere, the Italian Ambassador to the United States, the Duke of Lante and the Prince of Udine, all of whom continued with the party to Rome.

Immense crowds were gathered at all the stations to greet the President, according him a continuous ovation all the way. In Turin and at Genoa the civic and military officials tendered the President a hearty welcome. Arriving at Rome on January 3d, the party were met at the station by King Victor Emmanuel, the members of the cabinet, the members of Parliament, the Diplomatic Corps and a million citizens, whose welcoming shouts rent the air.

At the Quirinal, President and Mrs. Wilson took luncheon with the Royal Family and the President was presented with a diploma of honorary membership in San Luca Academy. In the afternoon the President was greeted in joint session by the Senate and Chamber of Deputies in the presence of King Victor Emmanuel, Queen Eleena, the Duchess of Aosta, the Duke of Genoa and members of the Diplomatic Corps. This was the first time in history that a foreign guest had been so received by the Italian Parliament.

A state dinner at the Quirinal was tendered the President, the King making the address of welcome.

After the dinner the President was driven to the Capital, where he was made a citizen of Rome.

President Wilson's last day in Rome, Saturday, January 4th, began with a visit to the Pantheon, where wreaths were laid on the graves of King Victor Emmanuel II, and King Humbert. An address before the Academy of the Lincei followed.

After luncheon at the American embassy, the President drove to the Vatican, where he held audience with Pope Benedict XV, after which the President was received by Cardinal Gasparri, the papal secretary of state. Later in the day a visit was made to the American Protestant Episcopal Church. After an informal dinner with the King and Queen at the Quirinal and another call at the Villa Savoia, President Wilson and party left Rome on the return trip to Paris by way of Genoa, Milan and Turin. At Genoa President Wilson received the freedom of the city. Before leaving Genoa, the President placed a wreath on both the Columbus and the Mazzini Memorials in the presence of a vast concourse of people.

At Milan, so dense were the crowds that the streets and squares were almost impassable. The freedom of the city was tendered him. Receptions were held both at the City Hall and at the Royal Palace, after which the President attended the opera at the La Scola Theater.

In Turin, on January 6, the President was received with the same tumultuous enthusiasm as in the other cities visited. Among the million people assembled to welcome him were 1,000 mayors from the cities and towns of Piedmont who passed before the President in a long line, each receiving a smile and a hand clasp. The honor of citizenship was conferred upon him. Addresses at the University



of Turin and at Philharmonic Hall, and a luncheon given by the Mayor of Turin filled the day. Leaving Turin that evening, President Wilson returned to Paris the next morning, January 7th.

#### Again in France

After his return to Paris, President Wilson immersed himself in the arduous and complicated work of framing the covenant of the League of Nations and in other important features of the Treaty with Germany. At a luncheon given him by the French Senate on January 20th, he made a notable address. On January 25th, he addressed a delegation of women who called upon him at the Villa Murat to urge upon him the inclusion of woman suffrage in the Peace Conference program. Addressing the French Chamber of Deputies on February 3d, and following a eulogy of the French nation, President Wilson assured France that America had come "to work out for you a world which is fit to live in and in which all countries can enjoy the heritage of liberty for which France and America and England and Italy have paid so dear."

In addressing a delegation from the French Association for a Society of Nations on February 13th, President Wilson dwelt on the benefits the World War already had wrought, especially in bringing the Family of Nations together. On the eve of his departure from France, February 14th, for a brief visit to America, President Wilson issued a statement to the French people expressive of his profound sense of the hospitality of the French people and the French Government.

#### A Brief Visit to America

President Wilson at this time deemed it expedient to detach himself from the work of the Peace Conference and return to America, where his presence during the closing hours of the 65th Congress was urgently required. Accompanied by Mrs. Wilson and Ambassador David Francis, he sailed from Brest on the liner George Washington for Boston. In addition to the Presidential party, there were 80 officers and 2,000 soldiers on board the George Washington returning home from France. President Wilson was accorded a warm welcome on his arrival at Boston on February 23d. In the evening he addressed an audience of 7,000 in Mechanics Building.

Returning to Washington, the President on March 3d addressed a Conference of Governors and Mayors in the White House, called to discuss the proper method of restoring all the labor conditions of the country to a normal basis as soon as possible.

The neglect of Congress to pass a General Deficiency Bill, before its adjournment on March 4th, provoked the President to a sharp censure of the obstruction tactics pursued by a certain coterie of Senators, but though urged to do so he refused to call an extra session of Congress. Proceeding to New York on March 4th, he addressed a non partisan assemblage in the Metropolitan Opera House, defending his course in the Paris negotiations and attacking the arguments of his critics. Former President Taft, who also spoke, defended the League of Nations and denied that it contained a menace to the Monroe Doctrine.

On March 5th, President Wilson again sailed for France on the George Washington, which was conveyed by the battleship Montana, reaching Brest on March 13th and Paris on the following day. His

reception, though cordial, was by no means as demonstrative as on the occasion of his first visit. Taking up his abode in the Hotel Boschoffsheim, as the guest of the French Government, President Wilson from now on until the signing of the Peace Treaty with Germany, devoted nearly all his time and energy to the problems of the Peace settlement.

The President, nevertheless, made several public speeches. On May 9th, he addressed the International Law Association in Paris; the following day he spoke before the Academy of Moral and Political Sciences; he addressed the Pan American Peace Delegation on May 26th, and a large assemblage of soldiers and civilians at the Memorial Day exercises in the American Cemetery at Suresnes on May 30th.

#### President Visits Belgium

Pressure of Peace Conference work prevented the President's acceptance of an urgent invitation from King Albert to visit Belgium until June 17th, when, accompanied by Mrs. Wilson and a small party, he made a motor tour of 100 miles through martyred Belgium, visiting in succession Furnes; Wulpen, Newport, Dixmude, Roulers, Ostend and Zeebrugge. From the latter place, the party took train to Brussels where the President rode to King Albert's palace amid the cheers of an enormous crowd. On June 18th, following a motor trip to Charleroi, the President attended a luncheon at the American legation given by Minister Brand Whitlock.

President Wilson and King Albert, with their wives, then went to Malines to pay their respects to the noble Cardinal Mercier, with whom they took tea; and on to Louvain, where the University conferred upon the President a doctorate of laws. Returning to Brussels, they were given a prodigious welcome, Burgomaster Max officiating and the vast crowd in the square singing "The Star Spangled Banner" and the Belgian national hymn. After a gala dinner in the King's palace, the President and his party boarded their train for Paris arriving there the following morning.

#### Goodbye to France and Home Again

With the conclusion of the Treaty of Peace on June 28th, President Wilson's sojourn in Europe came to a close. A farewell dinner had been tendered him and all the delegates to the Conference on June 26th by President Poincare. President and Mrs. Wilson left Paris for Brest on June 28th, accompanied by French military aids and by Stephen Pichon, the Foreign Minister of France. Only 1,000 persons assembled to bid him farewell. At Brest, the Presidential party boarded the George Washington, which also carried 2,500 American troops, and, escorted by the superdreadnaught Oklahoma and four destroyers, the voyage across the Atlantic was begun. The Fourth of July was spent at sea, and the President improved the occasion to address the soldiers on board.

Arrived in New York, where a tumultuous welcome awaited him from the assembled warships, the President proceeded to Carnegie Hall, where he addressed a large gathering. Then, boarding a special train, he left for Washington. Though the hour was late when he reached the Capitol, a throng was in and about the station to greet the returning Executive, who had been absent nearly seven months in Europe.



PARIS, JAN.—JUNE

## Peace Conference Opens Its Eventful Sessions in Paris

Groundwork Laid Through the "Inquiry" of a Group of American Specialists  
Treaty With Germany and League of Nations Covenant Summarized  
"Big Four" Nations Arrogate to Themselves the Chief Authority

SECTION 4—1919

THE Peace Congress, wherein for the first time in history all the friendly nations of earth were represented, held its first formal session at Paris, in the Salle de la Paix, on Saturday, January 18, 1919.

The groundwork for the Peace Congress, or rather for America's participation therein, had been laid as far back as September, 1917, five months after the United States entered the War, and upon the initiative of President Wilson. Foreseeing the defeat of the Germanic alliance, and the inevitability of a Conference of the Powers to formulate the terms of peace, the President had prudently taken steps to provide for a body of expert American advisers who should acquaint themselves with every essential detail of the many intricate problems that were certain to be involved in the regrouping of the European and Asiatic nations as a result of the War. Col. Edward M. House, of Texas, the President's close confidant, was empowered to organize this staff of American specialists in the geography, history, ethnology, economics and diplomacy of the nations of Europe and Asia. Early in 1918, and under the vague designation of "The Inquiry," the first session of this council of experts was held in New York, with Col. House acting as chairman, Mr. David Huntley Miller of the New York Bar as treasurer and Mr. Walter Lippman, a former editor of the New Republic, as secretary. For their use, base maps for the whole of Europe and the Near East were constructed. By the middle of October, 1918, the American experts had worked out tentative boundaries for the whole of Middle Europe; and in November these were sent to Col. House, who was then in Paris, representing our Government in the armistice negotiations and the arrangements for the Peace Conference that followed. The final organization of "The Inquiry" was effected in the fall of 1918, with Dr. S. E. Mezes of the College of the City of New York as Director, Dr. Isaiah Bowman as Chief Territorial Specialist, and other eminent college professors chosen as Regional Specialists, Economic Specialists, History Specialists and Boundary Geography Specialists. This body of experts went to Paris in December, 1918, where they assisted the commissioners plenipotentiary with data and recommendations and themselves served on commissions dealing with three types of problems: First, territorial; second, economic questions and reparations; third, international law and the League of Nations. Their designation was now changed to that of "Territorial Section of the Peace Conference." In general, the contribution of these American experts to the equitable settlement of the peace problems was of the highest value, and it is gratifying to note that the decisions reached by them were only in the rarest instances modified by the Supreme Council. The report of The Inquiry on the main outlines of an equitable

settlement of Europe's new problems was, in fact, the basis upon which President Wilson formulated his Fourteen Points, which were later incorporated in the armistice proceedings.

The first German overtures for peace were made when, on October 5, 1918, the new Chancellor of Germany, Prince Maximilian of Harden, requested President Wilson to "take in hand the restoration of peace," accepting as a basis the program set forth in the President's message of January 8, 1918, and in his later pronouncements." But until assurance was given that the German Government should accept that program in its entirety, and agree to evacuate occupied territories while abstaining from further acts of inhumanity, spoliation and desolation on land and on sea, President Wilson refused to undertake the task. After full assurance had been given in the name of the German nation, though not in the name of the Kaiser, President Wilson referred the German Government to Marshal Foch for the arrangement of armistice terms.

### "The Council of Ten"

For weeks prior to the formal opening of the Congress, there had been many conferences of the delegates representing the great Powers, to consider the preliminaries of the organization of the Congress. A swarm of delegates already had appeared in Paris, representing the lesser countries which had associated themselves with the Allies, and demanding a place at the peace table. The big powers, however, had no intention of giving these little fellows a voice in the preliminary deliberations. Instead, the delegates of the five great nations—the United States, France, England, Italy and Japan—agreed to form themselves into a Supreme Council of Ten, each of the five nations being allowed two representatives. This Council of Ten arrogated to themselves the authority of the whole Assembly. For nearly three months, the Council was recognized as the official source of authority of the Conference. "It called the Plenary Assembly into being, regulated the activities, and when it saw fit, reviewed the action of that body. It created commissions to study special subjects in detail and prepare them for the consideration of the Conference."

The Supreme Council, moreover, seemed still enamored with secret diplomatic methods; in fact four of the great nations represented in the Council were already involved with secret treaties by means of which they intended to barter and betray whole populations as did the tyrannic nations of old. Upon the pretext that the Peace negotiations might be "interminably protracted" if "premature publicity" were given to the proceedings, they refused to grant the press full rights of publicity, admitting the journalists conditionally to the full conference only.



Having as they supposed blindfolded the press, the plotting diplomats at Paris felt no misgivings as to any premature disclosure of the secret treaties by which they subsequently betrayed Shantung to the Japanese, Dalmatia to the Italians, Poland in part to Germany and Armenia to the Turks and Kurds.

President Wilson, though a member of the Supreme Council, evidently did not share the full confidence of his associates, for he has assured the nation that he was unaware of the secret treaties which England, Japan, Italy and France arranged among themselves in express violation of the cardinal principle of diplomatic publicity which they had accepted.

### Belgium Stands Up for Her Rights

There was, moreover, some difficulty encountered in reaching an agreement upon an equitable representation of the nations in the full Assembly. At one of the secret conferences, held before the Peace Congress convened, it had been agreed that each of the five great powers—America, Great Britain, France, Italy and Japan—should be entitled to three delegates, but that each of the British dominions should also be allowed three delegates. Brazil was to have three delegates, but the lesser nations must be content with one or two at the most. Belgium naturally protested against this inequitable arrangement and her quota was accordingly increased to three. Other amendments were adopted and the representation of the different powers was finally fixed as follows:

### Basis of Representation

Five delegates each for the United States, the British Empire, France, Italy, Japan; three each for Belgium, Brazil and Serbia; two each for China, Greece, Poland, Portugal, Roumania, Siam, Czechoslovakia and the little Kingdom of Hedjas, so-called, in Arabia; one each for Cuba, Guatemala, Haiti, Honduras, Liberia, Nicaragua, Panama, Bolivia, Ecuador, Peru and Uruguay; three delegates for "The British Dominions and India." Montenegro will be allowed one delegate in the indefinite future when her political situation shall have become stabilized, and Russia's representation was to be fixed by the conference at a subsequent date. Sir James Eric Drummond of Great Britain was chosen First Secretary-General of the proposed League of Nations, his salary being fixed at \$30,000.

### The Congress Formally Opens

With a ruffle of drums and a blare of trumpets, the Peace Conference was formally opened at 3 o'clock on the afternoon of Saturday, January 18, 1919. President Poincare of France took his place at the head of the Council table, which was arranged in the form of a huge horseshoe with the American delegates at his right, the British at his left and the other representatives disposed variously about the board.

After calling the Congress to order, President Poincare withdrew, saluting each delegate as he retired. On motion of President Wilson, seconded by Premier Lloyd George, Premier Georges Clemenceau of France was elected as Permanent Chairman of the Congress.

The delegates at once settled down to work, taking up the questions that seemed most pressing. Among

these were the drafting of the League of Nations, the recognition of Russia, international legislation on Labor, responsibilities and punishments in connection with the War, reparations for War damages and international regime of ports, waterways and railways. This work, in the main, was intrusted to committees which in turn, were assisted by advisers and experts

### The Russian Fiasco at Prinkipo

The situation in Soviet Russia continued to prove a source of much uneasiness to the Peace Conference. Due to the rivalries among the various Russian Nationalist Governments which were waging independent warfare against the Bolsheviks, the Allies had withheld recognition from all of them. Early in January, the British Government proposed to the French Foreign Office that an invitation be sent by wireless to the Bolshevik Government at Moscow, to Gen. Kolchak at Omsk, to Gen. Denekine at Ekaterinodar and to President Tchaikovsky at Archangel, for the declaration by them of a truce during the period of the Peace Conference. If the Russian belligerents should agree to this proposal they were to be allowed to send delegates to the Peace Conference. The French Government declined to indorse the plan.

President Wilson then proposed to the Supreme Council that a wireless message be sent to the various secedent governments in Russia, inviting them to send delegates to the Island of Prinkipo in the Sea of Marmora to confer with Allied representatives there on February 15th.

The Bolshevik Government, on February 6th, replied that it was willing to begin conversations with the Entente, with the object of bringing about a cessation of military activities. At the same time, the Bolshevik leaders offered to guarantee the payment of interest on Russia's debts by means of stipulated quantities of raw materials, and to place concessions in mines and forests at the disposal of the European and American capitalists, "provided the social and economic order of the Soviet Government was not affected by internal disorders connected with these concessions."

The Supreme Council selected two representatives from each of the five great powers to act as a joint committee at the proposed conference. Lithuania, Esthonia and Ukraina also accepted the plan. But the Russian Governments of Kolchak, Denekine, Horvath and Tchaikovsky scornfully refused to meet the delegates of the Bolsheviks, and as the Reds themselves showed no signs of complying with the provision for a military truce, the proposed Prinkipo Conference proved a fiasco.

### Terms Imposed Upon Germany

The Treaty of Peace with Germany included the following mandates: Surrender of the Kaiser and other officials for trial; restoration of Alsace-Lorraine; internationalization of the Sarre Basin for fifteen years, the coal mines therein being ceded to France in recompense for the destruction by the Germans of the coal fields near Lens; cession to Belgium of Moresnet and districts of Eupen and Malmédy; cession to Czechoslovakia of a part of Upper Silesia; cession of another part of Upper Silesia to Poland, with plebiscites arranged for in certain districts; cession to Allies of Memel; cession to Poland of most of Posen and portions of West Prussia and Pomerania west of the Vistula, and of West Prussia east of the Vistula, plebiscites to be taken in certain cases; creation of three zones in Schleswig, the nationality of each to be settled by vote of the people; recognition of the independence of Austria, renunciation of all rights outside of Europe; reduction of German Army to a maximum strength of 100,000 by March 1, 1920; conscription



to be abolished in Germany; all forts 50 kilometers east of the Rhine to be dismantled; Allied occupation of parts of Germany for fifteen years, or until reparation is made; reduction of navy to six battleships, six light cruisers, twelve cruisers and twelve torpedo boats, without submarines and with a personnel not exceeding 15,000 men; all other war vessels to be surrendered or destroyed; Heligoland forts to be demolished; Kiel Canal to be opened to all nations; Germany's fourteen submarine cables to be surrendered; no air forces permitted with the military or naval services; full responsibility accepted for all damages caused during the War, the initial payment to be 20,000,000,000 marks (five billions of dollars); the Inter-Allied Reparation Commission to make a final determination of the total due from Germany before May 1, 1921.

### The League of Nations Commission

At the second plenary session of the Peace Conference, January 25th, the General Peace Council decided that the interests of civilization in the future required the formation of a League of Nations. It was agreed that this League should be created as an integral part of the general Treaty of Peace. A special committee was appointed to frame the Covenant, those representing the five great powers being: United States, President Woodrow Wilson and Col. Edward M. House; Great Britain, Lord Robert Cecil and Gen. Jans Christian Smuts; France, Leon Bourgeois and Ferdinand Larnaude; Italy, Premier Orlando; Japan, Baron Chinda. Other nations represented on this Commission were Belgium, Serbia, Brazil, Portugal and China. The first meeting of this Commission was held in Col. House's apartment in Paris on February 3d, President Wilson presiding.

### Other Commissions Organize

On the same day three other important committees held their first formal meetings. The Committee on Responsibility for the War elected Robert Lansing, the American Secretary of State, as President; Sir Gordon Stewart of England and Senator Scialoja of Italy, Vice-Presidents; and M. de la Pradelle of France, Secretary.

The Committee on Reparations chose Louis Klotz, French Minister of Finance, as President and Premier Hughes of Australia and M. Vanderheufel of Belgium as Vice-Presidents. America's representatives were B. M. Barusch, J. W. Davis and Vance McCormick.

The Commission on Ports, Waterways and Railways elected Signor Crispi, the Italian Minister of Supplies, as Chairman and M. Sirton of Belgium as Vice-Chairman. On request of the Supreme Council, the membership of this committee was enlarged by the addition of delegates representing Czecho-Slovakia, China, Greece, Serbia, Uruguay, Portugal and Poland. The French and British presented a program which included recognition of the general principle of the right of nations to control international waterways and international railways.

### Supreme War Council Meets

The Supreme Council sat for the first time as a Supreme War Council on January 24th. Besides President Wilson and the several Premiers, there were present on this occasion Marshal Foch, Field Marshal Haig, Gen. John J. Pershing, Generals Diaz, Wilson, Billing, Bliss and Robilant.

The Council conferred with Marshal Foch and other military experts as to the strength of the forces to be allowed to the various Allied Powers on the Western front during the period of the Armistice. To examine the subject more closely, a special committee was chosen, consisting of Lord Winston

Churchill, Marshal Foch, Gen. H. Tasker Bliss, Gen. Diaz and M. Loucheur. The War Council also agreed to recommend for the approval of the governments concerned the issue of an identical medal and ribbon to all the forces of the Allied and Associated Powers which had taken part in the War.

### Warning Sent to Belligerent Nations

The Supreme War Council, at this time, transmitted by wireless telegraphy to all parts of the world a solemn warning against the continued use of armed forces in any quarter of the world. Possession of territory gained by force at this juncture, they urged, would seriously prejudice the claims of those who used this means.

On the same day, the Council discussed the mission of the Allied and Associated Powers to Poland, and to M. Pichon of France was assigned the task of preparing draft instructions for the approval of the representatives of the Powers.

The questions of territorial readjustments in connection with the conquest of the German colonies was also under discussion and the particular interests of the several British dominions in the solution of this question were noted.

### International Labor Legislation

A commission, composed of two representatives from each of the five great Powers and five representatives to be elected by the other Powers represented at the Peace Conference, was appointed to inquire into the conditions of employment, and to recommend the form of a permanent agency to continue such inquiry and consideration in co-operation with and under the direction of the League of Nations. The representatives from the five great Powers were: United States, E. N. Hurley and Samuel Gompers; Great Britain, George Nicoll Barnes and Ian Malcolm; France, M. Colliard and L. P. Locheur; Italy, Signor Des Planches and Signor Cabrini; Japan, M. Otician and M. Oka. Representing the lesser Powers were: Belgium, M. Vandervelde and M. Mahaim; Cuba, A. S. Pustamente; Czecho-Slovak Republic, M. Benes.

### Personnel of the Peace Conference

The personnel of the Peace Conference, as finally perfected, was announced on January 29th, as follows:

President, Premier Georges Clemenceau of France; Vice-Presidents, Secretary of State Robert Lansing of the United States, Premier Lloyd George of Great Britain, Premier Orlando of Italy, Baron Saionji of Japan; Secretary-General M. Dutasta of France.

Secretaries: For the United States—Joseph C. Grew, Leland Harrison and Col. U. S. Grant, 3d; for the British Empire—Lieut.-Col. Sir Maurice Hankey, Herman Norman and Eric Phipps; for France—M. P. Gauthier and M. Debearn; for Italy—Compte Aldrovandi, Marquis Charles Durazzo and M. G. Brambilla; for Japan—Sadao Saburi.

Committee on Verification of Powers: Henry White, United States; Lord Arthur Balfour, British Empire; Jules Cambon, France; Marquis Salvago Raggi, Italy; K. Matsui, Japan.

Committee on Drafting: James Brown Scott, United States; Mr. Hurst, British Empire; M. Fromager, France; Ricci Busatti, Italy; H. Nagosaka, Japan.



### Japan Seizes Shantung From the Chinese

A sharp difference of opinion had arisen regarding the disposition of the German colonies in the Far East and in the South Pacific, due to the insistence of Australia that the Pacific colonies taken from Germany by Australian troops be ceded outright to Australia, and the existence of treaties between Japan and Great Britain disposing of the former German possessions.

There was friction also between the Chinese and Japanese delegations over the question of Kiaochow and the Pacific Islands. It appears that, after the surrender of the German protectorate on the Chinese seacoast, China notified Japan that she intended to declare the War zone ended.

Japan responded with the demand that China give assent to all matters upon which the Japanese Government might agree with the German Government relating to the disposition of Germany's rights and concessions in the Province of Shantung. Japan warned China against making these demands known to any other Power. She also demanded the right to construct a railroad to Weissen. Furthermore, Japan warned China that she must not lease to any other nation any territory on the coast of Shantung and must open some cities as commercial ports.

China attempted to assert her sovereignty first, by demanding the retrocession of Shantung, then by urging indemnification for the losses caused by Japan's military operations, and finally by insisting upon her right of participation in any negotiations with Germany over Shantung.

Japan replied with an ultimatum, giving China 48 hours in which to accede to her oppressive terms. Under Japanese duress, therefore, China finally signed the agreements, while protesting to the world that she had acted under compulsion.

Pursuant to these "agreements," Japan and Germany were given authority to dispose of Germany's "rights" in Shantung; China promised not to alienate any territory on the coast to any foreign power, and further agreed to apply to Japan for a construction loan for the new railway in Shantung.

It was agreed further that Kiaochow should be left to the disposal of Japan and that it should be restored by the Japanese to China on the condition that it be opened as a commercial port; that concessions under the exclusive jurisdiction of Japan should be established at a place to be designated by Japan; that an international concession should be established if the Powers so chose, and that the disposal of the building and property of Germany should be arranged between China and Japan before the restoration was made.

The Chinese Government subsequently asserted that this "agreement" was obtained under a threat of hostilities and therefore did not constitute a valid right, an opinion which was approved by the majority sentiment of the civilized world.

### "Mandates" for the German Colonies in Africa

The exchange of views on the proper disposition of the German colonies in the Pacific and in Africa continued at the meeting of the Supreme Council on January 30th. It was tentatively agreed that there should be incorporated in the constitution of the League of Nations a plan for administering the col-

onies for their own peoples under a system of "mandates" by which the League should assign them to various individual powers for administration.

Premier Hughes of Australia opposed the plan, insisting on the outright annexation of New Guinea to Australia. His arguments, however, were overborne by President Wilson, who defended the mandatory plan.

President Wilson contended that to parcel out the German colonies among the Allied nations would be in direct contravention of the principles enumerated in the "Fourteen Points," which had been accepted as a basis of peace. Such a division, moreover, would violate the principles of the League of Nations. Finally the President warned the Supreme Council that he should not be a party to a division of Germany's colonial possessions among the Allied Powers.

A decision was finally reached, on February 15th, covering the whole question of the disposition of conquered territories. It was agreed that the German colonies should not be returned to Germany, because of mismanagement, cruelty to the natives and the use of these colonies as submarine bases. Provision was made whereby the well-being and development of backward colonial regions are regarded as the "sacred trust of civilization," over which the League of Nations shall exercise supervisory care.

The administration or tutelage of these regions, it was agreed, should be intrusted to the "more advanced nations," who would act as mandatories in behalf of the League of Nations.

Colonies like those in Central Africa would require a mandatory with large powers of administration, responsible for the suppression of the slave trade, the liquor, ammunition and arms traffic, and the prevention of the exercise of military authority on the part of the natives, except for native police purposes. No mention was made, however, of the necessity of suppressing England's extensive opium traffic with partly-coerced nations and tribes.

Other colonies and localities, such as those in German Southwest Africa and some of the South Pacific Islands, have such sparse and scattered populations, and are so separated from other communities, that the laws of the mandatory country would probably prevail in these regions.

The conquered regions of Armenia, Mesopotamia, Syria, Palestine and Arabia, were to be detached from the Turkish Empire. The mandates in these regions would be comparatively light and would probably permit of provisional recognition of the independence of these communities. At stated intervals, the mandatories would report to the League of Nations concerning the manner in which a colony was being administered.

The Council of Three—President Wilson, Premier Clemenceau and Prime Minister Lloyd George—on May 7th announced this disposition of the German colonies:

Togoland and Kamerun in Africa—France and Great Britain shall make a joint recommendation to the League of Nations as to their future.

German East Africa—The mandate shall be held by Great Britain.

German Southwest Africa—The mandate shall be held by the Union of South Africa.

German Samoan Islands—The mandate shall be held by New Zealand.

Naurn—The mandate shall be given to the British Empire.



German Pacific Islands north of the equator—mandate given to Japan.

German Pacific possessions south of the equator, excluding the German Samoan Islands and Naurn—mandate shall be held by Australia.

### Opposition to the League of Nations Proposal

The Commission to whom had been assigned the task of formulating a plan for a League of Nations began their sessions on February 5th. While there was practical agreement as to the desirability of forming some kind of a League of Nations, still it was made apparent that the French delegates, skeptical of its immediate efficiency, desired to maintain the old order of "balance of power." Acute difference arose over the question of the power to be delegated to the League to enforce its decisions.

The American and British views coincided in favor of a modified form of authority, but the French delegates on the other hand contended for an International Army strong enough to enforce its decrees.

### Clemenceau Appeals to Americans Direct

A crisis was reached in the clash of ideas when, on February 9th, Premier Clemenceau of France issued a direct appeal to the American people, over President Wilson's head, asking their support of the French nation's position. He drew attention to the menace which Germany still held for stricken France, which was wrecked beyond resuscitation, while Germany had escaped unhurt. Industrially and commercially, as between France and Prussia, the victory for the present, he said, was with the Hun. Moreover, Germany's debt is almost wholly a debt to her own people, and easily repudiated, but the debt of France is one which must be paid.

The French investments abroad, before the World War began, he said, amounted to the colossal sum of twelve billions of dollars, consisting largely in loans to Russia, the Balkan states, Turkey and Mexico. From these investments France could derive no income at present, while Germany would be assisted financially by the Allies in starting her industries anew. The military situation in Germany he declared, presented disquieting features for France. There remained a chaotic, yet fruitful Russia, from which great help may be drawn by the Teutons. With the British Army demobilized, the American Army withdrawn, and France isolated, there was to be considered the danger of a resumption of warfare by Germans, which might embarrass France were it not for President Wilson's recent assurance that "whenever France, or any other free people, is threatened, the whole world will be ready to vindicate its liberty."

Clemenceau's appeal to the American nation was vigorously applauded by the French press, the view being expressed that President Wilson's pacifist attitude would tend to cheat France of fruits of victory and place the country in perpetual peril from a revived and strengthened Germany. The expression of French public opinion on this question of an International Army so annoyed the conferees that President Wilson dropped an official hint to the effect that if the Paris press did not cease its criticisms the Congress would be moved to another city. This warning served to clear the atmosphere of debate and presently a better feeling prevailed.

### Freedom of the Seas

Other major issues presented themselves and some of these were referred to the decision of various

commissions. One of these vexed questions was that of the freedom of the seas, a subject on which Great Britain was particularly sensitive.

Another issue grew out of the proposal to recognize Bolshevik Russia. At the outset assurance was given the Bolshevik leaders that the Peace Conference had no desire to force upon them the settlement of Russia's debts as a condition precedent to a conference.

Provision was made for the admission to the League in the future of all neutral and enemy states, including Germany, although the commission took every precaution to make sure they shall enter with proper motives and with the resolution to live up to the obligations of the League.

### League's Final Session

The Commission on the League of Nations held its final session on February 13th. At this session the French delegate presented a clause for an interallied military force empowered to compel peace, but the proposal was rejected, only the Czecho-Slovaks voting with the French in the affirmative.

The Japanese delegation presented an amendment, providing that racial discrimination should no longer be tolerated in immigration laws promulgated by any nation, but this proposal was dropped without a vote as opening a large question which might unduly delay the conclusion of the Peace Treaty. The constitution as finally drafted was unanimously adopted by the committee and President Wilson was designated to present the completed plan in person to the Plenary Council.

### League Covenant is Presented

The completed draft of the Covenant of the League of Nations was presented to the plenary session of the Peace Conference on February 14th by President Wilson, who urged its adoption in an earnest speech. Lord Robert Cecil, head of the British delegation, also speaking in advocacy of the League, said that the Covenant embraced two principles—first, no nation shall go to war until every other means of settlement shall be fully and fairly tried; second, no nation shall forcibly seek to disturb a territory's integrity or interfere with the political independence of the nations of the world. Later on, however, another great principle must be laid down; namely, that no nation shall retain armaments "for aggressive purposes only," but what that phrase connotes in the British mind he omitted to disclose.

Leon Bourgeois, of the French delegation, while applauding the Covenant as a work of justice, announced that France would reserve the right to present her views on certain details of the plan. Dangers to states, he said, were unequal. Some states, like France and Belgium, were especially exposed and required additional guarantees. He urged a system of permanent inspection of existing armaments and forces as one means of avoiding a renewal of warfare.

Baron Makino of Japan gave notice that his nation would submit an amendment (abolishing racial distinctions) which he hoped would receive favorable attention.

Prince Frisal, the Arabian delegate, very pointedly affirmed that, although the constitution of the League recognized the right of self-determination, there yet were certain secret treaties in existence



which would prevent this self-determination of nations. He therefore prayed that such treaties as affected Asiatic Turkey would be declared by the Powers null and void, but his prayer went unanswered.

## Main Points of the League of Nations Covenant

The Covenant of the League of Nations is a compact of the Chief Powers purporting to aim at promoting international co-operation and securing international peace and security: (1) by the acceptance of obligations not to resort to war; (2) by the prescription of "open, just and honorable relations between nations" (though it is founded on secret, sinister treaties); (3) by the firm establishment of the understandings of international law as the actual rule of conduct among governments; (4) and by the maintenance of justice (outside of Allied "possessions") and a scrupulous respect for all treaty obligations (including the Allies' secret treaties) in the dealings of organized peoples with one another.

The action of the Powers under the terms of this Covenant shall be effected through the instrumentality of a Body of Delegates representing the high contracting parties, an Executive Council, and a permanent International Secretariat to be established at the seat of the League.

The Executive Council shall consist of representatives of the United States, the British Empire, France, Italy, and Japan, together with representatives of four other states to be selected by the Body of Delegates. Meetings of the Council shall be held from time to time and at least once a year, at whatsoever place may be decided on. The first meeting of the Body of Delegates and of the Executive Council shall be summoned by the President of the United States.

Admission to the League of Nations of states not signatories to the Covenant requires the assent of not less than two-thirds of the states represented in the Body of Delegates, and shall be limited to fully self-governing countries, including dominions and colonies.

No state shall be admitted to the League unless it is able to give effective guarantees of its sincere intention to observe its international obligations and unless it shall conform to such principles as may be prescribed by the League in regard to its naval and military forces and armaments.

The Executive Council is authorized to formulate plans for the reduction of national armaments to the lowest point consistent with national safety, and these limits shall not be exceeded without the permission of the Executive Council. Since the manufacture by private enterprise of munitions and implements of war lends itself to grave objections, the Executive Council is directed to advise how the evil effects attendant upon such manufacture can be prevented. The high contracting nations agree never to conceal from each other the condition of such of their industries as are capable of being adapted to warlike purposes, and they further agree that there shall be full and frank interchange of information as to their military and naval programs.

Article 10 provides that "the high contracting parties shall undertake to respect and preserve as against external aggression the territorial integrity and existing political independence of all states members of the League. In case of any aggression, or in case of any threat or danger of such aggression, the Executive Council shall advise upon the means by which the obligation shall be fulfilled."

Any war, or threat of war, whether immediately affecting any of the high contracting parties or not, is declared a matter of concern to the League (thereby closing the doors of Freedom to all subject peoples in whatever Empire) and the high contracting parties reserve the right to take any action that may be deemed wise and effectual to safeguard "the peace of nations" (or to suppress any movement toward the liberation of oppressed races). It is the right of each signatory to draw the attention of the Executive Committee or the Body of Delegates to any circumstances affecting international intercourse which threatens to disturb international peace or the good understanding between nations upon which peace depends.

Should disputes arise between states, which cannot be adjusted by the ordinary processes of diplomacy, the states will in no case resort to war without previously submitting the questions and matters involved either to arbitration or to inquiry by the Executive Council, and not until three months after the award of the arbitrators. Furthermore, they agree

The delegates representing Italy, Greece and China, and the British Minister of Labor, severally applauded the Covenant.

The Peace Conference adjourned at 7 o'clock, and that night President Wilson began preparations for his return visit to the United States.

that they will not even then resort to war as against a member of the League which complies with the award.

Disputes that cannot be satisfactorily settled by diplomacy will be referred to a Court of Arbitration whose awards shall be final. A permanent Court of International Justice shall be established, competent to hear and determine any matter referred to it for arbitration. Any dispute arising between nations and likely to lead to rupture, which is not submitted to arbitration, must be referred to the Executive Council. If the award of that Council is rejected, the Council shall propose measures to give effect to the recommendations. On request of either party to a dispute which is under consideration by the Council, the question in dispute may be referred to the Body of Delegates, provided that such request be made within 14 days after the submission of the dispute.

Should any of the high contracting parties break or disregard its Covenants under Article XII it shall thereby *ipso facto* be deemed to have committed an act of war against all the other members of the League, which hereby undertakes immediately to subject it to the severance of all trade or financial relations, the prohibition of all intercourse between them, and the prevention of all financial, commercial, or personal intercourse between the Covenant-breaking state and the nationals of any other state, whether of the League or not. It shall be the duty of the Executive Council in such case to recommend what effective military or naval force the members of the League shall severally contribute to the armed forces to be used to protect the Covenants of the League.

The members of the League agree that they will mutually support one another in the financial and economic measures which may be taken to chastize the Covenant-breaking state, and that they will afford passage through their territory to the forces of the parties who are co-operating to protect the Covenants of the states. All the states not members of the League, in event of disputes with members of the League, or among themselves, must refer their disputes to arbitration or suffer the penalties imposed upon Covenant breakers.

In the common interest, the League members reserve the right of general supervision of the trade in arms and ammunition with the countries in which the control of this traffic is necessary.

So-called "Backward races", not yet able to stand by themselves, but who have ceased since the late War to be under the sovereignty of the states which formally governed them, are to be placed under the tutelage of "advanced nations" as mandatories on behalf of the League. Certain communities, formerly belonging to the Turkish Empire, having reached a state of development where their existence as independent nations can be provisionally recognized, their wishes must be a principal consideration in the selection of the mandatory power. Other peoples, as in Central Africa, must be placed under mandatories, with guarantees of freedom of conscience or religion. In every case of mandate, the mandatory state shall render to the League an annual report in reference to the territory committed to its charge.

The Leagued States will endeavor to secure and maintain fair and humane conditions of labor for men, women and children, both in their own countries and in all countries to which their commercial and industrial relations extend, and to that end agree to establish as part of the organization of the League a permanent Bureau of Labor. Provision shall be made to secure and maintain freedom of transit and equitable treatment for the commerce of all states members of the League, having in mind special arrangements with regard to the necessities of the region devastated during the War of 1914—1918.

Every treaty or international engagement entered into "hereafter" by any state member of the League shall be forthwith registered with the Secretary General and as soon as possible published by him. No treaty shall be binding until so registered.

In case any of the members of the League have undertaken any obligations which are inconsistent with the terms of this Covenant, it shall be the duty of such state to take immediate steps to procure its release from such obligations.

## German Armistice Renewed

Three days were allotted by the Supreme War Council to a discussion of the terms for a renewal of the Armistice with Germany. Marshal Foch having reported that the Germans had not complied with the original terms, urgent representations were made in favor of imposing new and more drastic

terms and compelling their rigid execution. The German authorities were required to furnish information confirming the amount of their war material. The new armistice terms were presented to the German Commissioners by Marshal Foch at Treves, on February 14th, and 48 hours were allowed for their



acceptance, failing which Marshal Foch warned the Commissioners that he would set his troops in motion toward Germany.

The new Armistice was signed on February 16th. Under its provisions: (1) The terms of the original Armistice must be carried out completely by Germany; (2) the new Armistice can be terminated on three days' notice; (3) it is renewed for an indeterminate period; (4) it fixed a line of demarkation between Germany and Poland by which a considerable portion of Posen was restored to Poland; (5) all offensive movements against the Poles were commanded to cease; (6) a plan of disarmament and demobilization of the German forces was laid down; (7) after Germany had carried out the provisions of the Armistice, the blockade would be somewhat relaxed. The ultimate naval terms provided for dismantling the fortifications of Heligoland and the Kiel Canal.

### Germany Surrenders Her Passenger Ships

While arranging for the renewal of the Armistice, Herr Erzberger had appealed to the Allies for the suspension of the blockade to enable Germany to procure much needed food supplies. The Supreme Council notified Erzberger that, in order to insure the provisioning of Germany, the conditions of the supplementary armistice signed at Treves on February 16th must first be carried out. These conditions required the surrender of Germany's merchant ships to the Allies.

The Germans, after a show of resistance, on March 14th, turned over eight large passenger vessels to the Allies. Other German ships, in Central and South American waters, were included in the agreement, including the giant steamship *Imperator*, of 52,000 tons, the world's greatest steamship. These vessels had a combined capacity of 350,000 tons.

### War Reparations Considered

The Peace Conference gave early consideration to the question of War Reparations. Representatives of the Allied European Powers, in a statement to President Wilson on February 19th, proposed that Germany and her partners should be required to pay the entire cost of the War. To this proposal President Wilson demurred, holding that the terms of the Armistice made reparation collectable only for actual damage done. As the discussion progressed, three principal theories developed.

In the British view, based upon the civil law holding the transgressor liable for all damage, Germany should be compelled to pay the whole cost of the War, including the expense to the Allies of raising, equipping, transporting and maintaining their Armies, as well as reparation for wanton damage done.

The French contention, in addition to requiring Germany to pay the full cost of the War, differed from the English theory in that it fixed a sequence of payment. Thus France would require Germany first to settle bills for destruction in violation of international law and later pay the other charges if she could.

The American plan was to hold Germany liable to the extent merely of such destruction as she had wantonly caused in violation of the laws of war and of nations. Under this theory of liability, Great Britain and France could recover damages only to

the extent of their merchant shipping losses and the destruction caused by German airplane and Zeppelin raids on their respective cities and towns.

Similarly, the collective claims of the United States and the British colonies would be confined to such merchant ship losses as were inflicted on them by submarines. The chief creditors of Germany, under this interpretation of the law, would be Belgium, France, Serbia and Roumania, which had suffered wanton destruction.

The Conference Committee on Reparations estimated \$120,000,000,000 as the extreme amount which Germany and her allies ought to pay the Associated Powers. Of this amount, France demanded immediate payment by Germany of \$5,000,000,000, part in gold, part in materials and part in foreign securities, the balance to be made payable in installments extending over a period of 25 to 35 years. Upon closer study of the question of indemnities, the Supreme Council became convinced of Germany's inability to pay the staggering sum first proposed. By March 20th, the Chief Powers had gradually reduced the Allied claims to a total of \$40,000,000,000.

The United States Government informed the Allies on March 7th that this nation would be satisfied with the amounts derived by the Alien Property Custodian from German property seized in this country, and would not ask for further reparation from Germany or Austria.

By this time, the chief issue was no longer what Germany should pay, but what she could pay. American experts assisted the European financiers in endeavoring to find an answer to this riddle of Germany's financial ability. Estimates of Germany's assets varied in March from \$25,000,000,000 to \$50,000,000,000. It was thought, however, that the four Germanic allies could pay not over \$4,000,000,000 or \$5,000,000,000 in reparations within two years.

In April the financial experts agreed that the utmost reparation Germany and her allies could pay was \$30,000,000,000, spread over a period of ten to fifteen years. Of the total sum, Great Britain and France felt they were entitled to share 85 per cent, leaving only 15 per cent to satisfy the tremendous claims of Belgium, Italy, Serbia, Roumania, Russia and other associated nations.

The first installment, \$5,000,000,000 to be exacted from Germany was to be arranged in six categories: Reparation was demanded for actual damage to life and property; pension for cripples and families of slain soldiers; compensation for enforced labor exacted from inhabitants of occupied territories, including work performed by deported Belgians; remuneration for illegally exacted labor by prisoners of war, and payments for German requisitions in occupied territories.

### Attempt on Premier Clemenceau's Life

The session of the Peace Conference called for February 20th was deferred because of the attempted assassination of Premier Clemenceau on the previous day. M. Clemenceau, in his automobile, was on his way to attend the Conference when an anarchist, Emil Cottin by name, fired two shots from the sidewalk as the car was passing. One bullet entered Clemenceau's right shoulder, penetrating the lung. Pursuing the car, Cottin fired five more shots, two of



which took effect in the premier's right arm and right hand. The assassin was arrested, tried by a court martial and sentenced to death, but on the request of Premier Clemenceau the sentence was changed to life imprisonment. Premier Clemenceau, though 77 years of age, recuperated rapidly and ten days later was able to resume work at the Peace Conference.

#### Disposing of the German Warships

The Peace Conference quite absurdly came to loggerheads over the question of the disposition of the German warships which were surrendered at the time of the Armistice. Common sense might have suggested the equitable apportionment of these ships among the Associated Powers, or else, if national jealousies precluded an agreement along that line, the gift of the entire German Fleet outright to Belgium, as part of the reparation due that stricken nation.

France, indeed, had put in a claim for a share of these ships to offset in part the loss of 15 per cent of her naval tonnage during the War, but Great Britain obstinately opposed the division of the German Fleet, preferring to sink the ships in deep water.

In this selfish and destructive policy, certain American naval authorities seem to have acquiesced.

The French and Italian delegates pleaded in vain for the apportionment of the ships among the Allied nations. Great Britain, jealous even of her Allies' naval ambitions, remained obdurate. The ships were surrendered to the Allies and were subsequently interned off the north coast of England. Instead of guarding the ships with Allied officers, the English Government placed them in the custody of German naval officials and finally, to the great scandal of the civilized world, these vessels were sunk by the German "custodians."

#### Discussing Military Terms of the Treaty

The military terms to be incorporated in the Peace Treaty were presented to the Supreme Council on March 1st by Marshal Foch. These terms provided for the destruction of all German submarines; forbade the use of submarines hereafter by any nation; ordered the destruction of the German main Fleet; required the reduction of the German Army to fifteen infantry and five cavalry divisions, or a total of 200,000 men; authorized the confiscation of all German cables by the Allies; and compelled the des-

truction of the fortifications of Heligoland and the Kiel Canal. Restrictions were placed on the manufacture of all classes of war materials and the military and commercial use of the airplanes was limited to the minimum.

#### Reservations as to American Defences

On suggestion of Admiral Benson of the United States Navy, it was voted that the provision for dismantling the fortifications of Heligoland and the Kiel Canal should not be accepted as a precedent applicable to American canal and harbor defences. The United States Government also reserved the right to object to any proposal for the destruction of existing submarines and the restriction of their future use in warfare. On motion of the United States, the provision in the Treaty for the neutralization of the Kiel Canal was referred to the Waterways Commission.

#### Germany's Army Limited to 100,000 Men

Premier Lloyd George of England brought forward a proposal for reducing the German Army much below the quota of 200,000 men as originally agreed upon. Finally, on March 10th, the Supreme Council agreed on the following terms to be imposed on Germany:

An Army limited in size to 100,000 men and 4,000 officers.

The Imperial General Staff abolished.

No conscription. Instead, there will be a twelve-year enlistment method which will prevent her accumulating a large reservoir of men who have been trained previously.

All Rhine forts to be destroyed.

The outpost of all munition factories drastically limited.

All remaining military equipment to be surrendered to the Allies or destroyed.

#### Internationalizing the Rhine

The opening of the Rhine to all nations without discrimination was proposed on March 12th by the Commission on Waterways, Railways and Ports. Under this plan, the status of the Kiel Canal would be fixed on the basis of freedom of use for all nations for merchant vessels or warships in time of peace, though the Canal would continue under German ownership and operation. The Belgian suggestion that special duties be imposed on German vessels was rejected.

### Territorial Claims Before the Conference

The most difficult and vexing of all the problems presented to the Peace Conference were those associated with the conflicting territorial claims of the Entente and liberated nations.

Alone among the Allied Powers, the United States sought no territorial reward for their colossal and decisive contribution to the cause of human liberty, desiring only that a just peace should be concluded and the principle of self-determination extended to all the subject nations of earth entitled to their freedom.

Great Britain presented no claims for territory in Europe, though it appeared later that she was a party to at least three secret treaties which had secured her in possession of a great part of the former

Turkish Empire, some part of Arabia, and all of Persia, besides being given mandatory powers over the whole of Egypt, German Southwest Africa and German East Africa.

France justly demanded the restoration of her lost provinces, Alsace-Lorraine, the right to fix the French frontiers at the Rhine, with the erection of buffer states, one of which would be the Palatinate and the other Rhenish Prussia. France also asked that the Rhine be neutralized, and that the inhabitants of the district should determine by a plebiscite whether they are to join France, become an independent state or return to Germany. France further asked the return of the Saar Coal Basin, and authority to set up a protectorate over part of ancient Syria.



### Belgium's Modest Request

Belgium demanded recognition of her absolute sovereignty and freedom from tutelage; the abrogation of the Treaty of London by which her neutrality was guaranteed by the European Powers; free access by way of the River Scheldt to her great port of Antwerp; a plebiscite in Luxemburg to decide whether that Duchy wished to join Belgium or France, or retain its autonomy; the return of all the art objects, cash, machinery, raw materials and manufactured goods stolen from her peoples by the Germans; and full reparation for the injuries she had sustained during the War to the extent of at least \$3,000,000,000.

### Italy's Demands

Italy asked that her historical northern boundaries be restored to her, including possession of the Trentino as far as the Brenner Pass, the whole of Southern Tyrol, Trieste, Istria, Zara, Sebenico. In addition she desired the restoration of the ancient Italian city of Fiume; part of the Dalmatian coast; Avlona and its hinterland; a protectorate over Albania; the province of Adalia in Asia Minor; possession of the islands in the Aegean Sea which were taken from Turkey during the Tripolitan War, and if France and England should enlarge their holdings in Africa, Italy desired to enlarge her holdings in Eritrea and Tripoli. Italy's claims brought her at once into conflict with the Greeks and the Jugo-Slavs.

### Roumania's Claims

Roumania wished to annex the former Austrian provinces of Bukowina and Transylvania, thereby running counter to Serbia's claims. She also desired to retain that part of Russian Bessarabia which was given her by the Germanic Powers under the canceled Treaty of Bucharest, and all southern Dobrudja as ceded to her by Bulgaria after the Second Balkan War.

### Jugo-Slavia, Czecho-Slovakia and Greece

Jugo-Slavia, the new united Kingdom of the Serbians, Croats and Slovenes, disputed with Italy for possession of Fiume, the Croatian seaboard, the Dalmatian Islands and the Albanian Islands. The claim to the provinces of Bosnia and Herzegovina was conceded. A further proposal for a union of Montenegro and Serbia as part of the Jugo-Slavic state, though sanctioned by authority of the Montenegrin Parliament was opposed by a faction representing King Nicholas.

Greece asked for Northern Epirus and all of Thrace, with the exception of the city of Constantinople and the shores of the Bosphorus, which she wished placed under international control. Bulgaria's claims in Thrace and on the Aegean coast came in conflict with Greek desires. Greece laid claim to Smyrna in Asia Minor and to the former Turkish Islands in the Aegean Sea which Italy also coveted.

Czecho-Slovakia, the new state erected on the ruins of the Austro-Hungarian Empire, not only asked for and received the ancient Kingdom of Bohemia, Moravia and part of Northern Hungary, but it reached out covetously for Poland's title to Silesia, parts of Galicia, and lands justly claimed by the Ruthenians, Roumanians, Austrians, Magyars and Germans.

### Poland Assailed by Her Ancient Enemies

Poland asked to be restored in possession of her ancient boundaries, but with the signing of the Armistice, she was simultaneously assailed on all sides by her enemies. Germany sought by force of arms to deprive Poland of part of Silesia, all of Posen and West Prussia, including the port of Danzig. The Ukrainians sought to dispossess her of Eastern Galicia, including Lemberg, and the Province of Kholm. The Lithuanians tried to deprive her of Vilna, and were supported by the Russian Bolsheviki in the attempted robbery. So, unassisted, the newly "liberated" Poles were compelled to fight for their very life against four formidable foes while the Peace Conference pursued the path of least resistance at Paris.

### Japan Retains "Concessions"

Japan disclaimed any territorial ambitions in China; promised to restore Shantung to the Chinese, at the same time retaining as her reward the "concessions" formerly claimed by Germany; pledged herself not to seize upon any Russian territory, but asked permission to retain the former German South Pacific Islands.

China, on the other hand, disputed Japan's right to hold any "concessions" on her soil and demanded the return of Tsing-tao and Kiao-chau which Japan had seized from Germany.

Switzerland asked for an outlet to the sea by making the Rhine a neutral stream, but she refused to allow her troops to be employed in "policing the world."

Denmark modestly asked permission to annex that part of Northern Schleswig inhabited predominantly by Danes, but did not ask for the restoration of the Provinces of Schleswig-Holstein, seized by Prussia in 1864.

Norway asked for and received certain rights in Spitzbergen. Sweden aspired to the control of the Aland Islands.

### New Zionist State in Palestine Approved

The project to set up a new Zionist state in Palestine, enabling the Jews to form a nation after a lapse of 2,000 years, received the enthusiastic support of all the nations excepting the Arabs. The territory of the new Zion extends on both sides of the Jordan River, but does not include the Desert of Damascus, and stops short at the Hedjaz Railway. Practically the new Palestine is coterminous with the territory from Dan to Beersheba. Over this territory Great Britain is to exercise a certain protectorate.

### Albania Seeks Justice, Too

Albania asked that her former territories, which were seized and parceled out among Serbia, Montenegro and Greece by the London Conference of 1913, be returned to her. She also demanded the restoration of the Province of Kossovo, which had been assigned to Serbia along with a million Albanian inhabitants. Reparation was demanded for the damage wilfully wrought in Albania by the armies of the Germanic Powers and by the Greek troops.

### China Wants Sovereignty Recognized

China asked full recognition of her sovereignty, the right to regulate her own custom service, the restoration of all territory in China formerly held by Germany and Austria, the equality of China with



all Allied nations in treaty rights and equal commercial opportunities according to the "open-door" policy promulgated by the United States Government. Finally, China asked to be relieved from all the oppressive influences and exactions forced upon her by Japan.

#### Korea's Plea for Liberation

Korea, which claims to have been an independent nation for 4,000 years, but which was "annexed" by Japan in 1910, by connivance of her "insane emperor," asked that the country be guided by a mandatory until such time as the League of Nations should decide that it was fit for full self-government.

Armenia desired that the United States act as mandatory for her during the period of her reconstruction, but our Government withheld its protection from this martyred nation.

#### Boundary Questions Referred to Commissions

Within a fortnight after the Peace Conference had convened, the Council of Ten discovered that it was not qualified to investigate the intricate facts which underlay most of its problems. Accordingly, these subjects were referred to committees of specialists, composed of two delegates each from the United States, France, the British Empire and Italy. These Commissions multiplied so rapidly that 52 of them were at work before the treaty with Germany was signed, holding altogether 1,646 sessions. Though

wielding immense influence on the outcome of the Peace Conference, still they had no proper authority except that of recommendation.

#### The "Big Four" Take Charge

Relieved of the responsibility of investigating all the knotty problems involved in the remapping of Europe, the Council of Ten, now established in the supreme power of the Conference, contented themselves for awhile in blocking the paths to a perfect understanding among the claimant nations. Early in February, finding the larger council unwieldy, President Wilson, Premier Lloyd George, Premier Clemenceau and Prime Minister Orlando of Italy ceased to attend the sessions of the Council of Ten and met as a group by themselves. The destinies of every nation in Europe, if not in the whole world, were now placed in the hands of these four men. Lacking the chiefs of state, the old Council of Ten lost its former prestige and authority. It continued to sit now as a Council of Five, but all its findings had to be submitted finally to the decision of the Council of Four. The "Big Four" held 145 sessions, as against 39 for the Council of Five and 72 sessions for the Council of Ten. Thenceforward the Big Four ruled the Peace Conference with an iron hand, imposing their will upon the entire Assembly, and violating the principle of "open covenants openly arrived at" which they had so solemnly accepted a few weeks before. The results of this policy are disclosed in subsequent chapters.

PARIS, MAR. — MAY

## Italy's Claim to Fiume Threatens to Disrupt Peace Conference

Her Delegates Leave Paris When President Wilson Upholds Jugo-Slavic Claims

SECTION 5—1919

THE rival territorial claims of the various nations represented at the Peace Conference occasioned many bitter disputes, which threatened to disrupt the Conference itself. Perhaps the most serious dispute of all arose over the claim of Italy to the city and harbor of Fiume and part of the Dalmatian coast.

Although Fiume had not been specifically awarded to Italy by the terms of the secret Pact of London, the Italians, nevertheless, held that under the principle of national self-determination, Fiume should and must be Italian, since it was ancient Italian territory and most of the people in the city proper were Italians. In this contention, Italy at first was upheld by Great Britain and France.

President Wilson, on the other hand, resolutely opposed the Italian claim. He premised that, although the Italian population may be preponderant in the city of Fiume, still the vast majority of the inhabitants in the outlying districts were of the Jugo-Slavic race. Therefore, if the principle of self-determination were to prevail, the whole district, including the port of Fiume, should be awarded to the newly-created Jugo-Slavic nation.

The Italian statesmen retorted that the future safety of Italy from Austrian and Jugo-Slavic aggression was bound up in possession of the port of

Fiume. They solemnly reminded President Wilson that the Jugo-Slavic nation, which he was rewarding at the expense of Italy, had been the enemy of the Allies, and therefore of civilization during the War and still retained its strong Austrian sympathies.

If Fiume were given to Jugo-Slavia, they contended, nothing could prevent the Slavs from pressing against Italy's frontier and menacing her national security. Moreover, there were other ports on the Adriatic Coast available for the uses of Jugo-Slavia. Italy desired merely a stretch of that eastern coast; Jugo-Slavia could have the rest.

President Wilson and the Jugo-Slavs were obdurate, however. They insisted that the ancient Italian port and province should be withheld from Italy on the ground that "Jugo-Slavic commerce would be strangled in its infancy if the new nation were not given the port of Fiume."

The Italian delegates, on March 21st, gave notice that unless Fiume was awarded to Italy they would leave the Conference. Premier Orlando and Baron Sonnino, on April 20th, declared that before the day fixed for the convening of the Italian Parliament a final decision must be reached on the Fiume question. Baron Sonnino insisted upon the integral fulfillment of the secret Treaty of London, which guaranteed Italy in possession of the entire Dalmatian Coast



and adjacent islands, together with the city of Fiume, without internationalization or division with the Jugo-Slavs. Advices from Italy at this time assured the delegates that the entire Army was behind Premier Orlando in upholding Italy's aspirations.

#### President Wilson Ignores London Treaty

Matters were brought to a crisis on April 23, when President Wilson flatly declared that he would not yield on the Adriatic question. He swept aside the secret Treaty of London, which France, England, and Italy had signed two years before America's entrance into the World War, saying that the whole face of circumstances had been changed since then. The Austro-Hungarian Empire had gone to pieces and the several parts of that empire were to be erected into independent states and associated in a League of Nations, whose several liberties must be established.

"We cannot," he declared, "ask the great body of Powers to propose and effect peace with Austria and deal with the states of the Balkan group on principles of another kind. If those principles are to be adhered to, Fiume must serve as the outlet of the commerce, not of Italy, but of Hungary, Bohemia, Roumania and the states of the new Jugo-Slavic group."

"Fiume is by situation and by all the circumstances of its development not an Italian but an international port, and cannot with justice be subordinated to any one sovereignty. Italy need fear no military or naval aggression from these nations, since the Austrian Empire no longer exists and the nations formed on its ruins are to be restricted in their armaments."

"On the north and northeast, Italy's natural frontiers are completely restored, to the very end of the Istrian Peninsula; her ancient unity is restored; it is within her choice to be surrounded by friends, to exhibit to the newly liberated peoples across the Adriatic the preference of justice over interest."

#### Italian Delegates Withdraw

The Italian delegates at once withdrew from the Conference and their action was approved by the people and government of Italy. On April 24th, Premier Orlando made reply to President Wilson's ultimatum. He bitterly criticised the President for having violated the diplomatic precedents by issuing his ultimatum to the nations direct instead of through the Peace Congress. He regretted that President Wilson had taken this step at a moment when the Italian delegation were discussing proposals upon which a compromise might have been founded. In

his view, President Wilson was "treating the Italians as if they were a barbarous people without a democratic government."

Popular feeling ran high in Rome. Demonstrations were held in all the cities and the returning delegates were cheered by vast crowds. Gabrielle D'Annunzio, the poet-soldier, sent a message to Fiume, promising to "convert war-cry into action", and to a Roman crowd he reasserted the determination of his supporters to defend Fiume and Dalmatia "at the point of the sword" should the Paris Conference render an adverse verdict.

The Italian press were full of bitter attacks upon President Wilson and Lloyd George, while expressing at the same time friendship for America.

On April 29th, Premier Orlando laid his appeal before the Italian Parliament. He explained the new point of view of England and France, which was in effect that Fiume should be made an independent free state. Further expounding the Italian viewpoint, he said that Italy entertained no Imperialistic sentiments. Instead, her aspirations were founded on high and solemn reasons of justice and right. She had given no proofs of cupidity in discussing the billions requested for reparation, neither had she shown any excessive signs of emotion when England and France were dividing between them vast and rich territories in Africa and Asia. With Italy, he concluded, it was not a question of billions, nor colonies, nor rich territories, but the suffering cry of her own brothers in Fiume and Dalmatia.

The Italian Parliament thereupon passed a vote of confidence in Orlando's Cabinet. France and England then made overtures to the Italian delegates to resume their places in the Peace Conference. Consenting, Orlando and Sonnino returned to Paris on May 7th in time to take part in the ceremony attending the delivery of the Peace Treaty to the German delegates.

Meantime the commission conferences regarding Fiume were proceeding. The Italians made many concessions during May. Most important of these was the recognition of Fiume as a free city and the renunciation of important portions of Istria and of the Dodecanese Islands of Greece.

#### GERMANY, JANUARY

### German Republic Organized with a Saddler for President

#### Spartacans Intimidate Government by Strikes—The Professions Also Strike

#### SECTION 6—1919

A general election was held throughout Germany on January 19th to choose delegates to the National Assembly which was to convene at Weimar on February 6th. The plan of election was based on proportional representation. All men and women who had reached the age of 20 were eligible to vote and it was estimated there were 39,000,000 entitled to the franchise.

Of the 401 delegates elected, 164 represented the Majority Socialist Party, 91 the Christian People's Party, 77 the Democratic, 34 the German National, 24 the Minority Socialist and 11 minor factions. Women everywhere cast a heavy vote and 34 of their sex were elected to the Assembly.

Both the Spartacist and the Pan-German parties were repudiated at the polls, but some survivors of the old regime crept in, including Dr. Dernburg, Hugo Haas, Scheidmann, Dielsch, Ludwig Haas and Eichhorn.

Strong measures had been taken to suppress Spartacan interference, a machine-gun squad being ready for action at each polling place. A futile attempt by Spartacans to destroy ballot boxes led to some street fighting in Wilhelmstrasse and elsewhere.

A week later, on January 26th, elections to the Prussian State Convention were held, resulting in the ascendancy of the Democratic party, led by Philip Scheidmann. At Potsdam, Prince Eitel Fritz



and the former Crown Princess claimed the right of citizens to the franchise and they were allowed to vote.

#### A Saddler Chosen President

In the National Assembly at Weimar, Premier Ebert declared: "We Germans have done forever with princes and nobles by the Grace of God." He denounced the Armistice terms as "unheard of and ruthless"; he protested against the expulsion of Germans from Alsace and the sequestration of property; he spoke wrathfully of the 800,000 German prisoners still held in captivity; he warned the Allies "not to drive us to the uttermost"; he appealed to all the peoples of the world for "justice"; he proposed a union of Germany with Austria, and he declared, "We will be an empire of justice and truth."

Dr. Edward David, a Socialist, was elected president of the Assembly. He was loudly applauded when he quite absurdly proposed that the Assembly should be regarded as "the headquarters of the free world."

A provisional constitution was adopted which included a provision that the territory of the several German states should not be altered without their consent.

By a vote of 277 to 122, Friedrich Ebert, a harness maker, was elected Provisional State President of Germany. A Coalition Cabinet was chosen, composed of seven Socialists, three Democrats, three Contrists and one anti-Socialist. Mathias Erzberger entered the Cabinet without portfolio. President Ebert, in accepting office, declared: "We shall combat domination by force to the utmost, from whatever direction it may come." At the close of the session a resolution was adopted containing the declaration that the German people would not accept a "peace of violence."

#### Spartacans Resort to Strikes

While yet the Assembly was in session, the Spartacans, by resorting to strikes and local brigandage, attempted to intimidate the Government. Following a strike of the electricians of Bremen, which left that city in darkness, the local physicians and druggists warned the Spartacans that if the strikes continued, they, too, would go on strike leaving the sick to die.

The Government sometime previously had taken steps to restore law and order. A picked division of troops, under Col. Gerstenberg, was sent to Bremen on January 31st. The Spartacans were then in possession of the City Hall and other important buildings. On February 4th, Gerstenberg's division bombarded Bremen and after severe fighting entered the

city. The City Hall and the Stock Exchange were recaptured and the Spartacans driven in retreat toward Gropshingen.

#### The Professions Strike

A counterstrike against Spartacan terrorism was begun on February 5th at Dusseldorf, where officials, clerks and other employes in the service of railways, posts, telegraph, telephone and surface lines, together with bankers, lawyers, physicians, teachers and other members of professions, called a "walkout" and quit work. Theaters and restaurants were forced to close, industrial plants shut down and all professional activity ceased. The strike of the professional men brought the laborers to terms. Most of the points in dispute were conceded and all the imprisoned bourgeois delegates liberated.

Spartacan disorders also broke out in Berlin on February 9th and 10th, the mutinous soldiers and sailors occupying the Alexander Palace. In a conflict with government troops, six persons were killed and 14 wounded. The Spartacans resorted to their old-style guerilla tactics of housetop fighting but they were promptly suppressed.

#### Germany's New Army

The power of the Soldiers' Councils was greatly diminished by the new regulations, issued on January 24th, relative to the control of the German Army. Under these sanctions, the Prussian Minister of War was given the supreme command of the Army with sole authority to promote officers and soldiers. The Soldiers' Councils, representing every garrison and regiment, were expected to watch over the activities of officers and determine whether or not military authority was used against the Government. They were, moreover, to be consulted as to permanent regulations relative to rationing the troops, the granting of leave and all disciplinary measures, but beyond that their power did not extend. It was ordained that in future the officers should wear a dark blue stripe on the left sleeve, all other distinctive marks having been abolished. The obligation to salute was reciprocal.

These regulations, as announced by the new Prussian Minister of War, Col. Reinhardt, aroused open revolts on the part of the Soldiers' Councils in the German armies. The Council of the 9th Bremen Army refused to obey the order; the Council at Lubeck went so far as to compel Col. Reinhardt to leave the city withing 21 hours. The councils of many corps, as well as a great number of local councils, also refused to obey the order.

#### AUSTRIA, DECEMBER

### Austrian Republic Desires Union with the German Republic

Peace Conference Flatly Refuses to Sanction Proposed Teutonic Alliance  
Bolshevists Fail to Gain Control—Spectre of Starvation Stalks  
Through Austria—Emperor Charles Banished

#### SECTION 7—1919

THE new Austrian Republic, whose inheritance was a fragmentary part merely of the over-spreading Empire of the Hapsburgs, protested its inability to accept independence apart from Ger-

many. Hence the efforts of the Australian diplomats, from the day of the Empire's dissolution, were bent in the direction of making German Austria an integral part of the so-called German "Republic". In



fact, the Austrian National Assembly, at its first session, on November 13, 1918, had unanimously adopted a resolution to that effect.

There were, on the other hand, many cautious royalists among the Austrians, who surmised that constant reiteration of Austria's pleas for a union with Germany might defeat their cherished plans for a restoration of Emperor Charles. Far from sharing their fears, the Austrian Socialist leader, Bauer, was tireless in his advocacy of the project for a union with Germany.

Other Austrian political elements conceived of a "Danubian Federation," with Vienna as its capital. They desired that the Tyrol be ceded to Austria; that the German Kingdom of Bohemia, instead of being incorporated into a Czecho-Slovak state, would unite with the Bohemian provinces; that the German states of the South would join the proposed Danubian Federation; and that the Allies would effect a reconciliation between the Czechs and Germans in Austria in order that this project of a "reconstructed Austria" might succeed.

Early in January, 1919, the Austrian diplomats at Paris urged that the existence and liberty of the independent state of German Austria be recognized by the civilized world and that Austria be accorded a place in the Society of Nations. They described German Austria as "internal Austria", inclusive of German Tyrol, German Styria, German Carinthia and the German districts of Northern Bohemia. If Czecho-Slovakia were to include these German regions, they held, it would be merely a reconstituting of ancient Austria with an amalgam of people. They proposed that towns predominantly German, like Marburg, Radkersburg, Klagefurt, Villach, Bozen and Brunex, be granted plebiscites to determine their future fate. Either Austria should form part of a Danube Confederation, through a union with other new born states, or else be attached to Germany. Finally, dismissing all other alternatives, they affirmed that an attachment with Germany was the only satisfactory solution of the problem.

#### Intriguants at Work

Foreign Minister Pichon of France publicly announced that his government could not sanction the proposed union of Austria with Germany. The German Foreign Minister, Count von Rautzan, on the other hand, took up the cudgels for Austria, saying the new Austrian Republic was assured of the full moral and political support of the German nation, and that it was highly incompatible to accord to the Slav nations the unrestricted right of self determination which was refused to Austria. Bauer, the Austrian Socialist leader, strove to bring about the union of Austria and Germany by more dubious methods. He secretly intrigued in Vienna to prevent any food supplies from the Allies reaching Austria, fearing that the generosity of the Allied nations toward their fallen enemy might decide the Austrian people to continue as a state apart from Germany.

#### People Vote for Union with Germany

Austria came under political control of the Socialists in the elections held on February 16, 1919. Out of 3,000,000 votes cast for delegates to the Austrian Constituent Assembly, 1,210,000 were counted for the Social Democrats, 1,039,300 for the Christian Socialist party and 593,000 for the various groups of

German Nationalists, while the balance was divided among the pro-Bavarian, Czecho-Slovak and Jewish National groups. The result of the election was conclusive proof that the mass of the people desired both the destruction of the monarchy and union with Germany.

Dr. Karl Renner was elected Chancellor of the new government. In his inaugural address he affirmed that reunion with Germany would be energetically pursued. No hostility against the states that previously formed a part of the old monarchy would be shown; instead, the Austrian policy would be based on the spirit of conciliation underlying the projected League of Nations. Among the first measures approved by the new government were those concerning state socialization and the abolition of capital punishment except under martial law.

Former Emperor Charles, who had entertained hopes of setting up a court at Eckhartson, was officially requested to renounce forever his rights to the throne and depart from Austria. Pursuant to this mandate, Charles of Hapsburg renounced his rights and with his family left Austria secretly on March 23d, to take up his residence in Switzerland in a chateau owned by the Duke of Parma.

On March 27th, a bill was introduced in the Austrian Parliament abolishing all the rights and privileges of the House of Hapsburg-Lothringen in perpetuity, banishing all members of this house as well as the House of Bourbon-Parma, to which former Empress Zita belonged, and seizing all the real and personal estate of the former Imperial house. It was stipulated, however, that the private fortune and property of the ex-Emperor should remain untouched.

#### Stemming the Bolshevik Tide

With the outbreak of the Hungarian revolution on March 28th, the radical spirit of Austria expressed itself in public meetings, attended by great multitudes. The alarming scarcity of food contributed to the popular discontent which was still further aggravated by the insistent claims of the Slavic, Polish and Italian nations to districts largely inhabited by Germans, particularly German Bohemia and the Tyrol.

On April 4th, the American mission in Vienna undertook to stem the growing Bolshevik tide by promising to grant long credits to Austrian businessmen and to assist them in the importation of raw material. At the same time, the Allied Powers demanded that the Austrian Government expel the Bolshevik agitators that had been sent by the Hungarian Republic into Austria. The plot to start a Communist revolution was defeated, the conference of Soldiers' Councils at Vienna deciding against a Soviet Government on April 10th. A "Soviet Republic," was, however, proclaimed in Salzburg on the Bavarian frontier.

#### Bolshevist Riots in Vienna

Bolsheviks continually incited the populace to insurrection, provoking several outbreaks in Vienna, all of which were suppressed with a firm hand. In quelling these disturbances, Chancellor Renner appealed to the people to reflect that Austria would face literal starvation if it offended the Allies by encouraging Bolshevik propaganda.



Despite this warning, a mob of unemployed workmen held a mass meeting in front of the Parliament building on April 17th, demanding food and employment. Chancellor Renner assured them that their demands would receive attention. The mob, dissatisfied, attacked the police and in the melee which ensued several policemen were killed and 60 wounded. At the height of the excitement, the Parliament buildings caught fire, but the flames were easily extinguished. Before nightfall the People's Guard succeeded in restoring order. The Soldiers' Council thereupon placed 5,000 men at the Government's disposal and Col. Cunningham, the British military representative, in the name of the Allies, issued a proclamation, declaring that, if there were any further disturbances, the food supply would be withdrawn. With the arrest of the Bolshevik agitators order was gradually restored in Vienna.

### Opposition to the Peace Terms

Tremendous excitement followed the publication of the Austrian Peace terms. President Seitz prophesied the doom of Austria if the Republic were not permitted to unite with Germany. If the Allies, he said, should award the Austrian provinces to the Czecho-Slovaks and Jugo-Slavs without requiring those beneficiary nations to share the burdens of taxation and the War debts, Austria's bankruptcy was certain to result, and this would menace the peace of Germany. It was impossible to compel 6½ per cent of the people to pay all the War debt. Furthermore, if the Czechs were entitled to special consideration, because they constituted one of the Associated Powers, it should be taken into consideration that the majority of the Austrians had not approved of the War, but were forced to fight, just as were the Czechs. Chancellor Renner, on the other hand, declared on May 9th that he had relinquished all hopes for a union with Germany.

## Austrian Republic Pleads for Mercy

The Treaty of Peace with Austria was presented to the Austrian Peace Delegation in the chateau of St. Germain, in France, on June 2nd. The Austrian Chancellor, Dr. Karl Renner, in receiving the terms laid down by the Allies, said that the new Republic of Austria was free from the old unfortunate traditions of the Hapsburg Monarchy and from "the horrible crime of 1914." He prayed that the weight of the punishment be not permitted to fall exclusively on the shoulders of the puny Republic, which was all that was left of the Empire, but that the new Austria be regarded as merely one of eight new Republics into which the old Monarchy had been divided, and that it be required to pay no more of the penalty than it could bear.

The delegates of Poland, Czecho-Slovakia and Jugo-Slavia, resented the implication that their states were in honor bound to bear a proportionate share of whatever reparations were exacted from the parent state, Austria.

### Terms of the Austrian Peace Treaty

Under the Treaty, Austria is reduced from an Empire of 50,000,000 population to a tiny state having an area of only 6,000 square miles and a population of 6,000,000. She is compelled to recognize the independence of Hungary, Poland, Czech-Slovakia, Jugo-Slavia, and to cede other territories formerly possessed by her; to accept the League of Nations Covenant; to renounce all her extra-European rights; to demobilize her aerial forces; to destroy her submarine fleet; to consent to the abrogation of the Treaties of 1839 by which Belgium was established as a neutral state; to accept in advance any convention which the Allies may determine in replacing them; to accept all arrangements made by the Allied and Associated Powers with Turkey and Bulgaria having reference to Austrian interests. The final text of the Peace Treaty was delivered to the Austrian mission in its completed form on June 21st.

### Communist Demonstration in Vienna

The Hungarian Reds, on June 15th, renewed their efforts to Bolshevise Austria. A Communist demonstration was staged in Vienna on that day and 6,000

of the radicals succeeded in releasing from prison their colleagues who had been arrested on the previous Saturday. The police fired into the crowd, but were overpowered and disarmed. In the end, however, the Communists were suppressed.

### Protests Against the Treaty

An extraordinary session of the Austrian National Assembly was convened on June 7th to consider the Peace terms, which President Seitz denounced as "a sentence of death to Austria." Foreign Secretary Bauer led the fight against the Treaty, declaring that the loss of German Bohemia meant not only the subjection of 3,500,000 Germans to foreign domination, but the loss of a rich industrial region as well. It was in the interests not only of Austria, but of all mankind, he said, that the Czecho-Slovak state be limited to the territory inhabited by the Czecho-Slovak people. Dr. Bauer indicated the danger of a German irredenta in South Tyrol. Concerning the boundary questions in Carinthia, Styria, and Western Hungary, he would propose plebiscites under neutral control.

Protests against the Austrian Peace Treaty were received from 125 towns and communes of German Bohemia. Demonstrations of protest were also held in Vienna. A resolution was passed advising the peace delegation to refuse to sign the treaty.

At a plenary sitting of the Tyrolean Government, on June 10th, Governor Schraffl declared against the dismemberment of the Tyrolean state, saying his people would recoil before no sacrifice "until the sun of peace and freedom shines again on the land of the Tyrol."

### Workmen Press for Higher Wages

Meanwhile, the Austrian Republic was disturbed by the incessant efforts of the Hungarian and Austrian Communists to overthrow the Government. Although the Bolshevik storm of June 15th had been weathered, agitators still continued to fan the flame of popular discontent.

On June 21st, the railway employes again struck for higher wages. President Seitz, after recalling that impoverished Austria had already paid



2,000,000,000 crowns for relief to soldiers and workmen during the preceding eight months, promised the workmen a wage increase in August.

An additional cause for worry was the inflation of the currency of Austria, the floating currency alone being estimated at 42,000,000,000 crowns, as compared with 2,000,000,000 crowns before the War, and with 200 crowns of paper issued against each crown of metal in the treasury. The thievish Bolsheviks were endeavoring to sell many million dollars' worth of Austrian securities and bank shares at a large discount to Vienna banks, but the offers were refused, because the securities were marked: "Stolen from Budapest banks."

#### Downfall of the Bolsheviks

On July 8th, the Austrian Government, in a note to Bela Kun, demanded the recall of the Hungarian Minister, Czobel, for his participation in Bolshevik intrigues in Vienna. Czobel was, accordingly, superseded, on July 17th by Gen. von Boehm.

The downfall of Bela Kun's Bolshevik Government in Hungary on July 31st brought to the Austrian authorities a feeling of great relief. Bela Kun and several of his Red lieutenants fled into Austria and were interned in the camp of Drossendorf near Vienna.

A general strike, inaugurated on July 21st, completely tied up Vienna. In this crisis President Seitz implored the Allies to save Austria from the fate that had befallen Hungary. Unless the people of Europe were given employment, he said, they might become troublesome, even to the extent of disturbing the world's peace. A coalition of all parties to check Bolshevism was the object of a conference held at St. Germain on August 2nd.

#### Austrian Peace Treaty Signed

The Treaty of St. Germain, which confined the former Austrian Empire within the narrow boundaries of one of its shorn provinces, was signed by the Austrian Chancellor, Dr. Karl Renner, on September 10, 1919, after all efforts had failed to secure a modification of the original terms as laid down by the Peace Conference.

Previously, on August 19th, the Austrian Province of Vorolberg had denied the right of Austria to represent it at the Peace Conference, the inhabitants having by a plebiscite, taken on August 10th, decided overwhelmingly in favor of union with Switzerland.

The Austrian Assembly, on September 6th, by a vote of 97 to 23, decided to accept and sign the Treaty, after adopting a resolution of protest against a peace "founded on brute force", and which contained the declaration that "the 4,000,000 Germans forced under foreign rule will for all time insist on self-determination as the only possible basis on which the modern state may be founded."

The German Nationalists voted against accepting the Treaty, but some members of the South Tyrolean party abstained from voting.

The Allied Powers forbade the designation "German Austria", saying that the new state must be called "The Republic of Austria."

In a resolution adopted by the Austrian Assembly, ultimate union with Germany was declared to be an absolute necessity.

In accepting the Peace Treaty terms the Austrian Parliament notified the Peace Conference that it bowed under necessity to the will of the Allies. The

protests of nationals detached by the Treaty from Austria—Bohemians, Germans, Tyroleans, Carinthians, and others—accompanied the acceptance.

A protest of another kind was heard, on September 6th, when Count Sigray, Commissary for Western Hungary, announced by wireless that the Hungarian Government had repudiated the territorial clauses of the Austrian Treaty awarding the Odenburg Region to Austria on ethnological grounds, and warning Austria that the Hungarian Government would resist with armed force any attempt to occupy Western Hungary.

#### Austria Threatened with Starvation

The gaunt specter of famine stalked through the little Republic of Austria as the winter of 1919—1920 drew near. The Austrian provinces had been stripped almost bare of food, fuel, and clothing. Of the 6,000,000 people comprising the present population, 2,500,000 had been herded together in the capital, Vienna. From a city of gayety it had become a city of tragedy; the masses of people were on the verge of absolute starvation; the children were being fed by the charity of peoples who were their enemies in War; soldiers even were reduced to begging a crust in the city's streets.

In Vienna there were 100,000 unemployed workmen who received from the state a dole of 5 to 15 cents a day, barely sufficient to keep them from starvation. Six thousand families in Vienna were homeless. Children over one year of age were allowed no milk, and children under that age were given only half a litre of milk each day. Though the winter snows were falling, the people were miserably clad in cotton clothes, and many small children were obliged to go about bare-legged in the wintry weather. Heartless profiteers had cornered the food surplus and released it only at fabulous prices. The purchasing power of money, due to inflation, had depreciated so much that Treasury notes were deemed little better than waste paper. The crown sold for one cent American money, though normally worth 20 cents.

Thousands died from cold and hunger, new-born infants and their mothers perishing even in hospitals from exposure to low temperatures.

The Vienna City Council, on October 17th, appealed to America for assistance. Mrs. Albert Halstead, wife of the American Commissioner, wrote on November 14th that death threatened all the children unless warm clothing was provided them. On October 25th, Dr. Giest, the organizer of American Work for Children's Relief in Vienna, was appointed Food Director.

Herbert Hoover, United States Food Commissioner, on December 17th, declared that unless the United States gave credit for breadstuffs to Austria, Poland, Finland, and other nations in Central Europe, millions of poor people would starve. The bread ration in Vienna had already been reduced to three ounces a day.

#### Allies Give Supplies to Austria

The Supreme Council of the Allies, on December 17th, voted a loan of \$70,000,000 to Austria for food, the loan to be guaranteed by France, England, and Italy unless the United States consented to assume it. At that time a pound loaf of bread sold in Vienna for 80 cents, while most workmen were receiving a wage of less than 15 cents daily.



BALTIC STATES. JAN.—DEC.

## Germans Attempt Seizure of Baltic Provinces After Armistice

### Aided by Russian Mercenaries, They Occupy Latvia, Courland and Lithuania

SECTION 8—1919

**German Army, 50,000**

Gen. von der Goltz  
Gen. Eberhardt  
Major Bischoff  
Gen. von Kaithen

**Russian Mercenary Army, 50,000**

Col. Avalov-Bermond

**Baltic Peasants' Army, 15,000**

Col. Ballod

**Esthonian Forces, 25,000**

Gen. Soots

**Inter-Allied Commission, 1500**

Gen. Niessei  
Gen. Cheney (American)

**North Russian Forces, 15,000**

Gen. Yudenitch  
Gen. Etienne (French)

ONE of many incongruous happenings in Europe, during the year 1919, was the attempt of a volunteer German Army, 50,000 strong, under command of Gen. von der Goltz, assisted by 50,000 mercenary Russian troops commanded by Col. Avalov-Bermond, to seize and hold the Baltic Provinces of Latvia, Courland and Lithuania, months after the Armistice had been signed.

These Provinces, for upward of a century, had been subject to Russia. The ruling classes, however, known as the "Baltic Barons", were of absolute Germanic blood, and they ruled the peasants with an iron hand. After the Russian collapse, the peasants in these Provinces had risen in rebellion, seized the reins of government and expelled the Barons. The Provinces subsequently declared their independence.

For many years Germany had coveted these Provinces and in 1918 she attempted to seize them. German armies invaded the Baltic regions, ostensibly to protect the inhabitants against the Russians, but in reality to restore the German Barons in their former possessions and reduce the peasants to slavery. The sudden termination of the World War, however, had upset the German plan of conquest.

At the time of the Armistice, the Eighth German Army in the Baltic Provinces was breaking up in confusion. The Baltic Barons, none the less, thought the times propitious for regaining their possessions. They readily gained the ear of the Berlin Revolutionary Government, which was Imperialistic at heart though Socialistic in name, and between them they plotted to deceive the conquering Allies.

#### Allies Seek German Aid Against Bolsheviks

A Social Democratic Commissioner, named Winnig, representing the Berlin Revolutionary Government, was sent to the Baltic, soon after the Armistice, to reorganize the German Eighth Army, then being dissolved. The commander of this Army, Gen. von Kaithen, attempted to organize a complete division of 12,000 men, ostensibly to fight the Bolsheviks, but only 600 German soldiers would volunteer for this service.

Finding that it was necessary to bribe the German soldiers to re-enlist, Commissioner Winnig, in January, 1919, induced the Lettish Government to issue a charter conferring Lettish citizenship and full political rights on every German soldier who should enlist to fight for a month on Latvian soil against the Bolsheviks. Armed with this charter, Winnig

returned to Berlin while the revolution was in full blast, and opened recruiting offices there.

The returning soldiers of the German Empire were promised, if they should enlist for the Baltic campaign, not only full rights of citizenship but inalienable grants of land for homestead construction. By such inducements the German soldiers were persuaded to enlist by thousands and then packed off to Latvia-Courland, where Gen. von der Goltz's drill sergeants shaped them into an army 50,000 strong, splendidly armed and equipped.

There really was need for a protective army in Latvia at this time, for on February 3d the Bolsheviks occupied Riga and threatened the whole province. The Council of Four, in fact, asked Gen. von der Goltz to remain with his troops in the occupied territory for the sake of stabilizing conditions there.

From the time of the signing of the Armistice, the Germans labored with feverish haste to set up a counterpoise to the conditions of the Armistice. They chose Courland as the most desirable territory bordering on Germany, and yet beyond its frontiers, for assembling their Army, organizing their material and supply departments, their arsenals and even their commissary stations. On this enterprise they expended the last remnants of their available cash. The whole enterprise had for its purpose two objects; first, to save a part of the war supplies from being handed over to the Allies under the terms of the Armistice; and secondly, to camouflage this secret mobilization under the pretence that they were fighting Bolshevism.

Gen. von der Goltz's Hessians bestirred themselves in evicting the peasants from the Baronial estates and parcelling out among themselves the fertile acres. Some weeks later the Peace Conference at Versailles took notice of the shady proceedings, commanding Gen. von der Goltz to withdraw his army.

After a show of sullen resistance, von der Goltz transferred his army to Suwalki, where he began to make war against the Poles. Again the Peace Conference ordered him to desist. This time he marched toward Riga, still hoping to keep a road open into Russia against the expected day when his beloved Kaiser might be restored to the throne of Germany.

By this time the patience of the Allies was almost exhausted. They served notice on President Eberts that he must, without delay, call back the German troops. Finally, on November 1, 1919, almost a year after the Armistice was signed, President Eberts



threatened drastic measures against the German troops remaining in the Baltic region if they failed quickly to evacuate Courland. It was decreed that every German soldier who failed to recross the German border by November 11th, at the latest, should be declared a deserter and no longer a German citizen. This warning sufficed to bring the von der Goltz adventure to a sudden close. Leaving Gen. von Eberhardt to conduct the evacuation of the German troops, von der Goltz returned to Germany.

Meanwhile the Lettish troops, led by Col. Ballod, were harassing the Russo-German troops under Col. Avalov-Bermond. First the renegade Russians were forced out of Riga, and thrown back to their base at Mitau, where they joined forces with the retreating German army under Gen. Eberhardt. The evacuation of Riga was the occasion for joyous celebrations by the Lithuanians who had been fighting the German hordes for four years.

As they retreated, the Germans set fire to numberless farms along their path. The Lettish troops finally overtook them at Mitau, where a battle was fought on November 21st, resulting in heavy casualties to both armies. The German-Russian forces were compelled to evacuate Mitau, but before doing so they despoiled every shop in the business section, indiscriminate looting being the rule. The inhabitants, during the German occupation, lived in a veritable reign of terror.

From Mitau, the Letts drove the enemy pell mell before them. In vain Gen. Eberhardt appealed to President Eberts for help in equipment and money. Eberts dared not risk sending arms to the German Army. Minister of Defense Noske also refused a request for military assistance in liberating the railroad which the Letts had seized. Realizing that the game was up, Gen. Eberhardt and his staff, numbering 65 officers, left Kovno for their own frontier.

At this juncture the newly arrived Inter-Allied Commission, presided over by Gen. Niessel, instructed the Lettish Army to cease pursuit of the fleeing Germans, insinuating that the Lett soldiery were committing excesses against the German residents of the Baltic region.

Col. Ballod protested that undue severity had not been visited upon the Germans. Contrariwise he cited an example of German barbarism as practiced upon a Lettish commander who had fallen into German hands. "They tore out his eyes and cut out his tongue. Then they wrapped his body in barbed wire and lowered him by a rope over the Dvina bank into a hole which they had cut in the ice. He was immersed for a time and then drawn out, lest death come too quickly, and let fall again, for there were three separate thicknesses of ice on the body when it was found."

Though the Letts, in compliance with Gen. Niessel's request, had ceased to pursue the Germans beyond the frontier, still the wrathful Lithuanians would not be held in check. Advancing westward, they occupied the town of Radziwiliski, with the object of cutting off the German retreat. There they received peremptory orders to refrain from hindering the retreat of the Germans. The orders were scrupulously obeyed and the Germans and Russians, unmolested, continued their inglorious retreat across the frontier. For several days the German hospital trains, carrying thousands of wounded soldiers, could be seen roll-

ing southward toward the frontier. The soldiers generally were bitterly incensed at the treatment they had received at the hands of the German leaders of this mad Baltic adventure.

The Germans, nevertheless, maintained a line in Lithuania, a few miles south of the Lettish frontier, and it was reported they were still receiving arms and munitions from Germany. The Letts were preparing to attack them in this position when the German Government promised to withdraw all the troops from Latvia by December 13th.

Early in December, five trainloads of troops from the German "Iron Division" newly arrived at Tilsit on their way to the interior of Germany, refused to proceed further in deference to the Inter-Allied Commission's orders. Subsequently four trainloads of German troops arrived at a point north of Memel, where they again threatened Courland. The authorities of the German Headquarters at Konigsberg acknowledged that this had been done at their orders and they assumed all responsibility for the soldiers' actions.

By December 13th, some 15,000 of these rebels were concentrated at Memel and in a position to menace Courland. The German Government, upon the warning of the Allied War Council, sent these rebels a final ultimatum to return at once lest they and the Fatherland should suffer annihilation. The rebels prudently withdrew and Germany's Baltic enterprise seemed to have been brought to a conclusion.

#### German Army Refuses to Leave Lithuania

Late in August, 1919, an army of 40,000 well-equipped troops, 37,000 of whom were Germans and 3,000 Russians, began their concentration in Lithuania. Nominally under command of the Russian General, Bermond, they were in reality subject to the supreme control of the German Gen. von der Goltz. By a pretended allegiance to the All-Russian government of Admiral Kolchak, the officers of this army exempted themselves from orders issued by Marshal Foch or the Inter-Allied Council.

To increase this armed force, many Russian prisoners of war were despatched out of Germany. In the way of equipment the Germans had brought 680 airplanes, 100 automobiles and one armored train into the province. In vain did the Lithuanian Government and the Allied officials demand the withdrawal of this German Army; no attention whatever was paid to the notes. Gen. von der Goltz, on his return from Berlin, however, promised the Allied representatives that evacuation would be carried out, but not before September.

Meanwhile the German troops were conducting themselves in their old-time manner. Attacking the Lettish headquarters in Mitau, they confiscated 50,000 roubles. They even dared to place under arrest three members of the British Mission to Lithuania in Mitau, but soon afterwards released them. Always they acted in collusion with the Bolsheviks who had overrun all southern Lettland. The German Government, in a note to the Entente Powers, feebly protested its inability to compel the obedience of the German troops, by military means, but promising to spare no efforts to induce the troops to evacuate Lithuania.



**American Brigade Aids the Lithuanians**

Meanwhile the Lithuanians, the Letts, and the Poles were gaining military victories over the Bolsheviks on their respective fronts. Serving with the Lithuanian Army was an American brigade formed of demobilized American officers and discharged enlisted men. The Red forces, finally surrounded on

the Dvinsk front, made overtures for peace. Other Red forces had been driven from Novooalexandrovsk by Lettish and Lithuanian troops on August 15th, leaving many prisoners and guns behind. On September 1st, the Poles seized the fortified town of Bolriusk, 85 miles southeast of Minsk, capturing 500 prisoners with the aid of tanks, the first they had used in their campaign.

INDIA, MAR.—APRIL

**Massacre of 400 Hindus by British Troops at Amritsar, India**

**Bloody Sequel to the Efforts of the Indian Peoples to Gain Self Government  
Gen. Dyer, the Author of the Massacre, is Rewarded by Britishers  
With a Gift of \$50,000**

SECTION 9—1919

**British Commander**

Brig. Gen. R. E. H. Dyer

INDIA in 1919 was stirred, as it had not been since the Mutiny, by the atrocious massacre at Amritsar in April of 400 unarmed civilians who had assembled in the village square to protest against the tyrannous acts of their British masters and plead for the boon of self-government.

The details of the massacre, which occurred in April, were withheld from the English public for months by the connivance of the Indian censor. When finally the news was permitted to reach England, the Indian massacre was the subject of general denunciation by press and public. The British Parliament conducted an impartial investigation of the whole subject of Indian discontent. As a result of the inquest the author of the massacre, Gen. Dyer, was dismissed from the army, but subsequently he was rewarded by a gift of \$50,000 raised through popular subscription by a London newspaper.

The causes leading up to the uprisings, which culminated in the massacre at Amritsar, trace back 160 years to the time when the yoke of Great Britain was first fastened on the neck of India. For a century and a half the 300,000,000 Moslems and Hindus comprising the population of India have groaned under the severity of British rule. English writers frankly acknowledge that there is no such hopeless poverty to be found elsewhere in the world as that which continues under British rule in India. So pitiful is the impoverishment of the Hindus that the British Government has not dared to publish official statistics on the subject. It is said that 30,000,000 Indians have died of starvation in the past seven years.

Not only have the myriad peoples of India been starved and enslaved, but their education has been neglected by their harsh alien masters. Indian arts and culture, too, instead of being fostered, are falling steadily into decay. Of liberty there is none for this cultured people who were in the van of human progress when the Saxons were roaming the wilds as painted savages.

**England's Vile Opium Traffic**

The blackest blot on the British escutcheon relates to the wholesale corruption of India by the British traffickers in opium. The poor Hindu peasants were denied loans of money to facilitate their agrarian operations; instead, they were encouraged to plant

poppy, from which opium is derived, and these operations were financed by British capitalists. Poppy was consequently grown on a colossal scale in India to the detriment of general farming. Though millions of Hindus have died of starvation because of the failure of the cereal crops, yet the opium trade has thrived and the deadly drug has been forced upon the peasantry at fabulous prices by British traffickers in human souls. Millions of Hindus are still in the thrall of the opium habit, fastened upon them by their British masters, in the same manner as the "thrifty" British Tories laid the opium curse on China.

For upward of 160 years the British Tories had contrived to maintain their despotic rule in India, as they had in Ireland also, by fanning the flames of religious animosity among the diverse races comprising the population. By maliciously pitting the Moslems against the Hindus, as in Ireland the Ulster Protestants have been inflamed against the Catholics of the South, the British rulers until recently had succeeded in preventing that unity of action, that solidarity of protest, upon which successful revolutions are necessarily based. But now the situation is changing in India. Hindus and Moslems, resigning their inherited hatreds, are acting solidly together. As never before, since the Mohammedans first invaded Hindustan, these diverse races are united. "All races and creeds," to quote the English writer, M. M. Hyndman, "are awakened to the necessity for joint action in a common endeavor to obtain self-government for India—under British guidance, but not under British domination."

**Hindus and Moslems in the World War**

The people of India, in common with other humane and enlightened races, regarded the World War as a struggle between liberty and despotism, for the freedom of all nations and the right of all peoples to rule their own destinies. How eagerly the Hindus and Moslems alike embraced the cause of the Allies is a matter of history. Britain, during the War, posed as the friend of Liberty throughout the world. Knowing this, the Hindus and Moslems, no less than the Irish and Egyptians, maintain that Britain cannot ethically deny to them the same boon for which she herself was fighting in Europe, and in achieving



which she had been helped by their blood and treasure.

The spectacle of thousands of Indian troops going forth gladly to fight for justice and right, side by side with the British soldiers, appealed intensely to India's imagination. It was a source of legitimate pride and delight to her people that Indian regiments should be deemed fit to face the most highly trained enemy in the world. Now they demanded that Great Britain, voluntarily or under the compulsion of the humane decrees of the civilized world, should fulfill her obligation to the nations which saved her from destruction in 1914—1918 by granting to India and all other subject peoples the boon of self government.

### The Hindu Magna Charta

Resolutions relating to self government in India were adopted first in the Indian National Congress and the All-India Moslem League held at Lucknow in December, 1916, and again at Calcutta in December, 1917. Nothing less than self government within the British Empire would satisfy the Indian people. Declaring that the people of India are fit for responsible government, the Congress repudiated the assumption to the contrary contained in the British report on Indian constitutional reforms.

A Special Congress was summoned at Bombay, in August, 1918, with the full concurrence of the All-India Moslem League, which met in the same city at the same time. This Congress demanded that the people of India be peacefully granted the right to rule their own destiny. In this Magna Charta of the Hindus and Moslems of India—comprising a fifth part of the human race—it was declared: (1) That all Indian subjects of the British Empire, naturalized or resident in India are equal before the law and, consequently, there shall be no penal or administrative law in force in India of a discriminative nature; (2) that no Indian subject of His Majesty shall be liable to suffer in liberty, life, property or in respect of free speech or writing, or of the right of association, except under sentence by an ordinary court of justice, and as a result of lawful and open trial; (3) that every Indian subject shall be entitled to bear arms, subject to the purchase of a license, as in Great Britain, and that right shall not be taken away save by a sentence of an ordinary court of justice; (4) that the press shall be free and that no license or security shall be demanded on the registration of a press or a newspaper; (5) that corporal punishment shall not be inflicted on any Indian subject save under conditions applying equally to all other British subjects.

It was further proposed that the Council of India be abolished and that there shall be two permanent Under Secretaries appointed to assist the Secretary of State for India, one of whom shall be an Indian.

In the Government of India it was proposed that there shall be no Privy Council. At least half the number of Executive Councillors in charge of reserved subjects shall be Indians. The number of members of the Legislative Assembly shall be raised to 150, and the proportion of the elected members shall be four-fifths. No dissolution of the Legislature shall take place except by way of appeal to the Electorate. There shall be an obligation to convene meetings of the Council and Assembly at stated intervals, or on the requisition of a certain proportion of members. The Legislative Assembly shall have

power to make, or modify, its own rules of business, and they shall not require the sanction of the Governor General. A statutory guarantee shall be given that full responsible Government shall be established in the whole of British India within a period of not exceeding 15 years.

The proposals for the provincial governments include equality with the British self-governing dominions in the relations of the Governor to the Ministers on transferred subjects and in fiscal economy through the Legislature, control of Budget through the Legislature subject to the contribution to the Government of India and the allocation of a fixed sum for the reserved subjects and equal rights for women.

The Congress placed on record its deep disappointment at the altogether inadequate response made by the Government to the demand for the grant of Commissions to Indians in the Army, and expressed the opinion that steps should be taken so as to enable the grant to Indians at an early date of at least 25 per cent of the commissions in the Army, the proportion to be gradually increased.

### England Offers India a Sop of Reform

Instead of granting the Indians a form of Dominion Government, as they desired and deserved, the British rulers put forth a project of so-called Constitutional Reform, which was far from satisfactory to the Indian people. The Central Autocracy still remained supreme. All the old tyrannies continued in effect. Public meetings in some of the Provinces were prohibited; freedom of the press was entirely abrogated; natives were arrested, imprisoned and transported to a criminal colony without trial and without accusation; young Hindu students were publicly flogged for purely political reasons; and the people were disarmed. Solemn official promises made to the peasant-farmers in regard to taxes were deliberately broken in a manner absolutely ruinous to the peasants. Excessive charges were made for all irrigation water supplied by the Government, in order that the capital sunk in the water works might show a profit. The poor folks were prohibited from using water from their own wells, so that they should be driven to buy the Government water. No attention was paid to the complaints of the peasants, or of their leaders, the latter including men of the very highest character. In the Punjab, some 60 young men were sentenced to death within seven months. Several others were hanged at Lahore who had not been proved guilty of any murderous offense.

### People's Leader Hounded

The principal Indian agitator, Lajput Rai, who had spent a fortune in philanthropic work, was arrested by British satraps and transported without any accusation and without trial. When the news of this arbitrary proceeding reached England, such a storm broke out in the House of Commons that the Central Government in India was compelled by public opinion to intervene. Fair trial of the incriminated persons who had been transported without accusation was ordered. Lajput Rai from an outlaw became a hero, but the Indian Bureaucrats at length ruined him financially and hounded him out of the country.

## The Outbreaks in Delhi

The first revolt against British rule occurred in Delhi on March 30, 1919, when a shutting of shops occurred as part of the movement of passive resistance organized by the Indian Nationalists against the terms of the Rowlatt act. The crowds became intractable, bricks were thrown at the police and soldiers, and in the melee that followed several persons were killed and wounded. These disturbances, however, according to the official report of the British Commission which investigated the riots, never took the form of an organized conspiracy against the Government. The outbreaks are explained as due to a general feeling of dissatisfaction following the War, and among the poorer classes, a feeling of disappointment that prices had not fallen to their pre-war level. It is conceded that firing was not resorted to until all other methods had failed.

At Ahmedabad, 40,000 workmen employed in 78 mills went on strike as a protest against the arrest of one of their leaders. Some 28 native rioters were killed and 123 wounded; but only two of the British soldiers were killed. At Viramgam a riot broke out in which six natives were killed and 18 wounded.

### The Massacre at Amritzar

Far more serious were the riots in the Punjab district, which began at Amritzar on April 10, 1919. Following a peaceable "hartal", or concerted closing of the Hindu shops, the British satraps seized two leaders of the people, Dr. Satyapal and Dr. Kitchlew, and afterwards deported them. An angry crowd assembled before the Deputy Commissioner's house and in the riot which ensued ten persons were killed.

Two days later, while the unarmed citizens were assembling peaceably in the public square to voice their grievances, a body of British troops, commanded by Gen. Dyer, surrounded the meeting place. Two armoured cars were brought into play. Without giving the multitude any warning to disperse, Gen. Dyer ordered his troops to fire upon them. Some 1700 rounds were fired and approximately 380 people were slaughtered, while 1100 others fell wounded.

### The Investigation

An investigation to fix the responsibility for this massacre was set in motion by the British Parliament. The majority report justifies the massacre. The minority report of the investigators finds Gen. Dyer had boasted that he was "going to give the rebels a lesson", and "strike terror through the Punjab", as he wished to "reduce the morale of the rebels." The fact was disclosed that Gen. Dyer's troops continued firing even when the people began to run away and never ceased firing until their ammunition was about exhausted. The report concludes: "Now because certain people, on April 10, had committed certain outrages at Amritzar, to treat the whole population of Amritzar as rebels was unjustifiable; it was still more unjustifiable to fire at the meeting, which was not engaged in doing any violence, in order to give them a lesson and to punish them, because they had disobeyed his orders prohibiting meetings. It is clear that there must have been a considerable number of people who were perfectly innocent and who had never in all probability heard of the proclamation."

The Government of India mildly censured Gen. Dyer for acting "beyond the necessity of the case." But the British Secretary of State for India, in his report to the Governor General, was not so lenient. He denounced Gen. Dyer as one "unfitted to remain intrusted with the responsibilities which his rank and position impose upon him."

### Gen. Dyer Removed

The National Congress Committee, sitting at Benares, condemned the majority report (British), on the ground of racial bias and as emphasizing the tendency to regard Indian life and honor as of little consequence.

The Army Council on July 7th set its final approval on the sentence which removed Gen. Dyer from his position as commander and forbade his holding any further army position in India. Dyer's methods, however, were still cherished in the British Army, as we shall see when we review the equally cold-blooded massacre of spectators at a football game in Cork, Ireland, in the fall of 1920.



NORTH RUSSIA, JAN.—DEC.

## Allies Wage Unlegalized War Against Bolsheviki in N. Russia

Expedition Narrowly Escapes Annihilation in the Shadows of the North Pole

Five Russian Battalions Murder Officers and Desert to Bolsheviki

American Soldiers Also Mutiny

SECTION 10—1919

### Allied Expeditionary Army, 47,000

Gen. Ironsides, Commander-in-Chief  
(Succeeding Gen. Poole)

#### British Land and Naval Forces

Gen. G. H. C. Maynard, Commander  
Rear Admiral Greene

#### Russian National Forces

Gen. Mueller, Commander

#### U. S. Land and Naval Forces

Gen. W. P. Richardson, Commander  
Admiral N. A. McCully  
Col. Stewart

#### British Evacuation Army

Gen. Rawlinson, Commander

French, Serbian, and Italian units

### Bolshevik Army, 50,000

Gen. Kamenev, Commander

#### Division Commanders,

Gen. Gettis  
Gen. Nikolaev  
Gen. Vacetis  
Gen. Stupin  
Gen. Horokin

THE sword of the Allies was for the first time drawn unworthily when, in the winter of 1918—1919, the small Expeditionary Force, which was landed on the Murmansk coast of Arctic Russia, before the Armistice, to guard the munition dumps at Kola against possible seizure by the Germans, and at the same time render such aid as would be acceptable to the Russian peoples in the organization of their own self defense, was diverted from its legitimate mission and led into the Russian interior, there to wage unlegalized war against the Bolsheviki and incur the reproach of acting in the interests of a Russian faction bent upon the restoration of Czarism.

Although no declaration of war had issued from either side, still a state of war existed, and for the space of eight months after the German Armistice, the reluctant soldiers of the Expeditionary Force were condemned to hunt the Bolshevik wolf-packs up and down the frozen tundras of Arctic Russia, sustaining a hopeless battle in which their hearts were never enlisted, while ceaselessly importuning their several governments to deliver them from the glacial purgatory into which they had been so surreptitiously led.

As the winter advanced, and the perils of the chase increased, the mood of the Expeditionary Force expressed itself in sullen mutiny. American and Russian units each in turn refused to obey the commands of their superior officers, chiefly British. The crisis of the mutiny was reached in July, 1919, when five battalions of Russian conscripts, on five separate fronts, after murdering their British and Russian officers, deserted en masse to the Bolsheviki.

This, however, had been preceded by a tragedy of despair in which numbers of American soldiers had deliberately maimed themselves to avoid further participation in an adventure which revolted their souls.

Awake at last to the gravity of the situation, the Allied governments bestirred themselves to rescue the remnant of the Expedition from its Arctic prison. The American contingent was the first to be withdrawn. With the departure of our troops in June, 1919, the plight of the British, French, Serbian, Ital-

ian and Russian units left behind grew rapidly desperate. Encompassed on three sides by the merciless Bolsheviki, they faced possible extermination, and but for the timely arrival of a British Army of Evacuation might all have perished. Thousands of lives and \$250,000,000 in treasure was the cost to the Allies of their unlegalized effort at restoring the equilibrium of Russia.

### Origin of the Expedition

The North Russian Expedition had its inception in that critical period of the World War beginning in April, 1918, when the great German drive on Paris was at its height and before America had massed her full strength on French soil. Germany's star then seemed in the ascendant. Not only had she overpowered the armies of England and France in the West, but she had hastened the fall of the Russian Empire in the East, and with the connivance of certain Bolshevik agents was plotting to seize the fairest provinces of that Empire. Already a German governor, supported by a German army, had usurped the power in Ukraina. German authority was paramount also throughout Roumania and the Black Sea littoral, and was being extended eastward toward Turkestan, Persia and Afghanistan. German rulers had been selected for Finland, Lithuania and Poland. The acquisition of Courland, Esthonia and Livonia by the Germans was considered imminent. In co-operation with the Finnish White Guards, a German army was preparing to invade North Russia with the avowed purpose of annexing the Murman peninsula.

Russia itself was then in the throes of civil war, with three diverse elements of the population contending for the supreme authority, and a dozen or more secedent sections posing as independent governments. Of these Russian political elements, the most numerous were the Constitutional Democrats, comprising perhaps 90 per cent of the Russian peasantry. Weary of war, and suddenly freed from the tyranny alike of Czar and rapacious landlord, they had hoped to possess their lands in peace and eventually erect on the ruins of Empire a Federation of Russian



States, modeled on Socialistic lines. Their hopes of quickly democratizing Russia had been blasted when the Bolsheviki, after dissolving the Constituent Assembly, had seized the reins of government and extended their rule over the greater part of European Russia and Siberia.

The Bolsheviki, though representing less than 1 per cent of the Russian population, still, by virtue of a compact military organization composed of murderous Letts and Chinese, and their control of railroads, warships, banks and stores, were able quickly to overawe the unarmed peasant majority. Then, after asserting control over the village *zemstvos*, the Bolsheviki attempted to nationalize all the lands, and also undertook to suppress the independent governments proclaimed in *Ukrainia*, the *Caucasus* and *Siberia*, with the purpose of setting up in Russia an Atheistical Empire or Kingdom of Antichrist, as a first step in their ultimate plan of Bolshevizing the entire world.

These sinister plans had been frustrated in part by the effective resistance of the Czecho-Slovak prisoners of war, an armed force of 50,000 soldiers interned in central Russia, who had, with the secret sanction of the Allies, generously espoused the cause of the Russian masses as against Bolshevik tyranny. The Czechs were largely instrumental in expelling the Bolsheviki from the zone of the Trans-Siberian railroad and in liberating the towns along the reaches of the *Volga* river.

A third political element in Russia was represented by the royalist survivors of the Old Regime, who had variously fled into South Russia and Siberia when the Bolsheviki first came into power. These refugees, a million in number, included 50,000 officers of the Czar's armies, in addition to the old nobility, the dispossessed landlords, the rich bankers, manufacturers, merchants, professional classes and the aristocracy in general. They, rather than the Czars, were the real authors of Russian tyranny throughout the centuries. Still heedless of the lessons derived from the Revolution, they hoped to reinstate themselves in power by accomplishing the overthrow alike of Bolshevism and Democracy, and the restoration of Czardom in Russia.

Meantime, the several regional governments set up in *Ukrainia*, *Siberia* and North Russia had solicited the aid of the Allies in combating Bolshevism and establishing democratical government in Russia. But the Allies, viewing the complex Russian situation from various angles of prejudice or interest, were unable to agree upon a policy of armed intervention in Russia's internal affairs. Many and intricate were the problems centering in military intervention. There was, first of all, to be considered the future status of the colossal loans made by the Allied governments to the defunct Russian Empire. Already the Bolshevik government had repudiated the Russian national debt. If now Russia were to be split up into a congeries of independent states would the several new governments established by Allied aid assume the obligations of the Empire? If any guarantees were submitted, either by the secedent states or the regional governments, they must have been regarded as insufficient by the Allies. A second reason for Allied hesitancy in approving of Russian secession was the disharmony existing among the various regional governments. Animated by different political ideals, and representing but a

fraction of the whole population, each regional government professed to speak in the name of all the Russian people. A third and more vital reason why the Allies should refrain from intervention was the fact that the Peasants and the Royalists had put rival armies in the fields, especially in *Ukrainia*, where, in addition to warring against the German usurpers and the Bolsheviki, they were fighting each other and at the same time seeking Allied support. Recognition of the Peasants meant approval of the secession movement, while any support tendered the Royalists might result in the overthrow of democracy and the restoration of Czarism in Russia.

The interests of France and England, as the chief creditor nations, seemed naturally linked with those of the Czaristic faction as against the Russian masses, for the reason that the Royalists were already pledged to restore integral Russia and meet all the obligations of the Empire. Moreover, this faction had 50,000 trained officers at its disposal to organize and lead the large armies that must take the field if Bolshevism was to be overthrown and Russia saved from anarchy. In the end the Allies threw their moral and material support to the monarchist faction, furnishing the means which enabled the armies of *Kolchak*, *Denekine* and *Yudenitch* to inaugurate their war against Soviet Russia. But before that time arrived the Allies themselves were drawn by the force of circumstance into a premature and irregular war with the Bolsheviki.

As elsewhere recorded, in the spring of 1918, a German army, 80,000 strong, in co-operation with Finnish White Guards, had proposed to create a "Greater Finland" by the seizure of the entire *Murman* coast of Arctic Russia, together with the new railroad connecting *Murmansk* with *Petrograd*. Fearing that this was but the prelude to a deeper plan involving the amalgamation of the German and Bolshevik armies, the Allied War Council considered means of thwarting the German movement. France and England favored armed intervention in Russia, but President Wilson stoutly opposed actual intervention. Subsequently, upon the representation of the Allies that the military stores at *Kola* sold by this government to Russia but never paid for, were in danger of falling into the hands of the Germans, the consent of President Wilson was secured to the dispatch of an Allied Expeditionary Force to *Kola* and *Archangel*, under the supreme direction of the British War Office. The force was to consist of 20,000 men, mainly British and American troops, with small contingents of French, Serbian, Polish and Italian troops.

#### Conflicting War Aims

In consenting to send American troops into Russia, under British auspices, President Wilson expressly declared that "the only present object for which American troops will be employed will be to guard military stores which may subsequently be needed by Russian forces and to render such aid as may be acceptable to Russians in the organization of their own self-defense." He solemnly assured the Russian people that "the Government of the United States contemplates no interference with the political sovereignty of Russia and no intervention in her internal affairs."

The British War Office, however, had evolved a more ambitious program. The original instruc-



tions sent to General Poole, prior to August 6th, were briefly as follows: "To resist German influence and penetration in Northern Russia, and enable the Russians to take the field again on the side of the Allies; to establish communication with the Czechs and with their co-operation secure control of the Archangel—Vologda—Ekaterinburg railway, and the river and railway line between Archangel and Viatka." In fact the British intention was to break through the Bolshevik cordon and re-establish the Eastern Front by a junction of the North Russian forces with the Siberian troops of Admiral Kolchak. These purposes were kept secret from the American soldiers sent into North Russia.

### Bolsheviki Steal the Allied Supplies

In alleging that the primary object of the Expedition was to guard the immensely valuable military stores at Kola against German seizure, the Supreme War Council or the British War Office would appear to have deviated into error. The truth is that, before the Allied Expedition landed at Kola, those supplies already had been seized by the Bolsheviki, and were being moved by rail or boat southward into Ukraine or into other regions then under German military control. An official of the United States Department of State, Mr. D. C. Poole, has testified that the Bolsheviki, when urged to give a pledge that these stores would not be turned over to Germany, flatly refused. "On the contrary, they appointed an 'Extraordinary Evacuation Commission' at Archangel to hasten their shipment inland. The movement of munitions, textiles, and similar materials toward the Ukraine and other regions controlled by the Germans, during the spring and summer of 1918, gave increasing evidence of co-operation with the Central Empires. This movement of materials became so important and so widely known that it at last emerged as the chief political issue in Russia. At the Fifth All-Russian Soviet Congress held at Moscow in July, 1918, the leaders of the Social Revolutionaries, in impassioned speeches, attacked Lenin and his associates, referring to these shipments, for having betrayed Russia into the hands of the Central Powers and become the active ally of German imperialism."

### War By Indirection

The seizure of these supplies and their transfer to the Germans most assuredly constituted a valid cause for war, but the Allied War Council appears to have preferred making war unconstitutionally and by indirection rather than after open declaration. At all events, the North Russian Allied Expeditionary Force invaded Russian soil under false pretences. The advance guard of the Expedition, consisting of about 1400 officers and men, with representatives of eleven different nationalities, including a small American contingent from the U. S. S. Olympia, was landed at Kola on the Murmansk coast in June. The Allied force reached a friendly agreement with the local Soviet government and assumed the burden of feeding the population. Inasmuch as the Bolsheviki had already stolen most of the munitions deposited at Kola, the British commanders deemed it necessary to pursue the thieves. Accordingly, the Expeditionary Force took boat for Archangel, landing at that port on August 3, 1918. The Bolsheviki at once retreated southward, some by boats up the Dvina

river and its tributaries, others by rail down the Vologda Railroad, and still others up the Onega River. The population of Archangel greeted the members of the Expeditionary Force most cordially. In retaliation the Bolshevik government at Moscow placed the British and French consuls under arrest. Rather than desert them, the American consul remained at his post, and thus all were held practically prisoners in the hands of the Bolsheviki. Though the detention of these officials was contrary to international law and the usage of nations, still the Allied War Council refrained from declaring war openly against the Reds, while secretly resolved to wage war against them.

The main body of the Expeditionary Force arrived at Archangel on August 26th, and with them a numerous company of British officers—"a whole shipload of them", as one deponent sayeth. Accompanying them was a Russian Socialist, Nicholas Tschaikowsky by name, who had visited London in hopes of gaining British recognition for an independent government for North Russia. A Socialist government was at once proclaimed, with Tschaikowsky as president, but it was not permitted long to function. In a little while a Russian military clique took over the North Russian Government under British auspices, and the venerable Tschaikowsky, beloved of all the people, was finally packed off to London, never to return. The head of this new government was one Gen. Mueller, a Russian monarchist of German extraction, who was identified with the cabal aiming at the restoration of Czarism.

### The American Expedition Arrives

The American Expeditionary Force, numbering some 6,000 troops, and under command of Col. Stewart, embarked from England on August 27th and arrived at Archangel September 4th. The policy of the United States government, with respect to the intervention, was strictly set forth in the instructions to the American Ambassador to Russia, Mr. David R. Francis. So far as our co-operation with the British was concerned, all military effort was restricted to the guarding of ports and as much of the adjacent territory as might develop threatening conditions. It was also pointed out that our Government did not consider that its efforts to safeguard supplies at Archangel or to help the Czechs in Siberia had created a state of war with the Bolsheviki. Notwithstanding these pacific declarations, war resulted, though without the consent of the United States Congress and without a declaration by any of the Allied Governments.

### American Grievances

The military command of all the Allied forces in the Archangel district was entrusted to Major Gen. Edmond Ironsides, an Englishman, who arrived at Archangel on September 30th, accompanied by a Canadian Artillery Brigade of two battalions and a total of 2,600 British and Allied reinforcements, of which about 500 were replacements from the 85th American Division. Britishers were in absolute command. As the American Y. M. C. A. secretary, who accompanied the Expedition, tells the story: "Whole shiploads of British officers were sent there to perform all possible functions of management and to cover all possible needs. The Americans, Russians, French, Italians, and Serbians all obeyed the British



officers, and found the British officers duplicating their own at every juncture. If they could avoid it, they never delegated any detail of authority to any officer of any other nationality. I have heard an American officer of high rank speak very bitterly of the fact that the British never consulted him except to give him orders, and made him feel quite useless." The methods of the British officers were exasperating to the Americans. For instance, instead of giving their orders directly to American colonels to be passed down the line "they ignored American officers most noticeably", giving their orders direct to American captains, lieutenants and even non-commissioned officers. "The men were made to feel most unnecessary and quite contrary to the facts that they had been handed to England and forgotten, that their government was unmindful of them, and that for the time at least they were deprived of the protection and divorced from the ideals of which the Stars and Stripes had always stood as a symbol in

their minds." An additional grievance lay in the fact that the American flag did not wave over our boys in North Russia. There was only one American flag carried by the Expedition, and that was kept inside headquarters where soldiers were but rarely admitted.

But "if the good American soldiers with this Expedition returned home thoroughly detesting the name and memory of everything British", as the Y. M. C. A. secretary declares, the relations of the Americans and the Russians were cordial in the extreme. "There was a Russian Passion for America; in every log house a love for America; in the hearts of the people in every village was shown the emotion of the ideal." Toward the British, on the contrary, the attitude of the Russians was one of open and early distrust, which grew into positive hatred and ended finally in the threat of annihilation if they did not leave Russian soil.

## War in North Russia Ends in Disaster

The pursuit of the Bolsheviks in North Russia was begun with the arrival of the first section of the Expeditionary Force at Archangel in August. At sight of the Allied invaders, the Soviet troops had retreated southward by seven diverse routes—some by train over the Vologda railroad, others by boat up the Onega River west of the railroad, still others up the Dvina River and its tributaries east of the railroad—so that eventually there were seven separated battle fronts, radiating like the digits of a seven-fingered hand from the "wrist" at Archangel, and with no lateral communication between the fingers.

The Bolsheviks were driven, or rather they led the Allied soldiers, down the Murmansk Railroad past Kem, down the Vologda Railroad beyond Obozerskaya, up the Onega River to Chekuevo, up the Pinegra River, up the Emtza River, up the Dvina River past Toulgas and up the Vaga River to Ustpadenga. The "front" extended over a distance of 450 miles, with the most advanced position more than 200 miles south of Archangel, the Allied base being established at Shenkursk on the Vaga River.

### First American Losses

During this pursuit, rear guard actions on a small scale were fought on every front. The American troops suffered their first reverses on September 16th in two separate clashes—at Verst 464, on the Vologda Railroad front, where three Americans were killed and two wounded, and at Seletskoe, where two members of the American outpost were wounded by artillery fire.

With the advent of the early Russian winter, the Allied troops found themselves scattered in small units over a wide stretch of blizzard-swept country, hundreds of miles from their base, each position practically isolated from all the others. Heretofore they had maintained the offensive. But now, beginning with November, and continuing through the winter, the initiative fell to the Bolsheviks. Simultaneous attacks on all the Allied fronts were launched by the Reds, who not only outnumbered the Allies, but held the superiority in artillery, with the additional advantage accruing from control of the railroads and of the principal craft on the rivers.

### Americans Repulse Bolsheviks

A furious attack on the American front along the Vologda Railroad was made at Kodish and Shredn Makrenga in the attempt to cut off the Allied base at Yemetskoye, but the gallant resistance of American and Canadian troops sufficed to hold the line intact. A similar attack on the Murmansk Railroad was also repulsed by the seasoned Serbian troops. At Pinegra and at Chekuevo the Bolsheviks were equally unsuccessful. On Armistice Day, from their base at Kotlas, the Bolsheviks launched an attack on the American outpost at Toulgas, but Co. B, 339th Infantry, could not be budged from their position. All winter long the Bolsheviks hammered at this position, but they failed to dislodge the Americans.

### The Battle of Ustpadenga

The mettle of the American soldiers was put to its first true test in the battle of Ustpadenga, a town on the Vaga River some 300 miles south of Archangel. This forward position was occupied by one company of American infantry, one platoon of American engineers, one section of Canadian artillery, miscellaneous units of Russian conscripts numbering about a thousand, and by the American and the British headquarters for the Vaga column.

On January 19, 1919, the Bolsheviks, 5,000 strong, attacked Ustpadenga. With long range artillery, outreaching the American guns, and with perfect observation on the American positions, they "picked off" every house in the town, up one side of the single street and down the other. Then, supported by machine guns and pompoms, the Red infantry advanced to attack the small Allied force opposing them. But our boys fought them valorously, holding them off for four days until the British command ordered them to fall back to Shenkursk, the Allied advanced base 18 miles north of Ustpadenga. In this engagement one American platoon of 40 men had 32 casualties and "every man in that small force had to do the work of ten men throughout that terrible week."

### The Retreat from Shenkursk

Gallantly fighting as they retreated, the American infantry and Canadian artillery units dragged them-



selves, minus two guns, into Shenkursk on the night of the 25th. Here they were reinforced by two companies of infantry, as a partial offset to the desertion of Russian conscripts to the Bolsheviks at Ust-padenga. During that day Shenkursk was bombarded from four sides by the long range guns of the Bolsheviks. As it was apparent that Shenkursk would be quickly reduced to ruins, the town was quietly evacuated that night without the loss of a man, but with the sacrifice of great stores of ammunition distant, with Kitsa, five miles to the rear, as spiked guns and 100 days' rations for 2,000 men.

#### The Long Battle at Vistafka

Walking two abreast, along a single track sled-road, and accompanied by hundreds of Russian refugees, the American and Canadian troops reached Shagavari, 30 miles to the north, on the following day. During this retreat, in a temperature of 36 degrees below zero, our boys had brought out 97 wounded and sick comrades, and these were sent on to Bereznik and Archangel, 300 miles distant, on pony sleds, traveling day and night. After a brief halt at Shagavari, the American and Canadian troops proceeded north to their new front at Vistafka, 10 nition and ordnance, all the personal kits, several headquarters. Here they remained until March 1, beating back the daily attacks of the Bolsheviks.

The defense of Vistafka was intrusted to four American companies of infantry, two companies of British troops, some Russian conscripts, supported by the Canadian artillery units. Seven thousand Bolsheviks quickly surrounded the town, but could not take it until their superior guns had finally rendered it untenable.

From Vistafka, the plucky American and Canadian soldiers retreated to Kitsa, which they held against repeated attacks until Easter Sunday, on which day they fell back to Malobereznik. Their stubborn resistance in the face of overwhelming odds had held the Bolsheviks from their objective, Bereznik, where the Allied stores of supplies and ammunition were kept, and the seizure of which would have proved disastrous to the whole Dvina column.

#### American Railway Troops Arrive

The imperative necessity of rescuing the hard-pressed Allied troops was now borne home to the Allied War Council, and plans were accordingly laid for their prompt withdrawal as soon as weather conditions permitted. Any reinforcements sent into North Russia must be sent by way of the Murmansk Railroad, which was in a state of unrepair. As a first step in the contemplated evacuation of our troops, two companies of American Volunteer Railroad Troops, with a total strength of 720 in all grades, was despatched to Murmansk in command of Major E. E. Macmorland. Their task was to repair the railroads and provide for the transportation of an Allied army, then forming at Murmansk, southward along the Murmansk Railroad toward Petrograd. The Railroad Troops were disembarked on April 10th and immediately assigned to duty. At the same time, Brigadier Gen. Richardson was sent to North Russia to take over the command of the American troops and arrange for their evacuation at the earliest possible moment. Gen. Richardson, with a small force of American officers and men, arrived on the battle front April 21st, and his pres-

ence did much to encourage our troops, just emerging from a long and trying winter, filled with uncertainty and foreboding.

#### First Mutiny of the Russians

On April 25th the first mutiny occurred in the Russian National Army at Toulgas. There were three classes in the Russian Army: First, the volunteers who enlisted to draw army rations and secure the privilege of purchasing food and clothing from the Y. M. C. A.; second, the conscripted men forced to join the army against their own choice; and, third, a large body of Ex-Bolshevist prisoners who chose the army in preference to prison or hard labor, and were made a part of the British Legion. These Russians had writhed under the strict discipline enforced by the British and Russian military martinets. They resented being addressed as "swine" and "Bolsheviks", and they protested because freedom of speech and public meeting had been denied them. They resented being forced into the British Legion by conscription. They distrusted the Russian officers placed over them as members of the Old Regime secretly planning to rob them of their new-found freedom and subject them once again to the tyranny of Czarism. Night after night Russian soldiers were put to death by firing squads on mere suspicion of being Bolsheviks, and these executions taught the simple Russians to hate their alien military masters. An additional cause for bitterness on the part of the Russian soldiers was the financial juggling of the British high command. The country having been flooded with Kerensky and Bolshevik paper money, it was impossible to maintain any general European value, so a new rouble was issued, under the name of "English rouble", with a guaranteed minimum value based on the deposits of such securities with the Bank of England. Still the peasants refused to give up their old roubles for the new. Thereupon the British "financiers" published a schedule of depreciation of all old roubles, which destroyed whatever value the Russian roubles possessed. The reputed aim of the British was to put the old roubles out of circulation, but instead they themselves paid their Russian soldiers and civilians in these old roubles, at the same time making it impossible for the Russians to spend their worthless money in the Y. M. C. A. "There was a general feeling among the Russian people that the Military Intervention under British command had taken that value out of their old roubles and in some mysterious way put it into its own pocket."

In consequence of this disaffection the Russian soldiers at Toulgas rose in mutiny on April 25th, killing nine of their officers.

#### The Battle of Malobereznik

On May 1st, the International labor holiday, the Bolsheviks attacked violently on all fronts. The heaviest blow fell on the American position at Malobereznik on the Vaga River front. The ice had begun to run out of the Vaga and the upper Dvina Rivers, enabling the Bolsheviks to mount guns on barges while the Allied gunboats were still frozen in at Archangel, far to the north. From these river craft, the heavy Bolshevik guns dropped 5,000 shells into Malobereznik, burning down every house. But when the Bolshevik infantry attacked, the American soldiers beat them back again and again, with heavy losses. Again on May 5th, the Bolsheviks deluged



the ruins of the towns with 8,000 shells, but when the last futile wave of the Red infantry had broken under the fire of the Americans they withdrew, leaving many dead on the field and 100 prisoners.

This battle virtually marked the end of the campaign. Our men continued in active patrol work, with more or less fighting until they were withdrawn from the front-line positions in preparation for the evacuation.

#### Mutiny of American Troops

Much ill feeling had been engendered among our troops by reason of the supercilious attitude of some of the British officers who controlled their movements. This disaffection resulted in the brief mutiny of an American company. Ordered to go to the front, they refused. But it was only a temporary refusal. In the end they did go to the front and as ever they fought splendidly. "Cursing the British, still they went to their death, 100 men doing the work of 1,000 men."

A graver charge, however, is laid at the door of some of our soldiers. The report of the Judge Advocate General gives a number of cases of American soldiers who were convicted by court martial of having been guilty of self-inflicted wounds. Goaded to desperation by the taunts of the tactless British officers, and feeling that they had been forsaken by their government, these American soldiers deliberately maimed themselves to avoid further participation in the illegalized and ill-advised war in North Russia.

#### Americans Withdrawn

The evacuation of the American troops was begun in the latter part of May. A portion of the command embarked at Economie on June 3d, a second contingent on June 15—16th, and the Engineer Battalion at Archangel on June 27th. The Railroad Transportation Troops embarked at Murmansk on July 30th. American headquarters were formally closed on August 5th. The total casualties of the American Expedition were 240.

The friendly Russians viewed the departure of the Americans with dismay and pleaded to have them stay or to have others sent to replace them.

#### British Army of Evacuation Arrives

In June, 1919, the British Army of Evacuation arrived at Archangel in command of Gen. Rawlinson. Announcement was made that the new army had

come "to finish the job, to clean up North Russia, to take Koltas by July 15th, Viatka and Vologda in another thirty days, and Petrograd before snowfall." The British Tommies indulged to the full their bent for braggadocio; they further exasperated the Americans by insisting that "England won the war", and that the Americans were of inferior clay. This from an army that had been saved from annihilation in France by the valor of the American soldiers was naturally provocative to wrath. As a result of this British persiflage, several incipient melees broke out in the streets of Archangel, in which the American soldiers acquitted themselves satisfactorily.

#### Six Russian Mutinies

The smoldering hatred of the Russian soldiers toward their officers was fanned into flame in July, 1919, when mutinies occurred on six of the seven battle fronts. At Troitsa, at Onega, at Pinegra, at Obozerskaya, on the Vaga River and on the Murmansk Railroad, the Russian battalions mutinied, killing their officers and then uniting with the Bolsheviks.

The battalion at Troitsa, which mutinied on July 7th, was composed of Ex-Bolshevik prisoners who had been given the option of joining the Allied army or remaining prisoners of war. This battalion had been feted and honored in many ways, but it was disloyal to the core. On Troitsa's fatal night they murdered five English and eight Russian officers. Many of the miscreants were recaptured and put to death. On the other fronts, the mutineers were those same Russian conscripts, who had been such warm friends of the American soldiers and who, on the departure of the Americans had declared significantly that the British would have to go home, too.

#### The Close of the Expedition

The Russians thereupon went over in great numbers to the Bolsheviks, compelling the British to retreat on all seven fronts. Every embassy received orders from home to leave with all its citizens, bag and baggage, and in the early days of September they went "as from a pestilence, shipload after shipload, all the embassies and consulates, the Y. M. C. A. and the Y. W. C. A., military missions, and bourgeois Russians." By September 20th, the last British soldier had been evacuated.

Thousands of lives and \$250,000,000 in treasure was the cost to the Allies of this ill-fated Expedition to North Russia.



POLAND, JAN. — DEC.

## Poland at War with Germans, Bolshevists, Ukrainians, Czechs

Supreme Council at Paris Prevents the Pursuit and Destruction of Bolshevists  
by Poland's Victorious Army

SECTION II — 1919

### Polish Army, 500,000

Gen. Joseph Pilsudski  
Gen. Haller  
Gen. Berthelot  
Gen. Anselme  
Gen. Dowbów-Musnicki

### German Army, 200,000

Field Marshal von Hindenberg  
Gen. Dommes  
Gen. Bergman

### Ukrainian Forces, 150,000

Gen. Petlura

### Bolshevist Forces, 100,000

### Czecho-Slovak Forces, 100,000

Lithuanian Forces, 50,000  
Gen. Zukauskas

THE new-born Republic of Poland was almost strangled in its cradle by the enemies which encompassed it around in 1919. Germany and Russia, two of three powers which had partitioned Poland and kept her submerged for upward of 140 years, resented the restoration of the ancient kingdom. The Ukrainians and Bolsheviki, having inherited Russia's hatred for Poland, also united in effort to throttle the new nation. The Czecho-Slovaks, who had fought under the Austrian colors during the War but had since become the proteges of the Allied nations and been granted the boon of national independence, assisted in the plot. The Lithuanians, too, those half brothers of the Prussians, and like them of Tartar-Mongol descent, endeavored to prevent the realization of Polish independence.

Two months after the Armistice, the German "Republic" had defiantly massed an army on the Polish and Lithuanian frontiers and declared war against poor struggling Poland, yet the Supreme Council at Paris neglected to give the word which would enable Marshal Foch once for all to put an end to Prussian aggression. The Bolshevists, whose leaders at least were German agents, naturally joined in the conspiracy to throttle Poland.

With 800,000 armed enemies assailing her from four sides, and with at the beginning a force of less than 60,000 to defend her frontiers, poor bleeding Poland nevertheless triumphed over the Russo-German League. As her Army gradually grew in size, until it attained a final strength of 500,000 effectives, the Poles not only broke the German assault, but defeated and pursued the Bolsheviki 200 miles beyond the frontier.

Indeed, Poland might easily at this juncture have crushed Bolshevism completely had not the same coterie of politicians at Paris, the same Supreme Council which had failed to send her any military aid in her early distress, sternly forbade her further to pursue the Bolsheviki.

### What the Greedy Foes of Poland Coveted

In restoring Poland, the Peace Congress had not exactly defined the boundaries of the new nation. Thus Danzig, the ancient seaport of Poland, now peopled largely by Germans, was left in dispute, pending a plebiscite, and Germany had seized upon this fact as a pretext for assembling a huge army and waging war against Poland in defiance of the terms of the Armistice. Germany's real object was to secure an open corridor into Russia which she

hopes ultimately to dominate.

The Ukrainians, too, objected to the restoration of a part of Galicia to Poland, since this involved the transfer to the Poles of rich coal fields owned by German capitalists. Urged on, no doubt, both by German and Russian influences they needed no further pretext for assailing Poland.

Similarly, the Czecho-Slovaks coveted the rich coal mines of the Teschen district which had been restored to Poland but were claimed by Germany and Bohemia as well.

As for the Lithuanians, they not only had a natural affinity for the Germans, but their political leanings were toward Bolshevism.

The Bolshevists themselves, having by the terms of the Brest-Litovsk treaty "presented" Germany with the whole of Poland, could not bear to see their generous award set aside. In particular they resented the setting up of a Christian rampart in Europe in the path of their proposed pagan advance westward to the conquest of the whole Western World.

So it resulted that the Poles were simultaneously involved in warfare on the North with the Lithuanians, on the South with the Ukrainians, on the East with the Russian Bolshevists and on the West by the Germans and the Czecho-Slovaks.

In the early weeks of the new war, when Poland needed military assistance in overthrowing this League of Deviltry, the politicians at Paris sent frequent notes to the various belligerents, politely asking them to desist from quarreling any further and even taking the pains to send urbane and leisurely "Commissioners" to inquire into the causes of the "quarrels." But they neglected to send an Allied Army into Germany to disarm or annihilate 200,000 German soldiers who were defiantly and illicitly assembled on the Polish frontier, contenting themselves with asking Germany to recall its Army, a command which the German Socialists contemptuously ignored for months.

### Polish Army Unaided by the Allies

The Poles themselves, though a valiant fighting race, were unprepared at first to defend themselves successfully against simultaneous attacks from four directions. Of the million or more Poles who had fought in the Russian ranks, 700,000 had survived, but most of these had been detained in Russia, being refused permission to return to Poland. For the most part they had been swallowed up in the maelstrom of the Russian revolution.



Gen. Pilsudski had, however, succeeded in organizing in Poland an army of 85,000 men, of whom scarcely 40,000 were immediately available for use on the the frontiers, most of them having been detailed for instruction in the interior of Poland. The Polish Cavalry, still in process of formation, comprised 12 regiments of Lancers. The Artillery consisted of 32 batteries of various calibers. It was hoped by spring to increase this Army to a strength of 150,000, and eventually a force of 500,000 was contemplated.

In addition to Gen. Pilsudski's Legion, there were four Polish Divisions in France, forming a corps of 40,000 men largely recruited in America and commanded by Gen. Haller. When the Armistice was arranged in November, 1918, this Polish corps had asked permission to return to Poland, but their prayer had been denied.

For nearly five months these Polish patriots, who had helped to defend France and England from the German peril, were detained in France while German armed forces were permitted to work their will in the Baltic States. And even when permission was given the Polish soldiers to assist their oppressed nation, their passage through Germany was prohibited by the military powers of Germany who seemed to hold in disdain the decrees of the Allied delegates sitting in Paris. Germany had plucked up courage since that threatening day in November when she begged for an armistice.

## Ukrainians Bombard Lemberg

The war against the Poles, waged by the Ukrainians of Eastern Galicia, took on a savage and violent aspect in February, 1919.

The Ukrainians by force of arms sought to recover Kholm district which had been awarded to them under the terms of the Brest-Litovsk treaty, but had been restored to Poland after the Armistice. They were already in control of the rich oil region of Boryslav, which yielded them necessary revenue to carry on the conflict.

The Ukrainian army advanced toward Lemberg, a city of 200,000 inhabitants, which was defended by a small garrison of Poles lacking arms and equipment. The siege of Lemberg began on February 15th when the Ukrainian heavy artillery dropped numberless shells into the city, but all attempts to enter Lemberg were repelled.

Instead of sending an army to the relief of the Poles, the Allies dispatched an Interallied Commission to Lemberg in hopes of talking the Ukrainians into submission.

## German Army Invades Posen

The Russian Bolshevik government, it will be recalled, had concluded a secret treaty with Germany on January 16, 1918, giving Germany economic control of Poland. This infamous treaty was, of course, set aside by the Allies at the time of the Armistice, when steps were taken to restore the old Kingdom of Poland. A small Polish armed force at once occupied Posenania (Posen).

The Germans, not relishing the idea of the restoration of Poland or the setting up of an independent

## The National Assembly Opens

Meantime an orderly election had taken place in Poland on January 19th to choose delegates to a National Assembly to be held on February 9th. This election resulted in an overwhelming victory for the National Patriotic Group, comprising National Democrats, Progressives, Realists and Populists, over the radical group, comprising Socialists, Jews and Germans.

The National Assembly was opened at Warsaw on February 10th, by Gen. Pilsudski, the Dictator, and Ignace Paderewski, the Premier. In attendance there were many notables, including the Anglo-American Mission, with Col. Wade at its head, the Pontifical delegate, the representatives of the Commission of Galicia and the National Councils of Posen and Silesia.

The solemn opening of the Diet took place the next day, under the Presidency of Prince Radziwill, who read a telegram announcing the arrival of Polish troops at Brest-Litovsk.

Official recognition of the Polish Government by the Allies was given on February 21st, thus ending a long controversy between the Polish Government and the Polish Committee in Paris, headed by Dmowski. The Treaty of Alliance was unanimously ratified on March 29th.

The Commissioners among whom were Prof. R. H. Loud of Harvard University, and Major-Gen. Francis J. Kiernan of the United States Army, were fired upon by Ukrainian soldiers on February 20th while journeying from Cracow to Lemberg in a Polish armored train. An armistice was arranged between the Poles and Ukrainians but hostilities were resumed on March 2nd.

By March 19th the Ukrainians were in possession of the Lemberg-Cracow railway. Lemberg itself was being bombarded with heavy guns and sections of the city already were in ruins or in flames. The Allied Supreme Council, by radio-telegrams this time, again ordered the hostile armies to suspend hostilities, suggesting that they refer their Galician boundary dispute to arbitration, but the Ukrainians wholly ignored the mandate of the Allied powers, continuing the daily bombardment of Lemberg all through March and April.

Early in May the Poles succeeded in raising the siege and driving back the Ukrainians so far that Lemberg was no longer in danger from shells.

nation between them and that Russia which they still coveted, raised the cry that the Poles were occupying a part of the German frontier as drawn in the Armistice terms. With brazen assurance, they demanded the immediate evacuation of Posen by the Polish troops and the re-establishment of the German authorities in Eastern Prussia. They backed up this demand by a military display in strength.

Naturally the Poles refused to evacuate their ancient provinces. Instead, they proposed a two-weeks'



truce while the matter in dispute was being referred to the Peace Conference. This proposal the Prussian Cabinet rejected, declaring that they would consent to a suspension of hostilities only after the Polish troops had withdrawn from Posen. Hindenberg's Army thereupon marched into Posen, and skirmishes occurred between them and the Poles at various points.

The German Army in March flatly refused to accept the Allied demand for the withdrawal of their artillery in the region between Danzig and Thorn in Poland, yet notwithstanding this defiance on the part of an outlawed foe, the politicians at Paris adopted no punitive measures.

On March 15th, German troops attacked the coal mines of Dombrowa in former Russian Poland, but they were repulsed by Polish troops assisted by the local militia. In Posen the Germans bombarded the towns of Nowa, Krusyna and Ostrowek, but all their attacks on this front were similarly repulsed.

#### Germans Try to Prevent Passage of Polish Army

The chief bone of contention between the Poles and the Germans was over control of the port of Danzig. Both nations claimed a majority of the nationals in the whole Danzig district. The Peace Conference, at first unable to decide between the two conflicting claims, declared Danzig an international city, belonging to neither party but free to both. Subsequently, a reconsideration of Poland's claims was made, and a new decision reached regarding the future status of the city. Danzig was to be recreated as a "free city", not indeed as a neutralized state, but rather as an autonomous republic within the Polish state, contained within the Polish Customs Union and represented in international relations by Polish diplomats. Its citizens were to be entitled to diplomatic privileges held by the citizens of Poland, together with free use of the Danzig wharves. Other transportation facilities were to be guaranteed to Poland, which was also to have control of the Vistula water route and freedom to pass not only along the Polish corridor but also through German territory, if necessary. Freedom of passage across the Polish corridor to East Prussia was likewise confirmed to Germany.

#### Gen. Foch Warns the Germans

The Germans did not intend to allow the Poles to pass through German territory if they could prevent it. Already they had taken steps to prevent the passage of Gen. Haller's 40,000 Polish Troops from France into Poland. On March 28th, Marshal Foch submitted a note to the German government, demanding a passage through Danzig for the Polish divisions under Gen. Haller, and permission for their further march to Poland. Marshal Foch warned the Germans that their refusal to comply with his orders would be regarded as a breach of the Armistice.

The German Government in its reply, held that under the Armistice terms Germany was bound only to grant the Poles free access to the Vistula in order to enable them to maintain order in Russian Poland. Guarantees were demanded that Haller's Polish army would not provoke an insurrection of the Poles in the Danzig district. Finally a counter-proposal was made that the Polish Army should land instead at Stettin, Königsberg, Memel or Libau.

Marshal Foch journeyed to Spa on April 3d to confer with Premier Erzberger and bring the matter in

dispute to a final decision. At this conference the right of the Polish forces, as a part of the Allied Army, to land troops at Danzig was maintained, but in order to hasten the arrival of the Polish troops it was decided to make use of other lines of transport proposed by the German government. If, however, difficulties of any kind should arise in their passage across Germany, Marshal Foch would reserve the right to debark the Polish soldiers at Danzig.

#### Gen. Haller's Army Held Up By Germans

The first contingent of Gen. Haller's Polish troops started on their homeward journey from France across Germany, on April 16th. At Treves, the German government interposed obstacles to the further passage of this army through Germany. On June 13th, Premier Erzberger notified the Allies that Poland was in a state of war with Germany and that two divisions of the repatriated army of Gen. Haller were being distributed along the whole Western frontier of Poland.

Subsequently, eight trainloads of Gen. Haller's army were held up for three days by orders of the German Government and food was withheld from them. Taken to task for this act of defiance, the German Government stated that it was not a government action but purely due to the zeal of "the local German commanders on the German-Polish line of demarkation."

A peremptory order from Marshal Foch brought the Germans to their senses, and Gen. Haller's army was allowed to proceed on its journey. The First Division reached Warsaw on Easter Monday, but the final transport was not completed until July.

#### German Attacks on Polish Cities

Meanwhile, German military aggression on the Western Polish boundary was causing great uneasiness at Paris. Heavy artillery attacks on Czechenstochowa, from the south and west, had threatened to cut railway communication with Warsaw, Cracow and the Teschen coal fields. The German Army, which the Allied politicians had carefully protected from total destruction at the time of the Armistice, was advancing some 50 miles southeast of Posen. Skirmishes were reported at many points.

On June 30th, the German Government falsely alleged that the Poles were interning all Germans over 17 years of age. The Huns even dared to threaten reprisals. This at the time when Premier Paderewski of Poland was begging the Allies to send him ammunition with which to protect the railroads of Poland against German aggression.

It seemed, however, as if the Allied politicians at Paris were far more inclined to hearken to the pleas of the Huns than of the Poles, for the Poles got no immediate assistance.

#### Germany Pulls the Wool Over Eyes of Allies

Still pulling the wool over the eyes of the Allied politicians at Paris, who were holding the armies of Marshal Foch in leash, the Germans on July 9th, with brazen effrontery, proposed the formation of a joint commission of Germans and Poles to "sit in Berlin" and settle questions arising out of the restoration to Poland of territories recovered from Germany. At the same time, with characteristic duplicity, the German diplomats feigned to organize a fictitious "Republic" in the eastern territories as-



signed to Poland, even naming a Provisional President to "govern" it.

Even then the politicians at Paris did not choose to let loose the armies of Gen. Foch against the German forces, but later in response to ominous rumblings, they promised anew to adopt adequate measures to insure the speedy execution of the Polish Treaty terms. This decision, however, did not deter the German Army on the western frontier

from pillaging Polish towns and harassing the Poles everywhere.

Previously, on July 2nd, the National Council of Posen had addressed an appeal to the inhabitants of Polish territories still under German domination, to preserve their calm and maintain order while awaiting the plebiscite which should decide the future status of those regions.

## The Campaign in Silesia and Galicia

### Polish Forces

Gen. Pilsudski

### Ukrainian-German Forces

Gen. Petlura  
Gen. Peneyeko

Let us now survey the happenings on the Silesian and Galician fronts, where the Poles combated the combined forces of the Ukrainians, Germans and Bolsheviks.

The restoration of Upper Silesia to Poland by the terms of the Peace Treaty had created great excitement among the German residents of the region affected by the grant. On May 11th, a mass meeting took place at Oppeln, at which resolutions were adopted demanding arms from Germany "for defense against those who would make us Polish slaves". In East Galicia also the attitude of the Ukrainians was belligerent. The Germans in Upper Silesia, meantime, were calling for mobilization.

### Paderewski Resigns as Premier

It had been the wish of the Allied Council that the Poles should not make war against the Ukrainians in East Galicia. Premier Paderewski, in fact, had given his pledge to the Peace Conference that no movement of Polish troops against them would be ordered. But during his absence in Paris the Polish government had actually begun a campaign against the Ukrainians.

Paderewski, on his return, persuaded Gen. Pilsudski, the head of the Polish army, to countermand the instructions to start the East Galician attack. The Polish Diet, on the other hand, refused to sanction this order of revocation, declining to support the Prime Minister in his pledge given at Paris, and commanding Gen. Pilsudski to begin the offensive. Whereupon Premier Paderewski resigned his office.

### Poles Capture East Galicia

Pilsudski's Polish army, on May 16th, started a

general drive on the Lemberg sector, advancing 100 miles in three days and attaining all their political and military objectives. With the capture, on May 19th, of Boryslav, the Polish troops came into full possession of the rich oil region of East Galicia. Crossing the Dniester River, Pilsudski's troops again defeated the Ukrainians, taking many prisoners and large quantities of war materials. By May 26th, the Poles were masters of East Galicia and the remnant of the Ukrainian Army on this front was being hotly pursued.

On June 17th, Gen. Petlura's Ukrainian Peasant forces were again defeated by the Poles, who took several thousand prisoners and much war material. Contact was established with a body of Polish troops which had marched from Odessa. In co-operation with Gen. Haller's Legion, largely composed of American Poles, Gen. Pilsudski's Army gained further successes in June along the whole Galician-Volhynian front. In Volhynia, many towns were occupied and the Lemberg-Stanislaw railway line again fell into Polish hands.

By July 27th the Polish campaign in Galicia had progressed as far as the River Zbrucz. So rapid had been the advance of the Polish Army that the Ukrainians were unable to destroy their bridges as they retired. The Poles in their advance had captured 6500 prisoners and 41 guns, as well as large quantities of munitions and railway equipment. Advancing from Galicia into the Ukraine, on August 1st, the Poles continued their victorious march, their objective being Kamenetz Podolia, where Gen. Petlura's Peasant Government had set up its "capital". There they were halted by order of the Supreme Council.

## More German Aggressions in Upper Silesia

An armed clash took place on August 18th in Upper Silesia, between the Germans and the Poles. This province, whose population has always been predominantly Polish, is rich in coal mines, which had been "acquired" by German capitalists. On the strength of this dubious ownership of the mines, the German Socialist Government plotted to seize all Upper Silesia.

The Peace Congress had decided upon a plebiscite in Silesia to enable the inhabitants to decide under which government they preferred to live. It was the intention of the Germans to prevent this plebiscite. They hoped to accomplish this end by two means—first by German colonization of Silesia and second by the extermination of the Poles.

As a first step toward the conquest of Silesia, the German mine-owners declared a lockout in one of the mines. This precipitated a general strike among the Polish miners. With this strike as a pretext, the Germans inaugurated a reign of terror among the workmen. Many were beaten to death, others executed and hundreds of injured Poles suffered to die without medical attendance. The wives and families of the Polish miners who had fled across the frontier to escape the German thugs were deported in gangs.

A flame of anger swept over Poland when the news reached Warsaw. An army of Polish Nationals, then concentrated on the Silesian frontier, could with difficulty be restrained from crossing the boundary line and wreaking vengeance on the Germans. They were



deterred, however, by the Allied politicians at Paris, who had forbidden any Polish troop movements in Upper Silesia pending the plebiscite, but this prohibition, it would seem, did not prevent the German activities.

Having thus massacred or expelled thousands of Poles, the German conspirators, without any hindrance whatever, proceeded with the German colonization of Upper Silesia, hoping to win unfairly the election that was to be held three weeks after the Peace Treaty was signed.

America's refusal to enter the League of Nations, coupled with the neglect of the politicians at Paris to order Marshal Foch's armies to enter Silesia and exterminate the German plotters, resulted in a temporary triumph for German Kultur. Instead of interposing, by force of arms, to protect the Poles from the savage Huns, the politicians at Paris sent another "Commission" into Silesia to "study and control the situation."

Germany answered this move by "declining to permit Allied intervention" in Upper Silesia until the expiration of the 15 days following the plebiscite prescribed by the terms of the Peace Treaty. In other words, not until Germany had been permitted to herd enough Germans into Silesia to control the elections would she consent to the Allied nations interfering. Then interference would be in vain.

## Poles Fight the Bolsheviki in Lithuania

In addition to their battles against the Germans in the West and the Ukrainians in the South, the Poles heroically defended their own Republic and all Europe against an invasion of the Russian Bolsheviki in Lithuania to the North. Early in January, 1919, a Bolshevik armed force, numbering 30,000 men converged on Warsaw over three railway routes. Determined to protect their ancient frontier, the Poles advanced to meet them and in several small engagements the Bolsheviki were worsted.

In February, the Polish columns advanced steadily eastward along the railways with Grodno, Pinsk and Lutsk as their objectives. These forces aimed to establish order and prepare the way for civil government, as a preliminary to the occupation of Poland's historic frontiers.

### The Jewish Bolshevik Plot at Pinsk

Working their way through Lithuania, with the Poles in swift pursuit, the Bolshevik Army on March 15th attacked the town of Slonim which they entered after a lively contest. They were subsequently expelled at the point of the bayonet by the valiant Poles.

In the same month the armed Bolsheviki were driven from the Lithuanian city of Pinsk, on the eastern frontier of Poland. There remained in Pinsk, however, some 200 Jewish Bolsheviki bent on mischief. These Jews were surprised, on April 5th, while plotting a Bolshevik uprising in which massacres were to take place as a preliminary to the recapture of the city.

Some 70 of these conspirators were captured red-handed and brought to the market place, where 33 of them were summarily shot, the rest being imprisoned. This summary execution of Bolshevik con-

The politicians at Paris seem to have acquiesced in this iniquitous German policy, the Supreme War Council contenting themselves with saying that they "might send troops" to maintain order in the disaffected provinces. Food riots took place in Upper Silesia during August and September, and many Poles were killed by German machine guns turned on the protesting populace.

The Supreme Council in Paris, on October 13th, decided that Allied troops should be sent into Upper Silesia to insure a fair election after the Peace Treaty had been signed, but America declined to furnish its quota of troops for this necessary work, she as yet having failed to ratify the Treaty.

In order to "avoid trouble," the politicians at Paris ordered the Polish army to move back a kilometer from the frontier. Whatever else happened, the politicians at Paris seemed determined not to ruffle the feelings of the Germans, who were pleading "great provocation" for their massacre of the Poles. As a result of this German policy, acquiesced in by the Allies, the coal production in the Silesian mine region fell from a yearly average of 40,000,000 to 10,000,000 tons, entailing great suffering on an innocent nation.

Conclusive evidence was furnished to support the charge that the German authorities in upper Silesia deliberately provoked the Poles to a premature uprising in order to justify the massacre that followed.

spirators was the basis of the widely circulated story of the alleged Jewish "pogrom" at Pinsk, which our American Minister at Warsaw, Mr. Hugh Gibson, upon investigation, reported as "very much exaggerated."

### Capture of Vilna

Before the Polish offensive against the Bolsheviks and Germans in Lithuania was launched in the latter part of April, the Polish Diet had assured the Supreme Council that its military activities were not intended in any degree to prejudice the decisions of the Peace Conference or to add to Poland any territories contrary to the desire of their inhabitants. On the contrary, the sole purpose of the Polish Army was to defend those territories against foreign invasion.

In the first week of the offensive, the Poles captured the important cities of Vilna and Minsk, which formerly belonged to the Polish part of the old Grand Duchy of Lithuania and which the Bolsheviki had planned to use as bases of operations for a further advance westward through Poland into Europe.

Vilna was taken early on the morning of May 19th by a trainload of soldiers coming from the east. Large numbers of sleepy Bolshevists awoke to find themselves prisoners. By this victory, the eastern part of the province of Lithuania was liberated from the Bolshevik invasion. The western portion, comprising the government of Kovno, and the northern region known as the government of Suwalki, still remained in control of the Germans.

The Lithuanians protested against the Polish occupation of their territory as a violation of their national rights and their aspirations to autonomy, and their hostility became acute. Unfounded accusations of anti-Jewish pogroms were sent broadcast through the world, but these were refuted by the



State Department of the United States, which on investigation found that in a house-to-house fight, 35 Poles and 38 Lithuanians had been killed. Per-

sons who were known to be, or were even suspected of being Bolsheviks, were deported as hostages as a set-off against Poles deported by the Bolsheviks.

## Poland and the Czecho-Slovaks at War

Poland was also compelled to defend herself on her Western border against the encroachment of the Czecho-Slovaks, who aimed at seizing the coal mining region of Karvin on which Poland depends for the largest share of her mineral resources. This region had been awarded to Poland but the covetous Czechs and Germans hoped to wrest it from the Poles. Although the Peace Conference, on January 24th, had notified all Europe and Asia that hostilities must cease everywhere, and that all territorial claims would be prejudiced by attempts to assert such claims by military force, yet the Czecho-Slovak forces on the same day wrested two Moravian towns from the Poles, and had waged war against them ever since. The Czechs subsequently gained forcible possession of the mining region of Karvin and occupied the whole of Austrian East Galicia.

Summoned before the Peace Conference to explain their quarrel, the Poles asserted that the Duchy of Teschen, Austrian Silesia, was 55 per cent Polish and therefore ought to belong to her, while Czecho-Slovakia fell back upon a robber's plea, "the district contained coalfields indispensable to her industrial development." The Peace Conference commanded both nations to cease hostilities and decreed

that the disputed zone should be occupied by Allied forces pending the final establishment of a definite Czecho-Polish frontier.

Although a truce was thus arranged between the two nations, the Czechs nevertheless violated it, advancing through Silesia and invading Poland from the south, and crossing the Galatian and Hungarian frontiers as well. Clashes between the two contending forces occurred in February, resulting in 3,000 casualties.

Order in the Teschen coal region was temporarily restored by the Inter-allied Mission, but the Czechs afterward drove the Poles from the district, depriving many Polish coal miners of employment, and refusing to evacuate.

Another "Mission" was sent to compose the dispute between the Poles and Czechs on March 13th, but the Czechs rejected the proposals of the delegates.

The Polish Diet on May 26th demanded the return of Polish Teschen, and in July the claim was referred to a "joint commission" for adjudication. It was finally agreed to refer the disputed territory to a plebiscite, and this was taken to mean that the district would revert to Poland, as the population was preponderantly Polish.

## Poland's War Against the Russian Bolsheviks

Poland, in 1919, not only resisted the encroachments of the Germans, Lithuanians, Ukrainians and Czecho-Slovaks; she also waged successful warfare against the Russian Bolsheviks, who sought first to conquer Poland and then overrun all Western Europe. Early in January, two Bolshevik columns advanced from Petrograd into Esthonia and Lithuania, looting and burning as they went. Vilna was captured on January 7th and many of the civilians were massacred. Seizing the railways and all their rolling stock the Bolsheviks in three divisions converged on Warsaw, with Bialystok as their immediate objective.

The Poles gave immediate battle to the Reds, both in Lithuania and in Poland, and the march of the Soviet army slowed up.

During February the Polish forces moved steadily eastward by Grodno, Slonim, Pinsk and Lutsk as objectives. Thus far they had met with no determined resistance on the part of the Bolsheviks, but on March 2d the forces clashed on the Polish Northern front, east of Kovel, and the Reds were repulsed.

On March 15th Bolshevik armed forces in Lithuania captured the town of Slonim, but they were quickly expelled by the Polish troops at the point of the bayonet. The whole Bolshevik drive in the Baltic Provinces, thanks to Polish resistance, was brought to a halt.

On the Eastern frontier of Poland also the Reds met with defeat. Pinsk was recaptured from the Bolsheviks at the beginning of March and the advance of the Reds was stopped.

At this time Gen. Pilsudski, commander-in-chief of the Polish forces and Provisional President as well, notified the Allies that arms and equipment for an army of 500,000 Poles were necessary. With such an Army, supplied with war material from America and France, he said Poland could hold her own against all foes.

Early in May the Poles in Lithuania dealt the Bolshevik forces many heavy blows, recapturing Vilna and seizing the railway line from Vilna south to Lida. At first the inroads of the Poles into Lithuania provoked strong protests on the part of the Lithuanian government, but eventually their relations assumed a more favorable aspect. With the capture of Vilna by the Poles, the eastern part of the Lithuanian province was liberated from the Bolshevik invasion, but the government of Kovno in the west and the government of Suwalki in the north still remained in control of the German armies.

Continuing their victorious march against the Soviet Army, the Poles on July 8th captured the city of Minsk, after a battle of two weeks' duration. This victory wonderfully improved the position of the Poles, since it disrupted Bolshevik communications between the north and south through control of the railroad. North of Pinsk the Polish offensive also was progressing favorably.

### Poles Have an Army of 500,000

With Allied assistance, the Poles in the summer of 1919 had organized a formidable army, numbering 500,000 effectives. The new Polish Army, whose



operations were now under the scrutiny of Field Marshal Foch, defended 1,500 miles of front against Bolshevik and German forces, standing as the barrier in Europe against Bolshevik invasion from the east and at the same time resisting German encroachments from the west.

In Upper Silesia, in East Prussia, in Lithuania, and along the frontiers of Russia and Ukrainia, the Poles were bravely facing the leagued enemies of Europe. Yet the new-born nation was at this time short of food supplies and clothing, and compelled to make every sacrifice to sustain the Army. Having generously undertaken, at the request of the Peace Conference to protect all Europe against the inroads of the Bolsheviks, the Poles were now facing internal problems of the greatest difficulty.

The Bolshevik government was making frequent overtures for peace with the Poles on impossible terms and Bolshevik propaganda had all but seduced large sections of the Polish Army, which was in a semi-destitute condition. Nevertheless, the Polish Army, during September and October, continued its successes against the Bolsheviks.

By Marshal Foch's authorization, the Poles occupied the Vilna-Dvinsk railway to a point beyond Dokshty. This aroused the wrath of the Lithuanians, who at once protested that the Poles were trespassers on the northern sector of the railway. Early in September, the Poles carried by assault the fortresses of Borysov and Bobruisk, commanding the passages of the Beresina.

Crossing the Beresina River, the Poles pursued the fleeing Bolsheviks 200 miles, until ordered to halt by the Supreme War Council at Paris, who, for some mysterious motive, which the Book of Judgment will disclose, decided that Poland's advance had gone far enough for purposes of self defense and that the Allies had no disposition to encourage Poland to wage a war of mere conquest of territory, even though that territory was a part of the ancient Kingdom of Poland.

Poland was warned that if she did not cease hostilities against the Bolsheviks in Russia, the financial aid required for the reconstruction of the new Republic of Poland might be withheld. Thus did the politicians at Paris, to suit their yet unfathomed purposes, prevent the final overthrow of Antichris-

tian Bolshevism by the Christian Polish armies, under the specious plea that Poland might be tempted to annex a part of Russia. This at a time when England and France together had annexed a quarter of the entire surface of the globe and were holding a third of the human race in subjection. Poland, in fact, had given the most solemn assurances that she coveted not a foot of Russian soil, but on the contrary her sole intent was to recover her ancient boundaries and protect Europe and the world from the greatest menace that has confronted Christian civilization since the hordes of Mahomet swept through Europe. Premier Paderewski also had given his pledge that Poland would not make a separate peace with the Bolsheviks.

Meanwhile the Poles on the Dvina front had driven the Bolsheviks helter skelter out of the whole lake region south of Dvinsk. Heavy fighting was in progress on the Lithuanian front, where the enemy was attacking strongly in the neighborhood of Koplan. The Poles halted the Bolshevik offensive in two days' fighting and afterward drove the Reds northward 100 miles from Borysov. Similarly, on the Eastern front, the Poles after cutting the railway communications between Kiev and Petrograd, were advancing rapidly toward the Dnieper, Mohilev and Orsza rivers. As they retired hastily from the region surrounding Vitebsk and Mohilev, the Bolsheviks carried off as hostages many Polish notables.

With the approach of winter, Poland's Army of 500,000 men was in deplorable plight. The soldiers lacked food, clothing, guns and ammunition, some of them lacked shoes, yet this valiant Army was successfully opposing Russian Bolshevism along an irregular front of more than 400 miles, extending from Dvinsk in the north to a point on the Dnieper River, 50 miles south of Gomel.

At this critical moment, when Bolshevism was facing its doom at the hands of the Poles, two sinister events had occurred: the politicians at Paris had ordered the Poles to cease their offensive against the Bolsheviks in Russia, and the Bolsheviks in Russia had been emboldened to again attempt the seduction of the shoeless and almost foodless Polish armies. Such in general was the situation on the Polish front at the close of 1919.

UKRAINE, SOUTH RUSSIA, JAN.—DEC.

## Ukrainians Defend Themselves Against Six Foes On Four Sides

Poles, French, Cossacks, Bolsheviki, Roumanians and Germans, Unite to Harass Them  
Bolsheviki Improve the Opportunity to Capture Kiev and Sebastopol

SECTION 12—1919

### Ukrainian Peasant Army, 180,000

Gen. Petlura, Commander  
Gen. Rodzianko  
Gen. Tarnowsky  
Gen. Belakovitch  
Gen. Krause

### Enemies of Ukraine

**Bolshevist Forces, 100,000**  
Gen. Obowsky, Commander  
Gen. Rakovsky  
**Kuban Cossacks, 180,000**  
Gen. Denekine, Commander  
**Polish Forces, 50,000**  
Gen. Pilsudski, Commander  
**Franco-Greek Army, 50,000**  
Gen. Berthelot, Commander  
**German Forces**  
**Turkish Forces**

**U**KRAINIA, or Little Russia, the rich province bordering on the Black Sea, and for centuries known as the "Granary of Europe," was the chief battleground of the contending armies in the opening weeks of 1919.

When the German troops in January reluctantly evacuated the Ukraine, in accordance with the terms of the Armistice, the Ukrainians at once overturned the German Bolshevik government that had held sway for a year or more and announced their purpose to set up a Socialist Republic in affiliation with a Federalized Russia, which should eventually comprise five separate governments—those of European Russia, Ukraine, Ruthenia, Siberia and Caucasus.

This secession was opposed by all the warring nations, and particularly by the Russians, Poles, Bolsheviki, Cossacks, Germans, Turks and Allies. To the Poles it meant the possible loss of a rich section of their ancient kingdom ceded to the Ukrainians by the Germans and Bolshevists by the Treaty of Brest-Litovsk. To the Bolsheviki and the Russian Cossacks alike it implied a dismembered Russia, shorn of its historic wealth and power. To the Allies, and particularly France, whose investments in Russia totalled several billion dollars it connoted the final dissolution of the Russian Empire and the loss of all the Allied capital invested therein. Moreover, the Allies were pledged to aid in upholding the unity of Russia, and restoring the Kingdom of Poland and Czecho-Slavia, and these restored states would be jeopardized by an independent Ukraine, occupying the territories ceded to it by the Germans. Hence the Ukrainians were beset by foes on all sides.

### The Ukrainians' Long Battle for Freedom

Ten centuries ago, when Russia still was a barbarous land, the Ukrainians were an enlightened, Christian race, in the forefront of European civilization. Their Grand Principdom of Kiev was a bulwark of Christianity against the Asiatic hordes that ceaselessly strove to overrun Europe. That Principdom was overthrown and Kiev razed to the ground during the great Mongol invasion in the thirteenth century. Southern Russia was then swept bare by the Asiatic hordes. The Kingdom of Poland improved the opportunity to seize that section of Ukraine known as East Galicia, parceling out the land among the Polish nobility. Between the aggressions of the Mongols and the Poles the life of

the subjugated Ukrainians thenceforward was one long martyrdom.

In the 17th century the Ukrainian Cossacks successfully rose against the Tartar invaders and established a Cossack republic. This movement toward Ukrainian independence excited the hostility of the Poles and they declared war on the Ukrainians. In this crisis, the Ukrainians turned to the Russians for aid, agreeing to accept the Czar as overlord in 1654, but retaining full self government and religious autonomy. The Russian rulers, after rescuing the Ukrainians from their peril, attempted their entire subjugation and by so doing provoked them to revolt. Whereupon Russia, joining hands with Poland, her erstwhile enemy, partitioned Ukraine.

Ukraine's cup of despair for a century or more was filled to overflowing. Now mark the workings of retributive justice. When Poland, in her turn, was partitioned in 1772 by Russia, Prussia and Austria, most of her Ukrainian possessions, which she had seized 120 years before, went to Russia, the eastern part of Galicia being allotted to Austria.

Under Czaristic tyranny, the last vestiges of the political and cultural life of the Ukrainians were destroyed. Their literature was proscribed, their language prohibited, their education neglected. Austria, on the other hand, gave full cultural autonomy to those Ukrainians in Galicia, who are known as "Ruthenians." Hence Lemberg and Tarnopol in Galicia became the intellectual centers of the Little Russians.

Still cherishing their hope of ultimate independence, the Ukrainians supported the Russian revolution of 1905, expecting a new birth of freedom in event of victory. But alas! Liberty was denied them even by the revolutionists, who were as Pan-Russian as the Czars themselves.

Ukraine thenceforward was used as a pawn in the great game of political finesse begun in 1908 between Austria and Russia for the control of the Balkans. The Czar, with the purpose of weakening the Austrian Empire, had encouraged the Serbian subjects of Austria to revolt. Austria countered by inciting the Ukrainians to seize all Southern Russia and set up a Republic there which would lie in the path of Russia's march to the Black Sea. The Czar was roused to fury by this separatist move, which he denounced as "Russia's greatest national peril."



Russia threatened Austria with war if she did not desist in her efforts to set up an independent Ukrainian state; she even contemplated annexing Eastern Galicia and Bukowina—peopled by 4,000,000 Ruthenian Slavs—on the ground that they constituted an integral part of the Russian Empire. As a first step toward alienating the Ruthenians from their allegiance to Austria, the Russians endeavored to convert them en masse from the Uniat religion which they professed to that of the Russian Orthodox faith; but without success.

When the Russian armies in 1914 overswept Galicia, hundreds of thousands of Ruthenians fled into Austria. The Russians lost no time in placing the Ruthenians under their hated yoke. The Ukrainian language was outlawed, the Ukrainian schools were closed, the Ukrainian press was proscribed. Russian schoolmasters were sent into Galicia to Russify the Ukrainian people. The Russians next attempted the destruction of the Uniat church of Galicia. The head of the church was sent a prisoner into Russia "for instruction," but he proved a refractory pupil. Failing to convert the Uniat priesthood, the Russian autocrats ejected them from their parishes and carried them off to Russian prisons. The Ruthenian peasants were incited to attack the Jews, and many bloody massacres resulted. All leaders of Ukrainian thought were subsequently deported to Siberia. This reign of terror ended when the great Austro-German drive liberated Galicia and the Russians fled in panic back to their own land.

In March, 1917, after the Russian Revolution had swept Czarism into oblivion, the Ukrainians sent a deputation to Petrograd to plead for the boon of self-government within the proposed Republic of Federated States. They had meanwhile organized a "Rada" or Parliament, which elected a president and other executives. It had been their thought to organize an army of their own, but Kerensky, then Minister of War, denied their petition, saying it was "impossible at the present moment to regroup the armies on the principle of nationality." That was a question for the Constituent Assembly to decide.

The Ukrainian Rada, on June 24th, proclaimed its autonomy, and without actually separating from Russia, voted, nevertheless, to establish a Ukrainian National Assembly on the basis of universal suffrage. This Assembly was recognized by Kerensky in July.

The Rada, still intent upon organizing a Federation of Russian States, in defiance of Kerensky's mandate, called together a Congress of the Nationalities of the Russian Republic in September, 1917. The Rada found itself opposed by the Moderate Socialists, who wished to preserve the unity of the Russian Empire, and by the Bolsheviks, who favored a Federation of Bolshevik States. The moderate Socialist faction were appeased, however, when the Rada issued a proclamation, transferring the land to the peasants, establishing an eight-hour day, giving labor control over industry and fixing the frontiers of the Ukrainian Republic in Federation with the Russian Republic.

Not so the Bolsheviks. They attacked the Ukrainians with great violence, and the streets of Kiev and Odessa ran deep with blood. While this bloody conflict was in progress, the Germans proposed a separate peace with the Ukrainians, and at the Brest-Litovsk conference the Ukrainian delegates were

bribed into accepting peace with the offer of a large slice of Polish territory in exchange for foodstuffs. Immediately after the peace with Ukraina had been signed, the Germans undertook the subjugation of the Ukraine. Under German auspices a new government was set up in the Ukraine, the Rada was dismissed and the members of the Cabinet arrested. Then a Cossack hetman, Gen. Skoropadski, was made dictator of the Ukraine.

The Germans, with an army of 200,000 men, at once overran the Ukraine. At the point of the bayonet, they compelled the Ukrainian peasants to toil like slaves for Germany's benefit. Resolved to throw off the German yoke, 40,000 peasants in June, 1918, rose in armed revolt. The German Governor-General, von Eichhorn, was assassinated and many German soldiers were killed in bomb explosions. The spirit of revolt spread. Everywhere the peasants burned their grain and killed their cattle to prevent any foodstuffs falling into the hands of the Huns. An army of peasants, in command of Gen. Petlura, waged guerilla warfare against the Germans, but lacking arms and ammunition they did the best they could at first with pitchforks, clubs and knives. So matters rested in the Ukraine when the Armistice was signed on November 11, 1918, and the Germans were ordered to evacuate the country.

#### Allies Refuse Aid to Ukrainians

Soon as the Germans had evacuated the Ukraine, in the early days of 1919, the foes of Ukraina poured in from all directions. The Poles seized Kholm and all Eastern Galicia, under the terms of the Armistice, thus regaining their ancient provinces. The Kuban Cossacks, aided by the British, attacked the Ukrainians on the East. The Roumanians occupied Bessarabia, the Turks claimed the Crimea. A joint Franco-Greek army of 50,000 occupied Odessa and Kherson. The Bolsheviks poured in from the North.

The Ukrainians now rallied in great numbers to the support of Gen. Petlura and former Premier Vinnichenko. These patient leaders, though well supported by the people, were in sore need of money, trained officers and supplies. In their distress, they appealed to the Allied War Council, but without success. The Allies could not consistently or morally supply the Ukrainians with arms which might be turned against the Poles whose government and army now supported the Allied cause. Moreover, by the terms of the Armistice, Poland had been awarded the Kholm district in Eastern Galicia and the Allies could not now aid the Ukrainians in regaining the district, which had been a part of Poland for centuries. The Allies therefore refused the plea of Ukraina and denied her a place in the Peace Conference.

France, whose one hope of recovering her colossal loan to Russia lay in preventing the dissolution of the Russian Empire, naturally discouraged the Ukrainian separatist movement. Moreover the French government had only recently loaned the Ukrainian Republic \$35,000,000 when the Social Democrats were in power, but that government having since been ousted by the Revolutionary Party, the recovery of this loan looked dubious. As a necessary condition to the granting of a further loan France demanded that she be intrusted with the military and industrial control of the Ukraine for an



indefinite period, but the Ukrainians refused to surrender their sovereignty to France. Gen. Petlura magnanimously offered to eliminate himself or any other members of the directorate if this would gain the confidence of the French nation, but he refused to submit to conditions which would place the Ukraine under the military and industrial control of the French. The British Government, on the other hand, was financing the operations of three Cossack armies, whose commanders were all foes of the Ukrainians and suspected with reason of a design to restore the monarchy in Russia. The French organized two armies to attack the Ukrainians. One advanced on Kiev but was repulsed in January, 1919. The second army drove Petlura's forces out of Odessa, but they in turn were defeated by the Bolsheviks.

#### Bolsheviki Capture Kiev

To defend their country against these powerful foes the Ukrainian peasants flocked to Petlura's standard and this nondescript Peasant Army, though lacking arms and guns, held Kiev against the Bolsheviks for three months. Petlura was obliged to evacuate the capital on February 2, 1919, retiring to Vinnitza, where he established his seat of government.

The Ukrainian Government on April 8th sent a last despairing appeal to President Wilson for support in their conflict against the Bolsheviks, but it went unheeded. An American military attaché, who endeavored to visit Petlura at Vinnitza, was turned back by the French authorities, who would brook no interference with their operations in the Ukraine.

Meanwhile, the Bolsheviks were gaining ground. The whole of the Kiev-Kovel railway was in their hands and they had little to fear from Gen. Petlura's forces, then inadequately supported. In Kiev, the Bolsheviks drove the well-to-do folks from their houses and installed therein the sans culottes of the slums and of the ghetto. A reign of terror was inaugurated which is described on page 591.

#### Odessa Captured by the Bolsheviks

The Bolshevik armies continued their westward advance through Ukraine, with Odessa, an important port on the Black Sea, as their objective. Kherson, 92 miles northeast of Odessa, had been occupied on February 26th by French and Greek troops who expected to stay the drive of the Reds. The Greeks, however, were easily expelled from Kherson on March 8th by the Soviet forces, and the city of Zhitomir was captured by the Reds a week later. Odessa itself was defended by a force of 50,000 men, including three French regiments, three Greek regiments and a Roumanian contingent.

Small detachments of Cossacks and Ukrainians were sent forward to break the force of the Bolshevik drive and, if evacuation became necessary, to cover the Franco-Greek line of retreat.

The Bolsheviks, advancing in overwhelming numbers on April 9th seized the Perekop Isthmus, which connects European Russia with the Crimea, forcing the evacuation of Odessa.

The Soviet troops entered Odessa before the French occupation was completed. The French commandant asked for three hours' time to embark

his troops, but this was refused and fighting ensued in the streets of the city. Eventually 8,000 Greeks, 20,000 Russians and all American Red Cross workers were safely evacuated.

#### Bolsheviki Conquer the Crimea

An attempt was made to save the Crimea, but the Bolsheviks swept over the defenses and on April 12th took Simferopol, capital of the Crimea. The naval base of Sebastopol was prepared for a siege and the Allied fleet was brought into action. But Sebastopol surrendered to the Bolsheviks on April 19th.

#### Bolsheviki Desert to the Ukrainians

Gen. Petlura's Ukrainian army was rapidly advancing to the relief of Odessa. At Homel on the Pripiet River, 150 miles east of Kiev, a division of the Bolshevik First Army, numbering 30,000 men and commanded by Gen. Grigorieff, deserted en masse to the Ukrainian cause, turning upon their comrades. This revolted force on April 23d, recaptured Kiev. The liberation of Ekaterinoslav, Poltava and Odessa followed in quick succession. In a counter offensive, the Bolsheviks reoccupied Odessa for a short time, but they were again expelled on June 28th, by Grigorieff's revolted troops.

Grigorieff subsequently seized Kherson and Nikolaiev, the two most important ports on the Black Sea, and then marched northward to effect a junction with the Ukrainian forces of Gen. Petlura whose front had advanced to within 20 miles of Kiev.

#### Peasants and Cossacks at War

The Bolsheviks were finally ejected from Kiev on September 15th. They retreated hastily to the northeast to avoid being cut off by the Poles, who were advancing on Gomel. Other Bolshevik divisions were retreating northward from Odessa. The Ukrainian Peasant Army held Kiev. Co-operating with them, to the west of Kiev, was a force of Galician Ukrainians under command of the Austrian General Krause. This Galician force had been defeated some weeks before by the Poles and had subsequently withdrawn into Russia and joined the Peasant Army of Gen. Petlura.

The relations between Petlura's Peasant Army and Gen. Denekine's Cossack Army were those of armed neutrality. Petlura was intent upon establishing an independent Ukrainian state in Russia, while Gen. Denekine had resolutely opposed the principle of regional autonomy "in the name of united and undivided Russia." Consequently the attitude of the Ukrainians toward Gen. Denekine had been one of masked hostility.

This political rupture finally bore fruit in open warfare. Gen. Petlura's Peasant Army declared war against Denekine's Cossacks on October 8th and violent fighting at once began. The Ukrainian Volunteers, at this time, were fighting both the Roumanians and the Poles to prevent the recovery by those nations of large provinces taken from them by the Germans and given to Ukraine by the terms of the Brest-Litovsk treaty, but restored to Roumania and Poland by the terms of the Armistice. These boundary disputes were being adjusted by Allied Military and Economic Missions at the time of the new outbreak.



## England Seizes Loyal Egypt and Subdues Population by Force

Egyptian Delegates to Peace Conference Imprisoned — Legislature and Press Suppressed

SECTION 13—1919

### British Army

Gen. Sir E. H. H. Allenby, Commander

### British Political Factors

Lord Milner's Commission

Yussuf Pasha Wahba, Coptic "Premier"

Sultan Ahmed Fuad

### Egyptian Nationalist Leaders

Rushdi Pasha, Egyptian "Premier"

Zaglul Pasha

Grand Mufti of Egypt

Prince Kamel-ed-Din

Prince Omar Tussan

**E**GYPT, the ancient land of the Pharaohs, and over which the British Government had established a protectorate in 1914, ostensibly "to protect the Egyptian people from outside enemies until such time as they may decide upon self rule," was the scene of rebellion and massacre during the greater part of 1919, due to the British Government's violation of its solemn pledges to the Egyptians and attempts on the part of a British Army to suppress all public assemblages in the Valley of the Nile.

Egypt in 1914 had a population of more than 18,000,000 souls, of whom 17,000,000 were Mahometans and 1,000,000 Christian Copts, besides a sprinkling of other races. Nominally the Sultan of Turkey, as the head of the Mahometan church, was sovereign of Egypt. He exerted his authority through a Viceroy or Khedive, who in turn ruled through a Cabinet of native ministers, each "assisted" by an English "adviser." In reality, the actual ruler of Egypt, for 30 years prior to the outbreak of the war, had been the British Consul-General at Cairo, whose "advice" to the Khedive invariably was construed as a peremptory demand.

In November, 1914, after the Sultan of Turkey had cast in his lot with the Germans, and issued his ineffective call for a Holy War against all Christendom, the British deposed the reigning Khedive, and set up his uncle, Prince Hussein, not as Khedive but as Sultan of Egypt, in disregard of the designation which had been established by an Imperial Turkish firman. The British Government then issued a proclamation, establishing a temporary protectorate over Egypt, "to protect the Egyptian people from invasion," and solemnly pledging itself to resign its usurped powers whenever the Egyptian peoples decided to establish self rule. The British Government further, pledged itself never to call upon the Egyptian Mahometans to fight against their co-religionists, the Turks.

These solemn pledges were violated, both in the letter and in the spirit, by the British Government. In violation of their promise not to exact military service from the Egyptians during the war, it is recorded that, after the Turks had advanced toward the Suez Canal, the British authorities called upon the Egyptian artillery to rout the Turks.

Subsequently, when the campaigns against the Turks in Palestine and Mesopotamia were at their height, the British authorities by conscription organized upward of 1,000,000 Egyptians into "Labor Corps" to assist the British Armies in their operations through the deserts of Syria and Arabia. Tens of thousands of Egyptians perished as a result of privations and exposures incurred during this period of enforced labor.

Even in the methods of conscription, the British authorities connived at the exploitation of their once devoted fellaheen. The privilege of conscripting Egyptian laborers, in part at least, was "farmed out" to the same Turkish elements in Egypt that, before Lord Cromer's day, had tyrannized over the fellaheen. Under Kitchener's rule, these tyrants had come to the fore again. For a price, paid to these Turkish slave drivers, many of the favored fellaheen were permitted to escape enforced labor. This discrimination rankled in the hearts of the oppressed Egyptians.

A further grievance resulted from the seizure of 100,000 camels in Egypt for use by Gen. Allenby's Camel Corps. The British had fixed upon a price of \$70 for each camel, but this was paid, not in full to the owners of the camels but largely to profiteering middle-men who deducted their "share" of the money before passing over the stipulated amount to the fellaheen. It had been understood, moreover, that the former owners of the camels might repurchase the animals after the close of the War. The camels were, indeed, offered for sale at the close of the War, but oftentimes at prices double or treble the amount of the original purchase.

As the War progressed, and in despite of the fact that more than 1,000,000 Egyptians had been drawn into the service of Great Britain as conscript laborers, Egypt was put under martial law; the local legislature was suppressed; freedom of the press was denied; the Egyptian leaders were arrested and Egyptians generally found themselves virtually in bondage.

Bouyed up by their faith in Britain's solemn pledges, but far more by President Woodrow Wilson's solemn declaration that all subject nations should have the right of determining their own future, the Egyptians for a time refrained from open rebellion.

But after the close of the War, and when it had become apparent that Great Britain intended in violation of her solemn pledges to keep Egypt in virtual bondage, the wrath of Egypt expressed itself in many public meetings. There sprang up, throughout the Valley of the Nile, a number of secret patriotic societies in which free expression could not be stifled by British bayonets. Egyptians of all ranks, from prince to pauper, affiliated with these societies, in which the fires of patriotism were kept burning brightly. In vain the British secret service sought to penetrate into these societies.

When the Peace Congress met at Paris, in the opening days of 1919, Saad Zaglul Pasha, the leader of the Egyptians, addressed an appeal to President Wilson imploring the United States of America not to leave Egypt at the mercy of the British Empire.



A list of Egypt's grievances was set forth, accusing the British officials of a series of atrocities comparable to those perpetuated by the German invaders in Belgium. It was alleged that Egyptian villages had been pillaged and burned, women violated and men massacred on mere suspicion of rebellion; that many native Egyptians had been publicly whipped on various pretexts. These charges are said to have been supported by photographic and medical proof. It was further alleged that the general in command of the British forces had given the formal order to all the Egyptians, even the highest functionaries, to salute every British officer encountered in the streets. Other grievances were recited, such as prohibition of the Egyptian Legislature during the War, harsh censorship of news and opinions, suppression of native papers and political discussion in the state schools, cruel treatment of native soldiers, and the arrest and banishment of Egyptian leaders.

Notwithstanding that Egypt had declared war against Germany in August, 1914, and had supplied the labor and the camels that enabled the British to complete their conquest of Palestine, Syria and Mesopotamia, England had repaid this loyalty of the Egyptians to the Allied cause by making requisitions upon Egypt with such brutality as to stir the whole population to wrath. Furthermore, at the close of the War, England had placed Egypt without her consent under a formal protectorate, in contempt of the solemn promise of the British Government given to the world in 1914. Finally, in 1919, when the Egyptian people elected a body of delegates to present their cause before the Peace Conference, the British Government for five months refused passports to the delegates. The Egyptian Cabinet naturally denounced this proceeding, whereupon the British officials at Cairo deported to the Island of Malta and there held as prisoners the four Egyptian delegates, including the President of the Cabinet. When finally the delegates were released from their imprisonment and permitted to go to Paris, they found all doors closed to them. President Wilson and Premier Clemenceau, deferring to England's wishes, both turned a deaf ear to the appeals of the Egyptians even as they had refused to present the grievances of Ireland and of India before the Peace Conference.

The French press generally, and many French publicists also, declared that the principles of justice expressed by President Wilson had been openly violated and they further held that no excuse on the part of Great Britain could obscure the justice of the Egyptians' complaint. The English Tories attempted to justify their oppressive acts by declaring the Egyptians "incapable of protecting their frontiers and of governing themselves." In scornful reply, the Egyptians asked the British Government to explain why the Hedjas, an elementary state, with small resources and a scattered population of wild nomads, should have been placed in a position politically superior to Egypt, who so largely and loyally contributed to the victory of the Allies. All the world knows, of course, that the "Kingdom of Hedjas" was a fictitious state, set up by England as a pawn in her game of Asiatic conquest, and wiped off the map in the following year by a French military force.

#### The Massacre at Cairo

The British oppressions in Egypt had their natural sequel in virtual insurrection beginning in March,

1919. Following the arrest of Egyptian Nationalist leaders chosen as delegates to the Peace Conference, the Egyptians everywhere arose in insurrection. Riotous mobs assembled in the streets of Cairo on March 10th, led by students of the colleges and higher schools. Demonstrations of protest were made before the British Government buildings in behalf of the arrested leaders. British troops at once surrounded the assembled throng and fired upon them, killing and wounding scores of them. Again on the following day the patriotic Egyptians were dispersed by British guns. At Tantah, 50 miles north of Cairo, there was another outbreak, where 62 Egyptians were killed or wounded. Martial law was enforced throughout the land of the Nile.

Throughout the Delta, riotous demonstrations took place on March 20th, which were put down with the same brutal means. The disorders spread far and wide in Egypt. Late in March, 3,000 Bedouin and fellaheen besieged Assuit, but the town was relieved by boats sent down from Cairo. In reprisal for the pillage of their towns and the massacre of their people, the Egyptians improved every opportunity to attack groups of British soldiers. How many lives were lost in this period of insurrection and massacre has never been officially disclosed.

Gen. Allenby, the conqueror of Palestine, was sent into Egypt to take command of the British forces, arriving on March 25th. On April 11th, a new Egyptian Minister was set up, with Rushdi Pasha as Premier. Zaglul Pasha and his three companions, who had been deported to Malta, were released by the British. Public rejoicings followed for three days. But the disorders in Egypt continued.

#### Egyptians Start a National Boycott

The Tory government of England, in alarm at the widening consequences of the treatment accorded Egypt, now sought to pacify the Mahometans by sending a Commission to Egypt, under the presidency of Lord Milner to try and compose the "difficulties." But now a wonderful, unprecedented thing occurred. Not one Egyptian, out of the 17,000,000 comprising the population would consent to have any intercourse with the British Commission. A National Boycott, the first recorded in history, was started.

The Milner Commission waited five months hoping that the Egyptians would choose a premier with whom they might transact business, but the Egyptians completely ignored them. Finally, in the endeavor to restore their fallen prestige, the British Tory party put up, as "premier of Egypt", a figure-head in the person of Yussuf Pasha Wahba, a Coptic Christian, who at best represented only 10 per cent of the inhabitants of Egypt, and who was without authority to speak for the Mahometans.

Lord Milner succeeded finally in getting an audience with the Grand Mufti of Egypt, spiritual leader of the Mahometans, whom he tried to cajole into consenting to a British protectorate, saying it was "necessary for Egypt's future, for she could not stand alone," and winding up with the hint that Great Britain might find it necessary to impose her will forcibly upon Egypt. To this typical threat of coercion, the Grand Mufti replied with dignity that Egypt could have no discussion with England until after the protectorate had been withdrawn. As for British threats and bluster, he would remind Lord



Milner that the guarantee of force is not eternal and that if today the Egyptians should bend before force, they would nevertheless seize the first occasion to revolt.

On November 25th, Earl Curzon declared in the

House of Commons that the British Government could not give Egypt entire liberty of action, since Egypt controlled the route into India which England also held in subjection. So matters rested at the close of the year 1919.

HUNGARY, MAR.—NOV.

## Bolshevists Conquer Hungary and Inaugurate a Reign of Terror

Communist Army Put to Rout the Czecho-Slovak Forces—Roumanians Invade Hungary to the Gates of Budapest—Bela Kun's Government Finally Overthrown—Archduke Joseph Assumes Dictatorship, but Is Removed, and a Socialist Government Established

SECTION 14—1919

Allied Forces, 150,000

Gen. D'Esperey, Commander

Czecho-Slovak Army

Gen. Pelle

Gen. Mitterhausen

Gen. Hennoque

Roumanian Army

Gen. Buruseu

Hungarian Communist Army, 200,000

Bela Kun, Commander-in-Chief

Gen. Rakovsky

THE Hungarian Republic, proclaimed after the "Triumphant October Revolution" in 1918, faced a crisis in the opening weeks of 1919. Hungary then was in a state of rapid disintegration, its conglomeration of races and political elements being unable to agree upon a national policy. A million or more Hun soldiers had been demobilized after the Armistice and there was no effective power to direct or control them.

The Minister of War, Gen. Burtha, and the Minister of the Interior, Count Bathiany, both were compelled to resign because of the demand made by the soldiers that the Minister of War should thereafter be a civilian and the Army constituted upon a democratic basis. Count Karolyi, the Provisional President, became the nominal head of the War Ministry, and Vincenz Hazy served as Minister of the Interior.

The radical leaders, in concert with the Social Democrats, ceaselessly plotted to establish a semi-revolutionary form of government, seeking also to prevent the organization of a strong military force which might perchance subdue their anarchical outbreaks.

Sixteen various Soldiers' Councils functioned simultaneously in Budapest, seizing private property and working their untrammelled will.

A coterie of Bolshevik agents undertook the corruption of Budapest, their avowed purpose being, first to prevent the establishment of a stable government in Hungary, and then to extend their revolutionary movement into the Allied countries.

Count Karolyi cried out in vain against this orgy of destruction, and pleaded loud and long for the sympathy and support of the Entente Powers. The pledge had been made to him that American, French and English troops would soon occupy the frontiers of Hungary. Instead, there was an invasion of Hungary by armed forces of Roumanians, Serbs and Croats, all of whom occupied the districts which supplied the nation with its grain and its coal.

As the Hungarian soldiers had been forced to disarm under the terms of the Armistice, the invading troops were able for a time to dominate the whole country.

All communication with the interior by rail had ceased and Hungary was threatened with famine. The people from the invaded districts fled to Budapest, swelling the population to 2,000,000 in a few weeks. Lack of coal caused the stoppage of industry.

The menace of economic Bolshevism grew with the lack of coal, and political Bolshevism spread with the advance of the invading troops, whose unhindered progress lessened the prestige of the Karolyi Government.

### Bela Kun Appears in Hungary

Early in January, there arrived in Budapest a Bolshevik emissary from Russia, named Bela Kun, charged with the mission of inciting a revolution among the soldiers and the unemployed of Hungary. The closing of factories, the soaring food prices and the scarcity of coal, all conspired to aid his propaganda. Bela Kun very quickly surrounded himself with a considerable following.

The results of his agitation were disclosed when on January 16th the Workmen's Council demanded that the Ministries of War and the Interior be turned over to the Social Democrats. The Hungarian Cabinet at once resigned, but Count Karolyi continued as head of the Government.

In February, the Communists seized and temporarily held a section of the city of Budapest. Martial law was promptly declared and the loyal troops finally subdued the rebels.

A graver crisis arose when the Peace Conference fixed the boundaries of Hungary, making large concessions to the Roumanians, Serbians and Czecho-Slovaks, and announcing the intention of the Allies to send a military force of occupation into Hungary. President Karolyi protested against these decisions, but in vain. The Bolsheviks naturally seized upon these circumstances to fan the flames of discontent.

### Allied Troops Occupy Hungary

The Supreme Council at Paris, early in March, issued an order that the Hungarian Army withdraw immediately to the Roumanian boundary as fixed by the Treaty of 1916. This ultimatum was followed



by an invasion of Allied troops, who policed the greater part of Hungary in order to enforce the boundary decision.

Accompanying these decisions, came the announcement of the establishment by the Peace Conference of a neutral zone on the Hungarian frontier, intended to prevent any further attacks by the Hungarians upon the Roumanians and to close the gap between Roumania and Poland.

This zone, 140 miles long and 40 miles wide, virtually shut in the Hungarians behind the Rivers Theiss, Szomos and Maros. The zone was to be administered by the Hungarian Government, under Allied control, and all Hungarian troops were ordered to leave the belt within 10 days, making way for Allied troops.

#### President Karolyi Resigns Office

Deeming this occupation a plan to "make Hungary the jumping off ground and the region of operations against the Russian Soviet Army", Provisional President Karolyi resigned his power into the hands of the Revolutionary Government of Workers', Peasants' and Soldiers' Councils, and in a manifesto appealed to the proletariat of the world for support.

#### Communists in Control

The dominating spirit of the new Communist Government was Bela Kun, a former instructor in the law school of the Franz Joseph University at Klausenberg in Transylvania and an associate of Lenine in Russia, where he had been held as a prisoner of war. He filled the post of Foreign Minister.

His principal accomplice was a renegade Bulgarian named Dr. Rakovsky, a former German spy, who had sworn that he would carry the banner of Bolshevism in triumph from Budapest to Paris.

The Communist Government, on March 22d, issued a proclamation decreeing the socialization of large estates, mines, big industries, banks and transport lines, declaring its complete solidarity with the Russian Soviet Government and offering to contract an armed alliance with the proletariat of Russia.

#### Union of German and Russian Radicals Proposed

A second proclamation, sent out by wireless, invited the workmen and peasants of Bohemia, Roumania, Serbia and Croatia to form an armed alliance against the aristocracy, landowners and dynasties, and urging the workmen of Austria and Germany to break off relations with the Peace Conference, organize a Soviet Republic and rally with the Russian Bolsheviks. The proclamation further stated that the Hungarian Soviet would organize an army to enforce proletariat dictation against the Hungarian landowners and capitalists, the Roumanian aristocracy and the Czech bourgeois. Greetings were sent to Lenine as "Leader of the International Proletariat."

#### Seizure of Banks, Industries and Newspapers

The Workers' Councils took possession of industries everywhere. Strict control was exercised by

them over the Budapest banks, which were enjoined to pay out no moneys except for wages or in small amounts on private accounts. All news agencies and newspapers came under Soviet supervision and were used in the furtherance of Bolshevik propaganda. The theaters and music halls also became centers of Bolshevik propaganda. Martial law was proclaimed. A fine of 5,000 crowns was fixed for the sale of intoxicating liquor and 10,000 crowns for drinking it.

The separation of church and state was decreed; all titles of rank were abolished; all business, homes and art treasures in Hungary were taken over by the "People's Commissaries." Marriage by civil ceremony only was decreed.

Illegitimate children were given equal rights with those born in wedlock.

All industrial enterprises employing more than 20 workmen were placed under the general control of the workers themselves, the management being vested in the Commissaries. Revolutionary courts were established.

Steps were taken to organize a Revolutionary Army, composed of recruits from the organized proletariat and the soldiers and women already mobilized. The chief of this Army was the adviser of the Communist Government, but the control of the conduct and organization of the Army was vested in the "People's Commissary for Military affairs."

It was declared that Communism in Hungary was aimed, not against the middle classes, but against the aristocrats. Bankers and usurers were placed in the first class of "citizens entitled to consideration."

#### Peace Conference Takes Bela Kun to Its Bosom

Bela Kun, on April 2d, notified the Peace Conference that he was ready to recognize the Armistice of November 13, 1918. Accordingly, the Supreme Council sent Gen. Smuts to Budapest with power to conclude the Armistice. Two days later Gen. Smuts laid the conditions of peace before the Hungarian Soviet Government. These conditions stipulated that a neutral zone should be drawn between Hungary and Roumania in which neither nation might intrude and which should be occupied by British, French and Italian troops. The military convention, concluded by Hungary with the Allied Powers on November 13th, would be resumed.

Gen. Smuts, on his part, promised to recommend to the Peace Congress the raising of the Hungarian blockade and the immediate importation into Hungary of prime necessities.

The Soviet Government, while consenting to the establishment of a neutral zone between Hungary and Roumania, still insisted upon administering in the territory occupied by the Allied troops. Free intercourse across this neutral zone they declared must be permitted, both to Hungary and to Roumania; the complete raising of the blockade was demanded; and the proposed conference on boundary disputes should include representatives of Hungary, Bohemia, Roumania, Serbia, Jugo-Slavia and German Austria. Gen. Smuts returned to Paris with these counter-proposals and for the time all negotiations ended.



## Three Foes Attack Communistic Hungary

Bela Kun's rejection of the Armistice terms was the signal for a triple offensive launched against Hungary in April by the Roumanians on the east, the Jugo-Slavs on the south, and the Czecho-Slavs on the north. A large number of Saxon officers and Transylvanian troops united with the Roumanians. These Allied forces put the Hungarians to rout in a battle fought at Szatmar Nemethy on April 28th. Consternation reigned in Budapest.

### Reign of Terror in Hungary

The Soviet Government, as a means of bolstering up its waning authority and of instilling fear in the hearts of the populace, thereupon inaugurated a reign of terror. Intellectuals and aristocrats were arrested by hundreds and many of them were put to death. Extraordinary efforts were made to recruit a large army from among the working class.

In order to win the support of the clergy, Bela Kun stooped to the deceit of promising a fictitious religious freedom to all and guaranteeing the preservation of the present order of marriage and family life.

The munition workers in the factories were told they must give up all holidays and work without rest to defeat the "international profiteers who were strangling the proletariat revolution." All private telephone service was suspended and cafes were closed at 10 o'clock in the morning.

By promises and threats, Bela Kun succeeded in recruiting an armed force of 150,000 to give battle to Hungary's foes besetting the Republic on three sides. The streets of Budapest were alive with conscripts, but the peasants in the provinces everywhere rejected the overtures of the Bolsheviks. The attempts of the Red Guards to requisition food in the country districts met with determined resistance.

### Roumanians Start the Huns on the Run

The Roumanians, advancing into Hungary from the East, though poorly armed and undisciplined, drove the Hungarians before them like sheep. On a wide front, extending from the Theiss River to the Maros, they pressed forward first to Debreczen, then to Kis-Jeno and Mate-Szalka. On April 25th, the Hungarian Soviet Army east of Budapest was put to flight by the Roumanians, after a part of it had surrendered.

At the close of April the Hungarian Soviet Army withdrew east of Karczag before superior numbers and the Roumanians continued their advance upon the capital. Simultaneously, a body of French troops occupied Hodomez-Vasarhely, and Czecho-Slovak forces attacked Czap.

On May Day the Hungarian Soviet Government requested an immediate cessation of hostilities, offering the Roumanians, Jugo-Slavs and Czecho-Slavs many concessions, including all territorial claims.

In reply, the Roumanians, on May 8th, demanded the disarmament of the Hungarian forces, the surrender of war materials and the return of prisoners and hostages without reciprocity. Until these terms had been complied with, Roumania would occupy the right bank of the Theiss River to a depth of 12 miles. This offer the Hungarian Communists declined to accept.

### Closing in on Budapest

Budapest was now in a state of panic, the populace fearing a general massacre by the Communists. Thousands already had fled into Austria. Immediately after the departure of the last train on May 1st, the Czechs crossed the Danube and took possession of the railroad. The Roumanians, from the East, were steadily closing in on Budapest, being hailed as liberators in all the Hungarian towns they entered, and seizing many prisoners and 150 carloads of war material.

### Red May Day in Budapest

The Reds celebrated May Day in Budapest with an orgy of red. The entire city had been swathed in red; street cars, automobiles, railway stations and lamp-posts were one mass of crimson. There were processions of troops and many fiery speeches. Bela Kun declared that Communism, if it were destined to fail in Hungary, would go out in a blaze of glory. This pompous show is said to have cost 12,000,000 marks to stage.

Meanwhile the Roumanian, Czech and Serbian troops were encircling the Hungarian capital. By May 8th, the Czechs, after a bitter struggle, had gained a foothold 40 miles north of Budapest. At this stage of the conflict, the Peace Conference halted the advance of the Allies and renewed its overtures for peace with the Hungarians. The proposals were rejected.

### Soviet Army Defeats the Czechs

The tide of battle, in June, turned in favor of the Soviet Army, which now numbered 200,000 men. Taking the offensive, they invaded Slovakia and inflicted dire punishment on the Czechs. Not only were the Czechs outnumbered, but Bolshevik propaganda had gained a foothold in Slovakia, even in the Czech Army itself.

Soviet republics had been proclaimed in several towns occupied by the Czechs and armed revolutionists had seized many of the railway lines, thus endangering the retreat of the Czecho-Slovak Army. The Czechs, moreover, were short of ammunition. Finally, the undue extension of their front against numerically superior Magyar forces told against them.

Early in June, the Czech front was pierced at various points, the Czechs retreating northward, leaving a third of Slovakia in Magyar hands. Kaschan was captured after two days' fighting and the Hungarians drove the Czechs across the Danube to within 35 miles of Vienna.

A reorganization of the Czech Army then took place, the command being intrusted to three trusted French Generals, Pelle, Mitterhausen, and Hennoque.

### Allied War Council Warns Bela Kun

Slovakia rallied to the support of its defeated Army. Ninety battalions of troops were sent from Prague in an attempt to save the situation. Coincidentally, the Supreme Allied War Council, on June 7th, telegraphed the Soviet Government that unless it ceased its attacks on the Czecho-Slovak forces, the Allies might use "extreme measures" to constrain Hungary.



Bela Kun, in his reply, threw the blame for hostilities on the Czecho-Slovaks, saying that Hungary was ready to cease fighting and proposing that a commission be appointed to meet at Vienna and effect a settlement.

The Supreme War Council, on July 13th, sent another ultimatum to Bela Kun, threatening immediate action unless the terms of the Armistice were observed. Bela Kun called a Soviet Congress at Budapest and in a long speech advised compliance with the Allies' demands.

Poganh, the Minister of War, on the contrary, argued in favor of continuing the war even if it were necessary to fight all Europe.

Bela Kun's counsel prevailed, and the withdrawal of Hungarian troops from Slovakia was begun late in June. But before departing, the Hungarians established a "Soviet Republic" in the evacuated territory, leaving a part of the Red Army to defend this "Republic", while the main Soviet Army marched eastward to attack the Roumanians.

### Reign of Terror in Budapest

Meanwhile, the Hungarian Bolsheviks had inaugurated a reign of terror in Budapest. All Courts of Justice were suspended and Revolutionary Tribunals were erected in their stead. There was a general confiscation of property, including banks, churches, shops, factories, and estates.

The rich and the well-to-do were dispossessed of their homes, which were at once occupied by the "proletariat", many of them newly released from prisons and slums.

Clergymen of all the Christian creeds were oppressed, being deprived of their incomes and forced to subsist on voluntary donations of the poor.

The death penalty was attached to many governmental decrees and long terms of imprisonment were provided for the opponents of Bolshevism.

The right to vote was reserved to "working people" only.

Hundreds of prominent citizens were put to death after the travesty of a trial conducted by blood-red revolutionists.

### Counter-Revolutions Break Out

The peasants of Hungary, too long passive under the tyranny of the Bolshevik ruffians, began a counter-revolution in June.

## Bela Kun's Soviet Government Overthrown

Thinking to penetrate the cordon on the east and effect a junction with the Russian Soviet Army, Bela Kun, on July 23d, launched a new offensive against the Roumanians. His Army, now reduced to 150,000, crossed the shallow Theiss River at various points between Tokai and Csongrad, using rafts, as the bridges had been blown up by the Roumanians some months before.

Within a week, however, the Soviet Army was crushingly defeated. In utter demoralization, the Reds then retreated into Hungary, pursued by the Roumanians.

The Supreme War Council assured the Hungarian nation that they might secure a removal of the peace blockade and receive food supplies if they

Thirty-two villages in the Oedenburg district flatly refused to accept the yoke of Bolshevism and expressed a desire to unite with Austria. Bela Kun at once sent a division of troops into the district to seize all the food supplies and money held by the people.

The peasants thereupon armed themselves with scythes, axes and a few rifles and gave battle to the troops. Machine guns were turned on them and they were slaughtered almost to a man. The torch was then applied to the villages.

Other counter-revolutions were begun in various parts of Hungary, by farmers, burghers and members of the working classes who abhorred the very thought of Bolshevism. A provisional Anti-Bolshevist Government was established in Arad, a city then occupied by French troops, with Count Karolyi as premier. The headquarters were later removed to Szegedin.

Loyal officers and White Guards, on June 24th, seized a monitor on the Danube, June 24th, and bombarded the Soviet headquarters in Budapest. The revolt was quelled by the Bolshevik Army in 48 hours. Three hundred participating White Guards were condemned by a Red Tribunal and put to death.

Forty boy students in the Budapest Military Academy were also butchered. In the course of the outbreak Bela Kun was shot at twice by a workman but escaped injury.

### Large Allied Army Marches on Budapest

The Allied War Council rather tardily decided to compel Hungary to observe the terms of the Armistice.

On July 12th, Gen. Franchet d'Esperey, commander of the Allied Forces in the Near East, was ordered to begin an advance on the Hungarian capital with 150,000 troops, made up of French Colonials, Roumanians, Jugo-Slavs, Italians and Hungarians. The Soviet Army was by this time beginning to disintegrate. Bela Kun had recruited his army of 200,000 men by appealing to the Hungarians to rise and defend the Fatherland against invasion. But when he subsequently abandoned his nationalistic policy, and openly avowed his intention to spread Bolshevism throughout Europe, the Hungarian officers and soldiers began to desert at every opportunity and the spirit of revolt became rife in the new Army.

would depose Bela Kun and set up in Budapest a truly representative government.

The Hungarian labor unions took the initiative by assuring the Peace Conference that Bela Kun's overthrow was already planned.

The People's Commissaries, representing the Soviet Government, then made overtures to the Peace Conference, asking sanction for the "peaceful resignation" of the Soviet and the formation of a new government.

This proposal was declined by the Allies on July 30th, coupled with a demand for the unconditional resignation of the Budapest Soviet Government.

On July 31st, Bela Kun announced that he would give his answer to the ultimatum on August 5th, but



on the same day the Workmen's and Soldiers' Council compelled his resignation.

#### New Government Formed

A new Cabinet was formed, under Socialist auspices, with Jules Perdl, a printer, as Premier, the personnel including several members of the old Bolshevik regime. Because of the continuance in office of these radicals, the Anti-Bolshevist Government at Szegedin refused to recognize the new Cabinet.

The new Cabinet immediately declared martial law and issued orders to shoot on the spot any person caught in the act of pillage or robbery.

The Soviet troops at the front were ordered to return at once, since the advance of the Roumanians had been halted by direction of the Allies.

Overtures for peace with the Allies were begun at once. At the same time the United States food administrator, Captain T. C. Gregory, arranged to bring supplies into Hungary to feed the famishing people.

A safe conduct out of Hungary was given Bela Kun and his Red lieutenants, but one of the Bolshevik Cabinet officers was shot at the Austrian frontier.

All Hungary rejoiced at the apparent downfall of Communism and thousands of exiled Magyars flocked back to Budapest.

#### Roumanian Army Invades Hungary

After the fall of the Bela Kun Government, the Supreme Council at Paris, on August 5th, sent to Budapest a commission of four Allied generals to enforce the terms of the Armistice and assist the heads of the Roumanian and Serbian Armies in protecting the occupied territory and regulating the conditions of occupation. On the following day the Supreme Council was informed that the Roumanian authority at Budapest proposed to impose new terms on the Hungarian Government in contravention of the Armistice terms concluded in November. The Supreme Council warned the Roumanian generals not to conclude a separate armistice without the authorization of the Allied powers. The Roumanian general in chief was given orders to conform to the directions of the generals representing the conference and acting by authority.

#### Roumanian Army Advances on Budapest

In disobedience of this ultimatum, the Roumanian army advanced through Hungary to the environs of Budapest, where it halted. Gen. Buruscu assured the burgomaster that he would not interfere with the preservation of order in the capital.

The Minister of War, Joseph Haubrich, placed two cavalry barracks at the disposal of the Roumanian officers and enjoined the inhabitants to maintain good behavior toward the Roumanians on pain of severe penalties. He promised to demobilize and disarm the Hungarian Red Army immediately, except for 14,000 soldiers in Budapest and 20,000 in the provinces to preserve order.

#### Occupation of Budapest

Notwithstanding these pacific measures, 30,000 Roumanian troops took possession of Budapest on August 4th; occupied all public buildings; assumed military command of the city; prevented the American food supplies reaching the city; took hostages

from among the citizens; requisitioned supplies; drove off cattle, and looted the suburban estates.

The American food administrator, Capt. Gregory, warned the Supreme Council that the new Hungarian Government must inevitably fall if the situation were not relieved. The Inter-allied Military Mission at Budapest was instructed to effect a withdrawal of the Roumanian army as soon as the Hungarian Soviet forces were disarmed.

Before this order could be enforced, however, the Roumanian Government served an ultimatum on the new Hungarian Cabinet. The demands included the reduction of the Hungarian army to 15,000 men; the surrender of 30 per cent of the harvest animals and farm machinery; 50 per cent of the railway supplies; a large proportion of the Danube shipping; and equipment for 300,000 men.

#### Archduke Joseph Assumes Power

Events now moved rapidly. At 6 o'clock on the evening of August 6th Hungarian gendarmes surrounded the palace in Budapest and placed the new Ministry under arrest. Archduke Joseph, who had been a Field Marshal during the War and had renounced royalty in 1918, assumed the helm of state with the title of Governor and announced that he would form a Coalition Cabinet. He issued a proclamation appealing to all classes to help him in his fight to put down anarchy. His plan for a new government was tacitly accepted by some of the Allied representatives.

The Socialists deplored the appointment of the Archduke as Regent of Hungary and intimated that the coup d'etat foreshadowed the restoration of the monarchical regime.

The Archduke himself, on August 10th, declared it was impossible to say whether the future government of Hungary was to be monarchical or republican. That question would be solely decided by the National Assembly which was to be elected immediately after the Roumanians evacuated Hungary. He gave a pledge that the elections, when held, should be conducted on the system of universal franchise. Every man and woman over 24 years of age should have the right to vote.

Premier Friedrich then declared that the removal of the Perdl Cabinet was essential because it was really a Bolshevik body.

As head of the transition Government and virtual dictator, Archduke Charles addressed a message to the Supreme Inter-allied Council on August 19th, pledging himself to convoke the National Assembly at the earliest possible moment. Until then the program of the transition Government would be to stamp out Bolshevism, fulfill the Armistice terms, restore normal conditions of security, encourage productive work in the country and make all preparations for the peace negotiations. He sought the "closest contact with the Allies" and solicited their "kind support".

#### 7,000 Bolsheviks Arrested By Roumanians

Under Archduke Joseph's dictatorship, the Roumanian soldiery, assisted by the new Hungarian police force, conducted a general round-up of Bolshevik leaders. Many aristocrats assisted in ferreting out the Reds. As a result of these raids, 7,000 Bolsheviks of both sexes, including former Ministers Garboi and Janosek, were arrested.



In the provinces, the Hungarian peasants revenged themselves for many Bolshevik atrocities by lynching numbers of the Red Guards and certain Jewish Bolshevik Commissaries charged with murder.

Still the new government was distrusted by the Industrial Workmen's Council and by Socialists generally. In a statement issued August 10th, the Workmen's Federation declared that "only so long as Russian bayonets continue in Budapest will the present government remain in office. The Federation now has a membership of 700,000, and the workmen want no king."

#### Archduke Joseph Forced to Resign as Dictator

In the new Cabinet, with Stephen Friedrich as premier, which Archduke Joseph had named on August 16th, three portfolios had been reserved for Socialists, but the latter refused to enter the Government unless Archduke Joseph resigned the dictatorship. President Wilson was also strongly opposed to the reinstatement in power of any of the Hapsburgs.

Herbert Hoover, the American Food Commissioner, who had bitterly denounced the requisitioning of food supplies in Budapest by the Roumanian commanders, went before the Supreme Council in Paris on August 21st and urged the displacement of Archduke Joseph as head of the Hungarian Government. He declared the new countries of Europe were being terrorized in consequence of the tolerance shown this scion of Hapsburg royalty. In proof thereof, he averred that, despite the warnings of the Supreme Council, the Roumanians had seized eight truckloads of medical supplies and food destined for the Children's Hospitals of Budapest, necessitating the performance of surgical operations without anesthetics. Moreover, the cutting off of milk supplies had caused the deaths of eighteen babies. He called for immediate and decisive action.

#### The Cabinet Also Resigns

Stirred by these representations, the Supreme Council on August 20th sent an ultimatum to Archduke Joseph, demanding his resignation in two hours. The dictator at once obeyed.

Premier Friedrich was then accused of being even more reactionary than Archduke Joseph. Under pressure his Cabinet resigned en bloc on September 1st. A new Cabinet, headed by a hardware dealer named Franz Heinrich, and including several Socialists, was then announced.

#### The Roumanians Still Defiant

The Roumanian problem became more acute in September. The Roumanian troops were stripping Budapest and all Hungary bare. Although the Supreme Allied Council at Paris had sent them several ultimatums, commanding them to cease their requisitionings, lootings and pillagings, all the orders had been ignored.

A final ultimatum was conveyed to the Roumanian Government, on Sept. 5th, together with 75 radiograms which the Council had previously dispatched from Paris but which the Roumanian Government declared had never been received. In this ultimatum, the Supreme Council had prohibited the shipment of arms and war material from Hungary to Roumania. The Roumanian premier, J. J. C. Bratiano, in his reply, called the attention of the Supreme Council to "the dangerous and pernicious character of the policy

it has adopted toward Roumania", declared that Roumania in destroying Bolshevism in Hungary had rendered eminent service to the Allied cause, and hinted that the Roumanian Government "might be obliged to consider the advantages of withdrawing her troops across the Dvina, in Southern Russia, and declining all responsibility for the chaos to which that part of Europe may be reduced by the dissensions of the Bolsheviks, Royalists and Reactionaries."

The impenitent Roumanians, a few days later, repaired the Szolnok bridge across the Tisza River and shipped into Roumania 6,000 Hungarian freight cars laden with spoils seized in Hungary.

On September 16th, the Roumanian Government consented to evacuate Bucharest or to co-operate with the Allies in maintaining order there. They promised, moreover, to render an account of the seizure of war material and rolling stock, but hoped the Allies would not require them to surrender these "acquisitions", and insisted upon the Allies lifting the Hungarian blockade.

Thereupon the Allies sent the Roumanian Government a politic note explaining why the clause relating to the protection of racial minorities had been inserted in the Austrian Peace Treaty and hoping Roumania would now sign it. Meantime, the question of Roumania's requisitions on Hungary would be submitted to a special commission of inquiry.

#### Hungary Recognized by the Allies

The Heinrich Cabinet also failed to win the approval of the Allies, and a new Coalition Cabinet was formed on November 23d, with Carl Huszar, the "Christian Socialist", as premier, and former Premier Friedrich as War Secretary. This Government was accorded recognition by the Allies after accepting these several conditions: That elections be held without delay; that order be maintained; that the provisional borders of Hungary be respected; that legal equality be granted all citizens; that liberty of the press and free speech be guaranteed; that free democratic elections should be safeguarded.

Premier Huszar estimated that the Bolshevik regime had cost Hungary \$3,600,000,000, and that the Roumanian inroads entailed a loss of \$7,200,000,000. The financial situation was desperate in the extreme.

#### Budapest's Starvation Blockade

A deplorable picture of life in Budapest was drawn by a Parisian journalist in October, 1919. Nearly 1,000,000 persons were then out of employment. Deprived of food because of the blockade, and the requisitions of the Roumanians, the people subsisted largely on pumpkins and watermelons. Scarcely any money was in circulation. Clothes and the common necessities of life were almost unobtainable at any price. The peasants of the interior, who might have relieved the starvation blockade in the capital, were so hostile to the Bolsheviks that they withheld their surplus supplies during the Bela Kun regime.

#### Execution of the Bolshevik Murderers

The trial of 16,000 Bolsheviks accused of complicity in the monstrous crimes committed during the regime of Bela Kun, was begun at Budapest on November 24th.

Only a few weeks before, the bodies of 250 additional victims of the murderous Reds had been dis-



covered buried in the cellars of the Parliament Building.

The bodies of 80 priests, who had been imprisoned and starved to death in a Catholic monastery, were recovered.

In a factory, lying buried under a huge pile of champagne bottles, 60 other bodies had been found.

One Magyar priest, a Father Hoch, was found crucified before his church. From first to last, thousands of Christians of all denominations were victims of the Red monsters, directed chiefly by Jewish "commissaries", who had adopted Hungarian, Austrian or Russian names to mask their true identity. No Jewish rabbis, however, suffered martyrdom at the hands of the anti-Christian foes of religion. Only Christians were murdered.

On December 12th, fourteen Bolsheviks were sentenced to death by hanging, and a large number of others received prison sentences of various periods at hard labor.

### Sympathy for Bolsheviks in England and France

Indignation ran high in Budapest at the time of these trials, when it became known that the head of the Allied Military Commission was endeavoring to prevent the execution of nine Bolsheviks, convicted of foulest murder, on the ground that the executions "might create unfavorable opinion in Great Britain and France".

The tender solicitude shown by certain unnamed "authorities" in Great Britain and France for the murderous Bolsheviks, whose crimes against Christian Europe cried aloud to Heaven for vengeance, was thought doubly strange in view of the fact that these same "authorities" had shown neither solicitude nor sympathy when thousands of Christians were being butchered by the Bolshevik "Commissars" in their secret "tribunals".

The Hungarian Government promptly bade those puissant apologists of Bolshevism in England and France, to keep their hands out of her internal affairs.

The trials and executions went on apace as the year 1919 drew on to a close.

### RUSSIA, MAY-DEC.

## Yudenitch's Russo-Baltic Armies Repulsed Near Petrograd

Bolsheviks Win a Sudden Victory, Compelling Esthonia to Sue for Peace  
Russian Volunteer Army, Deserted by Its Allies, Disbands on Esthonian Soil

### SECTION 15 - 1919

#### Russo-Baltic Forces, 150,000

Gen. Yudenitch, Commander-in-Chief

#### Russian Volunteer Army

Gen. Belakhovitch  
Gen. Shapshnikov  
Gen. Dyer  
Gen. Rodzianko

#### Esthonian Forces

Gen. Laidoner

#### Lithuanian Forces

Gen. Zukauskas

#### Finnish Forces

Gen. Mannerheim  
Gen. Wetzel

#### Latvian Forces

Gen. Ullman

#### Murmansk Forces

Gen. Maynard

#### Bolshevik Army, 200,000

Gen. Bruseloff, Chief of Staff  
Gen. Vacetis, Commander-in-Chief

#### Corps Commanders:

Gen. Kamenev  
Gen. Stupin  
Gen. Horokin  
Gen. Nikolaev

#### German Army in Latvia, 50,000

Gen. von der Goltz

THE fall of Petrograd—excepting Moscow, the strongest of all the citadels of Bolshevism—seemed inevitable in the autumn of 1919. From three directions, the leagued armies of North Russia, Esthonia, Latvia and Lithuania were closing in upon this Soviet stronghold, and everywhere dispersing the Bolshevik battalions which attempted to block their several paths of advance. Petrograd then was inadequately defended, the flower of the Bolshevik armies having been deflected to the Moscow front to defend the Soviet capital against the combined attacks of Kolchak's Siberian Army of the East and Denekine's Cossack Army of the South. The time seemed propitious when the Soviet citadel might successfully be assaulted.

Under the supreme command of the same Gen. Yudenitch who had humiliated the Turks in Armenia, two years before, and with ample supplies of munitions provided by England, the Russo-Baltic Armies advanced to the outer ramparts of Petrograd in mid-

October. There they were suddenly halted by a superior Soviet Army, called to this sector from the Southern front, and driven back in disorderly retreat across the Esthonian border, with heavy losses. Many dire consequences flowed from this crushing defeat. Esthonia was compelled to sue for peace, the remnant of Yudenitch's Russian Volunteer Army was disbanded on Esthonian soil and the rule of Bolshevism was extended throughout North Russia.

The defeat of Yudenitch, at the moment of apparent victory, was due, less to Bolshevik prowess, than to the spirit of disunity existing among the Russo-Baltic allies. The Baltic states, though delivered from their long Czaristic captivity, still were fighting for life against three formidable foes, intent upon depriving them of their hard-won independence. These foes were: Germany, whose Baltic armies still were permitted to function; Soviet Russia, which intended first to Bolshevise the Baltic States before extending its rule throughout Europe;



and the Russian Royalists, who with the aid of certain Allied nations, were plotting to restore integral Russia and Czardom.

Yudenitch's North Russian Army, equally with the armies of Kolchak and Denekine, was financed chiefly by England and France, and in complete control of Royalist officers whose avowed purpose was to crush Bolshevism and Democracy alike throughout Russia, as a preliminary to the re-establishment of the Empire of Russia in its entirety and the restoration of Czardom. The Baltic States had been persuaded to participate in the advance on Petrograd only after assurance had been given them that their independence should be recognized in event of victory. But as the advance progressed and victory seemed near, the Russian Royalists threw off the mask, openly declaring that Russia would not consent to the separation of the Baltic States. With this disclosure of Royalist duplicity, the ardour of the Baltic patriots perceptibly cooled, and they lent but indifferent aid to the Russian Royalists in the assault on Petrograd. After Yudenitch had been thrown back across the Esthonian frontier, the Esthonians refused him further aid, compelled the disbandment of his army and then sued the Bolsheviks for terms of peace.

The Baltic States, earlier in the year, had waged effective warfare against the Bolsheviks. Let us now survey the year's battles on the Baltic front in their sequence.

#### Finns Approach Petrograd

The mobilization of a new Finnish Army had been begun on May 25th, under the direction of Gen. Mannerheim. This Army, 120,000 strong, advanced in three columns—one column along the Kola Railroad to reinforce the Allied troops advancing southward from Archangel and Murmansk; the second directly on Petrograd, and the third co-operating with the Esthonian Army. At the same time, with the tacit consent of the Finnish Government, the White Guards co-operated by pushing out between Lake Ladoga and Lake Onega, clearing the region as far as the Svir River and approaching Petrograd from the east.

The northern column, in co-operation with the Esthonians, captured the fort of Krasnayagorka, commanding Kronstadt. The second column attacked the Bolshevik position at Gatschina, 35 miles from Petrograd, taking many prisoners, who immediately joined in the assault on their former Bolshevik comrades. The third column, by a surprise attack on June 1st, captured Pskov.

During this advance British and Bolshevik warships were engaged in the Gulf of Finland, each side losing a vessel before the Bolsheviks' squadron retired. The British ships on June 13th bombarded Kronstadt with heavy guns.

#### Esthonians Bombard Kronstadt and Take Riga

The Esthonian Army, commanded by Gen. Belakhovitch, in co-operation with Finnish White Guards, captured the important fort of Krasnayagorka, across the bay from Kronstadt in June. The fall of this fort had been preceded by a mutiny of the garrison on June 14th, followed by the bombardment of Kronstadt, which replied to the attack. Five Bolshevik warships shelled Krasnayagorka that day, but failed to regain the fort. The Bolshevik Gov-

ernment thereupon began active preparations to evacuate Petrograd.

The Esthonians, meantime, on May 26th, compelled the Bolsheviks to evacuate Riga. Before their withdrawal to new positions, six miles from the city, Bolshevik guards murdered 40 persons in the Central Prison and committed other atrocities. The operations around Riga resulted in a clash between the Esthonians and a body of German troops, who had made a treacherous attack upon them by order of Gen. von der Goltz.

Marshal Foch, on June 10th, had demanded that the Germans cease all hostilities, and an Allied commission was dispatched to the scene of battle to "investigate the charges." The German Army nevertheless continued to occupy Riga; Gen. von der Goltz proclaimed himself Governor General, appointing Major Arnim governor of the city; and martial law was established. Several weeks were destined to elapse before the German Army could be induced to evacuate.

#### Lithuanians Expel the Bolsheviks

A force of 25,000 Lithuanians, commanded by Gen. Zukauskas, expelled the Bolshevik forces from their province in June and began an offensive against the Reds near Dvinsk. This movement was a part of the combined Lettish, Esthonian and Lithuanian offensive which resulted in the expulsion of the Bolsheviks from Riga in May. A Polish offensive in Lithuania, near Vilna, was also progressing in June.

#### Archangel Offensive Slows Down

With the departure of the American and British contingents from North Russia in June, activities on the Archangel and Murmansk fronts began to slow down. New British forces had been constantly arriving, however, and it was the intention of Gen. Ironsides, the British commander, to co-operate as long as necessary with the Russian Volunteer troops and cover the Allied evacuation of Archangel. All told, Russian and British, there were only 23,000 Allied soldiers on these fronts to hold back the constantly increasing forces of the Bolsheviks.

On July 8th, the Northern forces were operating in the Province of Olonetz, northeast of Petrograd, and the Finnish Volunteers had reached a point within 30 miles of Petrograd. The Esthonian offensive, however, had been stopped by a strong Bolshevik counter-offensive.

In the South, however, the news was more encouraging. Odessa had been recaptured from the Soviet forces by the revolted Ataman, Grigorieff; Gen. Petlura had closed in on Kiev; Gen. Denekine had taken Kharkov and Tsaritsin; and the Bolsheviks had been driven out of the Ukraine.

In the East, Gen. Kolchak, with only meager support from the Allies, and greatly lacking in food and ammunition, was being hard pressed by the enemy. Despite his military reverses, however, he was taking necessary steps to build up a strong anti-Bolshevik state.

#### North Russian Troops Mutiny

Seeing their American and British comrades deserting them, the half-clad Russians on the Archangel front rebelled against fighting single-handed against a Bolshevik force outnumbering them four to one. On July 31st, the Russian unit defending Onega mur-



dered their officers and permitted the capture of that town by the Bolsheviks. This opened a breach in the Russian front, enabling the Bolsheviks to advance 27 miles along the Gulf of Onega. Here a battle was fought on August 5th. The Russian Army made a combined attack by land, water and air. Two Bolshevik vessels were captured and others were forced ashore.

A week later the municipality of Archangel and the zemstvos of Archangel Province implored the Allies not to desert them, saying that the departure of the Allied troops would mean a death-blow to North Russian independence, since their numbers were too few in that region to cope successfully with the Bolshevik armies.

The American Relief Administration at this time reported that the Russian National Army consisted of not more than 20,000 Russians and Estonians, many of them barefoot and without rifles, and unsupported by heavy artillery. Yet on a front extending from the Finnish coast to Pskov this little band of troops was expected to cope with a Bolshevik Army numbering 100,000 and well supported with artillery, rifles and airplanes. Before the arrival of the American relief ship with food, this Russian force was half starved.

The American relief work by July 25th had progressed as far east as Yamburg, 70 miles southwest of Petrograd, which the Russian National forces were holding successfully against the Bolsheviks. Yielding to the lure of American food, thousands of the Bolsheviks, also half famished, deserted to the side of the Russian Nationalists, the nation's "Green Guards" regiment going over en masse. The Relief Administration also reported that the Allied nations' lack of co-ordination in rendering assistance to the Russians made impossible the liberation of Petrograd.

Meantime the Bolshevik counter-offensive in the Pskov region had been stopped by the Estonians, who had forced the Reds to retreat 30 miles.

#### New Government in North Russia

On behalf of the Allied and Associated Powers, Gen. March on August 10th convened a meeting of Russian notabilities of all parties at Reval, advising them that it was essential that the Russian factions should unite to form a democratic government capable of undertaking the administration of the Northwestern Provinces when freed and restoring general confidence in the democratic intentions of the Russian leaders. He urged the immediate recognition of the independence of Estonia, as an imperative condition of Estonia's participation in the proposed advance on Petrograd.

Accordingly, a new Northwest Russian Government was organized, including the provinces of Petrograd, Novgorod and Pskov, with Gen. Yudenitch as president and Gen. Lianozov as premier. A Volunteer Army was organized, with Gen. Yudenitch as

Commander-in-Chief. To replace interim notes, this government at once began to print 350,000,000 roubles in banknotes bearing the signature of Gen. Yudenitch. The British sent large quantities of munitions and supplies to Reval for the use of the Provisional Government.

#### New Advance by Yudenitch's Army

A new advance on Petrograd was begun on August 15th by the Russian Volunteer Army, commanded by General Yudenitch, in co-operation with Estonian troops. Operating along the south coast of the Gulf of Finland they drove the Bolsheviks back to the Luga River, annihilating several battalions of Soviet troops.

Under Gen. Ironsides, meantime, the British forces had won several minor engagements round about Lake Onega.

A naval battle was fought in the Gulf of Finland on August 18th, resulting in the sinking of a Bolshevik battle-cruiser and a Bolshevik destroyer by British naval forces, and followed by the bombardment of Kronstadt, the naval port of Petrograd. Two British destroyers were subsequently sunk, one by a torpedo, the other by a mine.

#### Estonians Sue for Peace

The Estonians, on the other hand, met with a serious reverse in August. The Bolsheviks, after several days of heavy bombardment, captured Pskov, the most important city on the Baltic front, compelling the retreat of the Estonian White Guards. The Russian and Estonian troops, in explaining their demoralization, alleged that they had been betrayed by their officers. Col. Stojakin, chief of staff to Gen. Belakhovitch, at Pskov, was found guilty by court-martial of accepting a bribe of 1,000,000 roubles from the Bolsheviks to turn over a part of his line to the Reds. Other Estonian and Russian officers had deserted to the Bolsheviks. Peace negotiations between the Estonian and Bolshevik Government began in Pskov on September 10th.

#### British Troops Finally Withdraw

Discouraged over the failure of their policy in Northern Russia, the British resolved upon evacuating the district, leaving the Russians to fight the battle alone. To Gen. Rawlinson was intrusted the task of withdrawing the British troops with the least possible injury to the Russian National forces. The decision to evacuate Archangel and Murmansk had indeed been reached in February, but upon the representation that Admiral Kolchak's advance offered new hope of success, Gen. Ironsides was instructed to carry on and prepare a plan for the junction of the British with the Kolchak forces, but by September Kolchak had been driven so far back that all hope of such a junction was abandoned.

## Gen. Yudenitch Repulsed at the Gates of Petrograd

Despite the withdrawal of the American and British troops from the Northwestern front, the Russian and Baltic forces in September and October scored the most sensational advances of the year. From every side, the anti-Bolshevik armies were closing in upon the Russian capital. Gen. Yudenitch's Army,

sweeping all before them, had advanced almost to the gates of Petrograd; Denekine's Cossacks in the south were menacing Moscow, which was now in a state of siege; Kolchak's three Siberian Armies, in a wide offensive, were pushing rapidly westward; Belakhovitch's Estonians and Finns had broken the Bol-



shevist lines at Bulata, whole divisions of the Reds surrendering.

#### The Russian Blockade Established

British and French warships, riding in the Gulf of Finland, had established a tight food blockade in which the United States refused to join, though our government did refuse clearance to vessels bound for Soviet Russia.

Gen. Yudenitch's forces, early in October, began their sensational advance on Petrograd on a front of 100 miles. Co-operating with this army of Russians, Esthonians and Finns was a British tank squadron, manned by British officers. In rapid succession the Russian allies wrested Yamburg, Kikerino, Gatschina, Pskov, Krasnov Selo and Ligovo from the Bolsheviks, seizing many prisoners and large stores of needed ammunition, and on October 18th, Yudenitch's cavalry had reached the northern suburbs of Petrograd.

South of Petrograd the Esthonians had arrived at Krasnaya Gorka, facing Kronstadt. Strong resistance was encountered at Pulgovo, compelling a concentration of forces there while awaiting reinforcements and heavy artillery. Bolshevik forces at Gdov, which threatened Yudenitch's flank, were dispersed.

With victory almost in his grasp, Gen. Yudenitch was destined to suffer a most sensational reverse. The Soviet Army in Petrograd, greatly strengthened by the arrival of several corps from the north and south, launched a terrific counter-offensive on October 24th.

Yudenitch's Army was forced quickly to evacuate Pavlovsk and Tsarskoe Selo, the retreat being harassed by a bombardment from the Bolshevik dreadnaught lying in the Neva River. The Reds recaptured Krasnov Selo on the 27th and then executed a flank movement to cut off Gatschina and reach the railroad.

By October 29th, Yudenitch's entire line was falling back and his staff headquarters had been removed to Yamburg, 68 miles from Petrograd on the road to Reval. In his distress, Yudenitch called for assistance upon Col. Avalov-Bermondts commander of the so-called Independent Russian Forces which had attacked Riga, but that traitor, who was in league with the German General von der Goltz and a participant in the latter's raid on the Baltic states, refused any aid.

The Red army, enormously reinforced, in late November sought to envelop Yudenitch's forces near Yamburg. The Russian Nationals, now in a bad state of demoralization, due to lack of food, retreated hurriedly toward the Esthonian border. A large part of Yudenitch's Army finally crossed the Esthonian frontier and settled south of Narva where they gave battle to the Reds. They attributed the military disaster to the failure of the general in command to make adequate provision for the transportation of food supplies and his equally fatal neglect to maintain a reserve in his hasty advance on Petrograd. Lacking bread, the Russian soldiers had been obliged to mix flour with snow and eat the cold dough.

#### Esthonians Seek Peace with the Bolsheviks

As Yudenitch's Army, scattered and demoralized, retreated into Esthonia, only four divisions were permitted to retain their arms and defend their frontier against the attacks of the Bolsheviks. The remainder were disarmed by the Esthonians, who now sued for peace with the Bolshevik Government, but while negotiations were pending the Reds kept up their attacks on both the Esthonians and the Russians. Gen. Yudenitch pleaded that arms be restored to his army in order that he might undertake a new offensive, but the Esthonians refused.

The Supreme Council at Paris, on December 4th, sent a note to the Esthonian Government, asking that it cease disarming Yudenitch's forces and that it permit the reorganization of the whole Army on Esthonian soil. This request was likewise refused. Yudenitch and the Supreme Council at Paris then sought permission to reorganize the Russian Army on the Latvian front, but the Letts declined on the ground that such a military procedure would jeopardize Latvia's whole political edifice.

Meanwhile, the Esthonian-Russian forces on the Narva front had been heavily attacked by the Bolshevik Armies. With three divisions, they held 15 Bolshevik divisions for two weeks in December, repulsing ten assaults of the enemy and cutting down many thousands of the invaders before the barbed wire defenses. But foreseeing ultimate disaster, the Esthonians appealed to Finland for aid. The Finns, however, refused to assist them. So matters rested at the close of 1919.



RUSSIA, JAN.—DEC.

## Kolchak's Siberian Armies Crushinglly Defeated by Bolsheviki

Furious Battles Fought on a Front 7,500 Miles in Extent. Betrayal of the Russian People by the Czaristic Military Leaders, True Cause for the Disaster

SECTION 16—1919

### Russian National Forces, 400,000 men

Gen. Jules Janin, Commander-in-Chief  
Admiral Kolchak, Field Commander

#### Don Cossack Army

Gen. Krasnov

#### Kuban Cossack Army

Gen. Filiminov

#### Ural Cossack Army

Gen. Dutov

Gen. Sakharov

#### Ussuri Cossack Army

Gen. Kalmikov

Gen. Romanovski

#### Transbaikal Cossacks

Gen. Semenov

Gen. Ivanov-Rinov

#### Czecho-Slovak Army

Gen. Gaida

Gen. Dieterichs

### Bolsheviki Forces, 500,000 men

Gen. Brusiloff, Chief of Staff

Gen. Vacetis, Field Commander

#### Corps Commanders:

Gen. Karolov

Gen. Bedousa

Gen. Beliaieff

Gen. Nessarov

Gen. Gouki

Gen. Zinkovitch

Gen. Seliviatchev

Gen. Valitchko

Gen. Klemborsky

Gen. Stapin

Gen. Horokin

Gen. Antonov

THE strongest link, apparently, in the chain of Russo-Baltic armies which encircled the strongholds of Bolshevism in the spring of 1919, was the group of Siberian Armies, commanded by Admiral Kolchak, yet, paradoxically, this link was the first to yield under the Bolshevik pressure, and the collapse of the chain inevitably resulted!

Kolchak's forces, 400,000 strong, in three equal columns, moved westward from Omsk, early in March, with Moscow as their final objective. His rear was guarded by the bandit corps commanded by Semenov, Kalmikov and Ivanoff, then patrolling the Siberian Steppes. His left wing was directed to make early contact with the Cossack Armies of Denekine and Krasnov, then moving northward out of South Russia. His right wing was ordered to unite with the Czecho-Slovak Army, then disposed along the Volga River and in the Ural region. Eventually, Kolchak hoped to couple up with the Allied Expeditionary Force, which was pushing southward from Archangel toward Volgda on the Trans-Siberian railroad, and so establish a new Eastern Battle Line, 7,000 miles long, extending from Archangel on the White Sea to Vladivostok on the Pacific.

Coinciding with Kolchak's advance, but further west, on the Baltic frontier, the Polish, Estonian, Latvian and Finnish armies were closing in on Moscow and Petrograd, and a new Russian National Army under command of Gen. Yudenitch was being organized in the Northwest to complete the chain. Altogether, the Russo-Baltic armies possessed a strength of 1,000,000 rifles, which was deemed sufficient to overcome the maximum strength of the Bolshevik armies.

Kolchak's advance, in its earlier stages, was marked by a succession of triumphs. The several Bolshevik battalions which had overflowed into Siberia after the German armistice were either destroyed or driven back across the Urals. Scores of towns were liberated. West of the Urals, however, the Bolshevik resistance stiffened, but Kolchak's advance persisted until he had approached close to Ufa. There, early in June, he met his Waterloo. His separated columns were violently attacked by large bod-

ies of Bolshevik cavalry and thrown into wildest confusion. Many thousands of his disloyal soldiers went over to the enemy. The torn remnants of his army fled eastward, recrossing the Urals, constantly harassed by the Red pursuers. The pursuit continued well into the autumn.

By September, Kolchak had reorganized his army and with military supplies furnished by the Allied governments, launched a new offensive. The military conditions were then highly propitious. Denekine's Cossack Armies from the South had pushed forward almost within striking distance of Moscow. Yudenitch's Army of the Northwest had advanced almost to the gates of Petrograd. The fall of the Soviet strongholds seemed imminent. Kolchak recrossed the Urals, driving the Bolsheviki before him like sheep. But there he suffered another sensational reverse. The Soviet Armies, with superhuman skill, repulsed their enemies on every front. Yudenitch was beaten back across the borders of Esthonia; Denekine's battle line was ruptured by an extraordinary cavalry charge and his army scattered to the winds; the Poles were driven back to their old frontier; Kolchak's separated columns were defeated in detail and forced back in headlong retreat 1500 miles into the interior of Siberia. Again his troops deserted in large numbers to the Bolsheviki, and many new enemies arose in his rear to harass his retreat. Kolchak's main column finally limped into the capital city of Omsk, but was compelled to evacuate the city on October 31st, retreating thence to Irkutsk. Here Kolchak was stripped of his power and eventually was betrayed into the hands of his enemies, who put him to death.

The disaster which befell Kolchak's Army is attributable, far less to Bolshevik prowess in warfare than to the spirit of distrust and mutiny which pervaded the army itself. Kolchak, by many, was regarded as a reactionary royalist, whose object in seizing the supreme power as Dictator of the All-Russian Government at Omsk was not only to overthrow the Bolshevik regime but to throttle the new-born democracy as a first step in restoring the hated Romanoffs to the throne of Russia. This suspicion



was strengthened when Kolchak, by proclamation, forbade all political discussion at the convention of zemstvos which met at Vladivostok late in January. Subsequently, Kolchak pledged himself to call a Constituent Assembly in which the future government of Russia might be determined by the authorized delegates of the people. It was Kolchak's misfortune, however, to be surrounded by a cabal of reactionary military leaders who openly declared their intention to restore Czarism in Russia. The resentment of the newly emancipated Russian people was shown in their refusal to volunteer for service in Kolchak's army. As a result of this refusal, resort was had to conscriptive methods. Excepting for the officers, who were Czaristic to a man, Kolchak's army was composed almost exclusively of conscripts, and it was darkly hinted that for every Russian peasant coerced into joining the army two were put to death for refusing to serve.

It may not be amiss to add that the French and British governments were in seeming accord with the policies of the Russian royalists who aimed at the restoration of Czarism. It was by this sanction that Kolchak was emboldened to proclaim himself the Dictator of the All-Russian Government at Omsk, and this influence was still further exerted in persuading the heads of the several regional governments then functioning in Russia to accept Kolchak as the supreme authority. Though strangely loath themselves to declare war against the Bolsheviks,

still they did actually intervene in Russia's internal affairs and more to the point, they supplied the sinews of war which made the triple offensive possible. The motives of these governments in supporting the Czaristic faction were perfectly intelligible. France and England had loaned billions to the Czar's government. The debt had been repudiated by the Bolsheviks. If the Russian people succeeded in overturning the Bolshevik regime, the payment of the enormous debt was still problematical, since the Russians were bent upon creating a Federation of Independent States, no one of which would admit responsibility for the Czar's debts. On the other hand, the Czaristic faction, in return for Allied support, had pledged themselves in event of their success to pay the national debt in full. Hence, France and England extended their moral and financial support to the aristocratic faction. America and Italy at first held aloof, but finally assisted in financing the All-Russian army of Admiral Kolchak. Although Kolchak, by consent of the Allied nations had risen to the position of Dictator in Russia, still the supreme military power was not intrusted to him. Early in January, 1919, the French General, Jules Janin, was appointed supreme chief of the Russo-Allied forces, "in order to establish unity of command on the Siberian front."

A more detailed account of Kolchak's campaign follows:

## Opening Battles in Siberia

The Soviet armies, at the beginning of the new year, won several notable victories. They captured the important city of Ufa on January 20th, the Czecho-Russian forces retreating to Zlatoust, 140 miles to the northeast. Following up this victory they seized Orenberg, compelling Gen. Dutov's force of Ural Cossacks to fall back in a northerly direction. Contingents of French and British troops were sent to Dutov's assistance. To offset these Red victories, Siberian troops captured Sarapul in the province of Tobolsk, and annihilated two divisions of the Soviet army at Kungur, 50 miles southeast of Perm.

### Kolchak's Great Victories Over the Bolsheviks

In March, before spring thaws had set in, Kolchak began a general offensive on a wide front west of the Urals. His main army, in the center, pushing westward toward the Volga, on March 13th, liberated Ufa, which the Bolsheviks had occupied since January 20th, capturing many prisoners and much booty. The right wing of the army at the north, moved westward toward Vologda, intending to form a junction with an Allied force marching south from Archangel. The left wing, in two columns, began a movement against Orenberg, one column advancing southward out of Ufa, the other force from Omsk.

This Siberian drive was eminently successful. The Bolsheviks were driven back 30 miles on a 50 mile front. Okansk and Ossa were recaptured, three Bolshevik divisions annihilated, a large number of prisoners taken and the Soviet forces driven westward, in three directions. Before evacuating Ossa the Reds had put to death 2,000 civilians and carried off all the surviving workmen.

On March 23d, the advance guards of the Siberian and Czecho-Slovak forces formed a junction at Ust Kozon, establishing a line extending from the Baltic Sea through Siberia to the Pacific, thus forming a rampart of steel between the Soviet forces and outer Russia. On the Orenberg front, the retreat of the Reds was so rapid that the pursuit failed to overtake them. Fifty miles south of Ufa, a whole regiment of Bolshevik cavalry deserted to Kolchak's army. Meanwhile Denekine's Cossacks had cleared all Northern Caucasia of Bolsheviks from the Black Sea to the Caspian and Gen. Shkuro's cavalry had captured Vlaikavkas, taking many prisoners and much booty.

Kolchak's advance took on new momentum in April. Sterlitmark was captured on the 5th, Votkinsk on the 12th and Orenberg was hastily evacuated by the Bolsheviks on the 24th. Bolshevik deserters and many peasants were joining the Kolchak forces. The advance along the southern branch of the Trans-Siberian road on April 28th had reached Kinel, only 40 miles east of Samara, while the movement along the northern branch of the railway had progressed as far as Glazov. A third column had reached Sarapul on the Kama River.

In Southeastern Russia, below Samara, the Ural Cossacks had captured several villages west of Uralsk and many peasant uprisings in Bolshevik territory resulted from Kolchak's victory.

### Take 25,000 Bolshevik Prisoners at Sarapul

The most signal victory of the whole offensive was the capture of Sarapul, where Kolchak's forces took 25,000 prisoners, 2,000 rifles, 200 railroad cars, 26 big guns, an armored train and a great quantity of ammunition.



Another notable Kolchak victory was the capture of Christopol on the Kama River, where the Siberians seized several Bolshevik steamships, guns and other booty. Throughout the Samara and Simbirsk districts the enemy's resistance was broken; five rifle regiments surrendered on the Samara front alone, many towns and quantities of war material were captured, and the morale of the Red Army was everywhere impaired.

As a result of these Kolchak victories, Japan on April 23d rather tardily concurred with the Allies in recognizing the Omsk All-Russian Government, and the Archangel Government followed suit on May 7th.

## Kolchak's First Retreat

With victory almost in his grasp, Kolchak, early in June, suffered a most sensational reverse. The Bolshevik government, determined at all hazards to recover the Volga valley, concentrated an enormous force of cavalry and infantry on the Ufa front. The fighting around Ufa lasted three days and was of a most sanguinary nature. In the end the Bolsheviks triumphed. Ufa capitulated on June 9th, the Siberians falling back in disorder. Everywhere on the wide front, Kolchak's army was retreating, evacuating many important cities and towns. Evacuating Perm on July 2d, Kolchak's army fell back 100 miles to Ekaterinburg. With the fall of that city on July 14th, the Kolchak government lost its last important base of supplies west of the Urals and north of the Trans-Siberian railway.

Coinciding with this defeat in the west was the capture of the Lena gold fields in Eastern Siberia by an army of 50,000 Reds commanded by Gen. Muraviev. In the Vladivostok region the Reds were equally active and on July 1st, the Japanese sent reinforcements to check their ardor.

### Wild Flight of the Refugees to Omsk

Kolchak's four retreating armies were now distributed along a line 7,500 miles long, or twice the span of the American continent. They still lacked food, ammunition, clothing and especially means of transport. The single line of track of the Siberian system did not suffice for the transport of so large a body of troops. The Army was greatly hampered in its movements by reason of peasant refugees, fleeing in wild panic from the murderous Bolsheviks. On the roads from Ekaterinburg to Tiumen alone there were 17,000 carts filled with 70,000 civilian refugees, together with led horses and cattle. In addition 375 railway cars, carrying 12,000 refugees had arrived at Tiumen; 20,000 refugees had reached Omsk, and hundreds more were daily arriving. A camp had been established in the suburbs and the Red Cross was assisting in feeding and caring for the sick and emergency cases. Thousands of women and children were transported in the few box cars available, making the dreadful journey of a week to Omsk with insufficient food or water or clothing.

## Kolchak's Second Retreat

The Bolshevik advance in Siberia was finally halted in early September. Gen. Denekine's phenomenal victory over the Soviet armies in Southern

The Allies, moreover, loaned the Inter-allied Commission operating the Trans-Siberian Railroad the sum of \$20,000,000 for operating purposes.

### Attempt on Gen. Horvath's Life

On May 4th, a Bolshevik assassin attempted the life of Gen. Horvath, Russian military commander at Harbin, fortunately without success. Gen. Horvath, on May 16th, at the request of the United States government and in the interests of harmony, succeeded Gen. Ivanov-Rinov as commander of the All-Russian troops in Eastern Siberia.

There were many ugly stories current concerning the selfish seizure of trains for their own use by the Czecho-Slovak troops, thus depriving the Russian people of their sole means of escape.

To protect and care for the Russian refugees was a chief concern of Gen. Kolchak, while directing the retreat of his army on a 7,500 mile front in the face of superior forces. These Czecho-Slovak forces, deserting Kolchak in his extremity, refused longer to fight on Russian soil, but according to some reports they did not hesitate to seize food supplies and trains that were needed for the accommodation of the Russian refugees.

### America Rushes Aid to Kolchak

The victorious Soviet army, outnumbering Kolchak's forces in the ratio of three to one, pressed their pursuit relentlessly. During July and August, Kolchak's retreat began to assume the proportions of a rout. Lacking the necessary ammunition and food supplies to make a successful resistance, he could only continue his retreat. By August 11th, he had fallen back 800 miles from the positions he held in the spring. The entire Ural front was now in the hands of the Bolsheviks and the evacuation of Omsk was regarded as imminent.

In this crisis the American government shipped 260,000 rifles and large quantities of ammunition across the Pacific, hoping they might reach Kolchak in time to save his forces from final defeat. An American syndicate of financiers, previously, had arranged a loan of \$5,000,000 with the Omsk government to enable it to buy foodstuffs and other necessities in America, the loan being secured by an equivalent value of gold bullion which the Kolchak government had deposited at Hongkong with 25 per cent margin as security.

The collapse of the Kolchak army resulted in strong pressure being brought to bear on the United States government to bring about the recall of our troops from Siberia. President Wilson, in giving assurance that the drafted men would be brought home as soon as possible, also declared that volunteers would take their place in Siberia, as our government had no intention of withdrawing the American forces at this time.

Russia had compelled the Bolshevik government to withdraw several corps from the Siberian front to meet the new foe. Kolchak, now supplied with mu-



nitions of war, seized the opportunity to start a counter-offensive with his three western armies. Gen. Sakharov's Siberian Army engaged the Reds on the Kurgan front, September 11th, capturing five staffs, 2,000 prisoners, 19 cannon and much booty, and the Cossacks, co-operating with him, drove the Bolsheviks to the northwest. The Second Siberian army, under General Lokivitsky, at the same time endeavored to flank the Bolshevik forces on the Ishim-Tuimen railway. By the end of September the Siberian armies had pushed forward 90 miles, taken 15,000 prisoners, 100 machine guns and 21 heavy cannon. A week later the Reds were in retreat along the entire line, deporting whole populations in the districts they traversed and seizing all the livestock.

Again the general situation looked ominous for the Bolsheviks. Gen. Yudenitch's Northwest Army had advanced to the suburbs of Petrograd, causing an exodus of Reds from that city. On the south, Gen. Denekine's Cossacks had advanced almost within striking distance of Moscow and the evacuation of the Soviet capital was considered imminent. Kolchak's armies recovering from their demoralization, had driven the Reds westward nearly 100 miles.

#### Bolsheviks, Again Victorious, Take Omsk

But once again the tide of battle suddenly turned. The Bolsheviks, strongly reinforced, drove Yudenitch's Northern Army back to the borders of Esthonia. Then, turning rapidly southward, they hit savagely at Denekine's front, compelling the precipitate retreat of the Cossacks, and capturing Poltava, Kharkov and Kiev. They were now free to concentrate their full strength in a final assault on Kolchak's Siberian forces. In a swift two weeks' drive, begun in mid-October, they compelled Kolchak's army to retreat 166 miles to Omsk, the Siberian capital. Against the best advice, Kolchak and his government on October 31st resolved not to surrender the capital, but the immediate evacuation of civilians was agreed upon. In the freezing weather of a Russian winter, the poor people of Omsk, old and young, the sick and the wounded together, were carried in unheated box cars on a six days' journey to Irkutsk. Not all might avail themselves of this form of conveyance, for the Czecho-Slovaks had seized several trains for their own conveyance, and many hundreds of poor Russians, half clad, were forced to make the dreadful journey on foot or in sleighs. All the Allied missions left Omsk, excepting the American Vice Consul, who remained in the capital to keep in touch with the Foreign Office at Novo Nikolaevsk.

Kolchak now was at the end of his resources. A large part of his army was in panic retreat; the Czecho-Slovaks declined further to assist him, and the orderly movement of his remaining troops was impeded by the exodus of peasants, whose carts filled all the roads to the east.

On the morning of November 15, the guns of the Bolshevik army thundered in front of Omsk, as the Soviet armies began an encircling movement around the capital. Too late, Kolchak began to evacuate his troops. A part of his army, discarding their guns, fled in great disorder, some by train, others on foot. Fifteen trains carrying officers and their families, besides scores of other trains filled with refugees, fell into the hands of the Bolshevik cavalry.

Forty thousand Siberian troops in Omsk, together with eleven generals and 1,000 other officers, surrendered to the Bolsheviks. The material seized included 75 locomotives, 5,000 loaded cars, 4,000,000 rounds of ammunition, 2,000 machine guns and 30,000 uniforms. Following this disaster the remnants of Kolchak's armies in scattered units, continued their flight eastward and on November 26th one column of the army had retreated 87 miles beyond Omsk.

#### New Siberian Government Formed

With the arrival of Kolchak's executives at Irkutsk, the social revolutionary elements of Siberia demanded that a new Coalition Cabinet be formed. Kolchak, who was still at Novo Nikolaevsk, supervising the retreat of his armies, gave his consent and on December 2d a new government was formed, with Pepilaev as premier. Declaring for a decisive struggle against Bolshevism and for the regeneration of Free Russia, the Pepilaev government announced its program embodying the following principles: Emancipation of the civil administration from political influence of all military leaders; decisive struggle against excesses and injustice, no matter by what faction or party they were committed; close relation between the people and the Government; close and friendly relations with the Czecho-Slovaks; radical measures to insure supplies for the army; reduction of the Ministerial Staffs.

#### Gen. Gaida's Revolt

A further revolt against Kolchak's authority occurred on November 17th in Vladivostok, when Gen. Gaida, the former Czecho-Slovak commander, organized a new Provisional Government, whose leaders included members of the original Duma, three members of the Kerensky cabinet and many Russian officers. In the fighting that ensued, Gen. Gaida was wounded and compelled to surrender together with several members of his staff.

#### Bolsheviks Are Masters of European Russia

The Bolsheviks swept all before them in November and December. One column of Soviet troops on December 16th captured Novo Nikolaevsk, 390 miles east of Omsk, taking 5,000 prisoners and several generals. Another column had advanced 1,200 miles east of Irkutsk. So desperate was Kolchak's situation that he was prepared to cede a part of Siberia to Japan to save the rest of Russia from falling into the hands of the Bolsheviks.

The Bolsheviks in December, extended their field of operations as far as Turkestan and the Far East. Bolshevik emissaries were sent by Lenine into India, Persia, Mesopotamia, China, Japan and Afghanistan to spread propaganda. At the same time Lenine, the Bolshevik Dictator, renewed his overtures for peace with the Allies. His first proposal for peace had been made on August 5th. Since then he had repeated the proposal eight times.

As the year 1919 came to a close, the Bolsheviks were virtually masters of European Russia. Their victories in Ukraina had given them control of enormous supplies of food, coal, oil, raw material and rolling stock. They had established themselves on the Caspian and Black Seas, where they dominated the new republics of Georgia and Azerbaidjan. The



doors into Persia, Mesopotamia, Afghanistan and India were open to them. Propaganda schools were opened by them all through the Far East, where

their agents were being taught the Oriental languages with a view to spreading their doctrines in India, China and all Moslem countries.

RUSSIA, JAN. — DEC.

## Denekine's Cossack Armies Succumb to Bolshevik Onslaught

100,000 Bolshevik Cavalry Break Through the Ukrainian Battle Front

Conquest of Ukrainia and the Caucasus

Follows This Victory

SECTION 17 — 1919

### South Russian Forces, 800,000

Gen. Denekine, Commander-in-Chief

#### Kuban Cossack Army

Gen. Filiminov, Commander

Gen. Mamontov

Gen. Wrangel (Cavalry)

#### Don Cossack Army

Gen. Krasnov, Commander

Gen. Kamentov

Gen. Chelnokov

Gen. Skhuro

#### Ukrainian Peasant Army

Gen. Petlura, Commander

Gen. Tarnowsky

Gen. Makhno

#### Franco-Roumanian Army

Gen. Berthelot

#### Franco-Greek Army

### Bolshevist Forces, 500,000

Gen. Antonov, Commander-in-Chief

Gen. Gettis

Gen. Stankevitch

Gen. Bybenko

Gen. Budenny (cavalry)

\*Gen. Grigoriev

\*Denounced later as a traitor

THE last remaining foe in the path of Bolshevik conquest was vanquished and the complete subjugation of European Russia assured, with the rout of Denekine's Cossack Armies and the rapid occupation of Ukrainia by the Soviet forces in the closing weeks of 1919.

After scattering Kolchak's Siberian Armies to the four winds, in November, the exultant Reds had swung rapidly southward, where the armies of Denekine, Krasnov and Petlura were holding a battle-line extending from the Galician frontier 1,200 miles eastward to the Caucasus.

Concentrating all their available cavalry, 100,000 mounts, on the vulnerable center of Denekine's attenuated line, in a single cyclonic charge, the Reds broke through on a forty-mile front, throwing the Cossack Armies into helpless confusion and subsequently dispersing or destroying the greater part of Denekine's Army.

So perished the last hopes of ordered liberty in Southern Russia. All four of the patriot armies that purposed the overthrow of Bolshevism were now annihilated. The spared remnant of Yudenitch's Army of the Northwest had been disbanded on Esthonian soil. Pilsudski's Polish Legions in the West had been battered back. Kolchak's Siberian Armies broken into fragments, had been driven eastward in disorderly flight into the far interior of Siberia. Denekine, the last reliance of royalist Russia, and the particular protege of the Allied nations, had met a similar fate. Excepting in the Far East, where the bandit forces of Semenov, Ivanov and Horvath still dominated the Siberian Steppes, Bolshevism was supreme and 150,000,000 Christians were subjugated to its godless yoke.

### Opening Phases of the Battle in Ukrainia

Early in January, 1919, the last of the German troops in Ukrainia and the Caucasus evacuated those provinces, under the terms of the armistice. As the

Huns moved out of Ukrainia, the Bolsheviks poured in, hoping to gain quick possession of the enormous stores of grain which had been harvested there. They seized Kiev, the capital of the Ukrainian Republic, compelling the loyal Ukrainians to remove their seat of government to Vinnitza. Part of Gen. Petlura's troops deserted to the Bolsheviks and the rest withdrew.

In this crisis, the Ukrainians intrusted the high military command to Gen. Denekine, former chief of staff of the Russian Army and head of the ephemeral military government of Ekaterinodar, which had affiliated with the Omsk government of Admiral Kolchak. Gen. Denekine, with Allied assistance, assembled a new army and on January 9th, inflicted a sharp defeat on the Bolsheviks on the Kuna River in the Caucasus, taking 1,000 prisoners and routing the enemy. In a two-days' battle, Gen. Denekine captured the town of Alexandrovsk Grushevsky.

In Eastern Ukrainia, on the contrary, the Bolsheviks seized control; occupying such important cities as Kharkov, which they made their seat of government, Poltava, Ekaterinoslav and the Donetz mining region, as well as Zhitomir in Volhynia. But for the timely arrival of the Allied warships in the Black Sea ports, they no doubt would have spread their authority to the Black Sea littoral.

Continuing his victorious advance in the Caucasus, Denekine drove back an army of 100,000 Bolsheviks 230 miles, liberating many towns, capturing 31,000 prisoners, 95 guns and eight armored trains, and reaching the shores of the Caspian Sea early in February.

Meanwhile, in Ukrainia proper, the Bolsheviks were gaining ground. The whole of the Kiev-Kovel railway was in their hands and they had little to fear from Gen. Petlura's forces, who were inadequately supported. In Kiev the Bolsheviks drove the loyal citizens from their houses and installed therein the population of the slums and of the Jewish ghetto.



### Odessa Captured by the Bolsheviks

The Second Bolshevik army continued their westward advance through Ukraina, with Odessa, the important port on the Black Sea, as their objective. Kherson, 92 miles northeast of Odessa, had previously been occupied, on February 26th, by Greek troops who hoped to stay the drive of the Reds. The Greeks, however, were easily expelled from Kherson on March 8th by Bolsheviks, and the city of Zhitomir was captured by the Reds a week later.

Odessa itself was defended by a force of 50,000 men, including three French regiments, three Greek regiments and a Roumanian contingent. Small detachments of Cossacks and Ukrainians had been thrown out to break the force of the Bolshevik drive and, if evacuation became necessary, to cover the Allied line of retreat. The Bolsheviks, advancing in overwhelming numbers on April 9th, seized the Perkop Isthmus connecting European Russia with the Crimea, forcing the evacuation of Odessa. The garrison at once fell back to the banks of the Dniester River. With the capture of Odessa the Bolsheviks came into possession of immense resources of grain, coal and minerals.

### Bolsheviks Desert to the Ukrainians

Meanwhile, Gen. Petlura's Ukrainian army had been rapidly advancing to the relief of Odessa. At Homel, on the Pripet River, 150 miles east of Kiev, a division of the Bolshevik First Army, numbering 30,000 men and commanded by Gen. Grigoriev, deserted en masse to the Ukrainian cause, turning upon their comrades. This revolted force on April 23d recaptured Kiev. The liberation of Ekaterinoslav, Poltava and Odessa followed, in quick succession. In a counter offensive, the Bolsheviks reoccupied Odessa for a short time, but they were again expelled on June 28th, by Grigoriev's revolted troops. Grigoriev afterward seized Kherson and Nikolaiev, important ports on the Black Sea, and then marched northward to effect a junction with the Ukrainian forces of Gen. Petlura, whose front had advanced within 20 miles of Kiev.

### Gen. Denekine Annihilates Four Bolshevik Armies

Gen. Denekine's Cossacks, arrayed in British uniforms and reinforced by numerous British tanks, had swept through the Don and Donetz provinces, expelling the Soviet army from Kharkov and advancing on Kurst, 250 miles south of Moscow. Two days later Denekine's victorious army occupied Tsaritsin on the Volga, where 11,000 prisoners were bagged. In three weeks, Denekine had cleared the Don and Donetz region of the enemy, had dispersed and almost annihilated four Red Armies, had captured 22,000 prisoners, 150 guns, four armored trains and an immense amount of booty. The Bolshevik soldiers are said to have fled, terror-stricken, at sight of the British tanks, which their imaginations conceived as "some form of prehistoric monster come to life again."

Denekine's successes were largely due to the great assistance extended to him by the British government. His supplies from the British included guns, clothing, airplanes and tanks to the value of \$58,000,000. At the base established in Ekaterinodar, hundreds of British officers, mostly specialists, tutored Denekine's troops in the use of the airplanes and tanks.

After his sweeping victories in June and July, Gen. Denekine consolidated his front, which now extended from the Volga to the Dniester and perfected the organization of his army.

### Bolshevik Atrocities in the Ukraine

During the occupation of Ukraina, the Bolsheviks had subjected many loyalists to torture; the extent of these tortures was disclosed by the exhumation of bodies of the victims. Women were found with breasts cut off; some had been partially skinned alive; others had nails driven beneath their finger nails; many had their teeth torn or knocked out; hundreds were compelled to dig their own graves before being shot; many were thrown into sewers where they slowly drowned; in some cases the victims were buried alive; many bodies were found piled up in cellars.

### Fighting on a 1,200 Mile Front

Gen. Denekine's reorganized army, advancing in July on a front 1,200 miles long, swept the Bolshevik hordes before them on all sides. In pursuit of the Tenth Bolshevik army, northward along the Volga, Denekine's Cossacks captured the junction of Balashev with great booty. A few days later Astrakhan was evacuated by the Reds who fled southward in barges equipped with naval guns hoping to reach Daghestan on the Caspian Sea and form an insurrection in the rear of Denekine's Army. On the left bank of the Volga, the Kuban Cossacks were firmly established opposite Tsaritsin, while the Ural Cossacks were advancing in the direction of Saratov.

The important city of Kamyshin, on the Volga River, was captured on July 31st, with 5,000 prisoners, nine guns and large quantities of war material. This capture threatened the Bolshevik communications with Astrakhan. The Bolsheviks, who had regained Odessa, were again expelled on August 8th, and three days later the Black Sea port of Ochakov was occupied.

Continuing their drive northward Denekine's army captured Kherson and Nikolaiev, 650 miles from their base, and marched on Kiev. All the important railway centers east of Kiev, as far as the Volga, were now in his hands while along the Volga one column of his army was moving toward Saratov. With this great stretch of territory restored, Denekine now held the sources of the chief coal and oil supplies.

Gen. Petlura's advance had also been phenomenal. The whole of Poddia, large parts of Volhynia and the district of Kiev had all been recovered and the Ukrainian armies were approaching the Dnieper River along the entire line. Everywhere the peasantry were rising in support of the anti-Bolshevik armies.

### Bolsheviks Capture Kamyshin but Lose Kiev

Gen. Denekine met with his first serious reverse on August 26th, when his forces were driven out of Kamyshin by the Bolsheviks who then pushed forward toward Tsaritsin, 100 miles further south on the Volga. The joy of the Reds was destined to be short-lived, for two days later a Cossack force under Gen. Kamentov penetrated their front, taking 13,000 prisoners and receiving a Red regiment which had deserted to the Cossacks.

Gen. Denekine's cavalry and armored trains were meanwhile leading an advance to the northeast. On



September 4, after two days of heavy fighting, this force recaptured Kiev, which gave the Ukrainians a base from which operations could be made against Moscow and also freed the 600 mile road extending from Lemberg to Kharkov. Denekine's authority now extended not only over the Cossack region but over a wide stretch of territory between the Volga and the Dnieper Rivers. He commanded the Black Sea coast between Georgia and Bessarabia and the important cities of Odessa, Kiev and Kharkov.

#### **Bolshevists Crushing Defeated by Denekine's Army**

The Bolshevik military strategists, in September, planned to isolate all three of Gen. Denekine's armies on his far flung battle-line by attacks in force at the two points of junction of the three armies. Once separated, these armies might be destroyed in detail. At the point of junction of the Don Cossack army, holding the center of the line, and the Volunteer Russian army forming the west wing, they hoped to drive a wedge. Similarly on the east, where Gen. Wrangel's small Caucasian Army joined with the Don Army of the center, another wedge would be driven in. Through the gap in the west, the Red army intended to push forward to the Sea of Azov, and through the eastern gap they thought to make their way down the Volga River to the Caspian Sea.

In attempting to carry out their strategic plan, the Reds were "hoist by their own petard." Their drive on the western flank resulted, not in the penetration of the Ukrainian line but in the creation of a wedge-shaped salient in which they found themselves imprisoned. Gen. Shkuko, with his Kuban Cossack cavalry, attacked them in the rear and thousands surrendered or deserted. The remnant of the Red army, fleeing northward in disorder, were pursued by Gen. Mamontov's Cossacks, who took 13,000 prisoners, liberated 20,000 Bolshevik conscripts and seized several important towns in rear of the Bolshevik armies. Mamontov's pursuit of the Reds carried him 150 miles westward of Tambov and caused the precipitate retreat of a portion of the Soviet forces, opening the way for the advance on Jursk of other Ukrainian divisions.

On the east wing of the Ukrainian front, Gen. Wrangel also had inflicted a smashing defeat on the Bolshevik forces when they attempted to penetrate his line at Tsaritsin. In a series of battles he had beaten back the attacking columns, taking 9,000 prisoners.

Gen. Denekine's army in the center had been equally successful in repulsing the Bolshevik forces. His troops had captured Voronezh and Gafskia, taking 15,000 prisoners, while his cavalry was advancing on Usman, 40 miles to the north. Steadily advancing, Gen. Denekin's troops captured Kursk, 290 miles southwest of Moscow, while Gen. Mamontov, further east, had advanced to within 175 miles of the Bolshevik capital. Moscow was at once placed in a state of siege and the Bolshevik government by proclamation called upon the people to rally to the defense of the capital.

In October, further victories were won by Gen. Denekine's forces. Kiev, Tchernigov and Orel were captured after many days of fierce fighting in which several Red divisions were defeated. Thousands of prisoners and enormous quantities of booty were taken. The liberated people of Orel welcomed the

troops, falling on their knees and calling out, "Christ is risen!"

#### **Petlura's Peasants and Denekine's Cossacks at War**

In Western Ukraina, too, the Bolsheviks met with defeat. Ejected from Kiev, about September 15th, their forces retreated hastily to the northeast to avoid being cut off by the Poles who were advancing on Gometel. Other Bolshevik divisions were retreating northward from Odessa. The Ukrainian Volunteer army held Kiev. Co-operating with them, to the west of Kiev, was a force of Galician Ukrainians under command of the Austrian General Krause. This Galician force had been defeated some weeks before by the Poles and had subsequently withdrawn into Russia and joined the army of Gen. Petlura.

The relations between Petlura's Peasant Army and Gen. Denekine's Cossack Army were now seriously strained. Petlura was bent upon establishing an independent Ukrainian state in Russia, while Gen. Denekine had resolutely opposed the principle of regional autonomy, "in the name of united and undivided Russia." Consequently the attitude of the Ukrainians toward Gen. Denekine had been one of hostility.

This political rupture finally bore fruit in open warfare. Gen. Petlura on October 1st, declared war against Denekine's Cossacks, and the forces came at once into violent collision. Petlura's Volunteers, at the same time were fighting the Roumanians and the Poles to prevent the recovery of those nations of large provinces taken from them by the Germans and given to Ukraina by the terms of the Brest-Litovsk Treaty, but restored to Roumania and Poland by the terms of the Armistice. These boundary disputes were being adjusted by military and economic missions, sent from Paris at the time of the new outbreak.

#### **Denekine's Concessions to Poland and Roumania**

Gen. Denekine, while in principle opposed to any division of Russian territory, nevertheless, for military reasons, had made an exception in the case of Poland and Finland. These nations, whose ancient lands had been restored to them in part by the terms of the Armistice, were making overtures for peace with the Bolsheviks. In order to head off this movement for a separate peace, Gen. Denekine, on October 9th, had unconditionally recognized the independence of Poland and Roumania. He assured them that the crushing of the Russian Soviet regime was certain and declared it would be most unwise for the Baltic states to conclude peace with the Bolsheviks at this time.

#### **New Bolshevik Offensive Begins**

All the strength of the Bolshevik government was exerted in October to prevent the further advance of Gen. Denekine's widespread armies on their capital at Moscow. Several distinguished generals of the old regime had entered the Soviet service, their wives and children being held as hostages to insure their loyalty. Under direction of these leaders, a new Bolshevik offensive was begun. With an army exceeding a million men, directed by able strategists and tacticians, the Bolsheviks violently assailed Denekine along his entire 1,200 mile front.

In Denekine's rear, whole populations of Ukrainian peasants, who resented his declaration against



Ukrainian independence, harassed his armies. Petlura's Peasant Army, which consisted mostly of scattered guerilla units, had meantime been supplied with money and munitions by the German Socialist government in order to wage war on Denekine. In addition to these handicaps, Denekine was opposed by various Ukrainian bands which had been operating behind his lines, holding up trains and robbing straggling soldiers. Of these bands the most formidable were those of Gen. Makhno in the province of Ekaterinoslav, and of Gen. Shube, operating in the region between Kiev and Poltava. The inhabitants of the Kuban district also gave Denekine considerable trouble.

In a general attack on Denekine's line, in mid-October, the reorganized Bolshevik Army captured the important towns of Orel and Voronezh. Kiev was also temporarily occupied, but the city was recovered by Denekine on October 27th. General Wrangel meantime had defended Tsaritsin against desperate attacks and driven the Bolsheviks northward toward Kamyslin. This victory, together with a northern drive of the Don Cossacks, had removed the Bolshevik menace to Denekine's eastern flank and assisted his operations in the center.

Gen. Denekine's Central Army recaptured Orel on October 30th and resumed its march on Moscow. Assembling in large force, the Reds were exerting pressure on both sides of the Orel salient in an attempt to stay this advance. Nevertheless, an entire Soviet division was captured by Denekine's army and several towns were occupied. About this time, large bodies of Petlura's Peasant troops and Makhno's bands

joined the Red Army. Petlura's revolted troops captured several towns along the Dnieper, southeast of Kiev, while Makhno's forces captured Alexandrovsk and were besieging Elizabetgrad.

On November 4th, Denekine concluded an armistice with Gen. Petlura, agreeing to evacuate the Ukraine, but after a lull of a few days the battle was renewed. An insurgent army, operating in Denekine's rear, captured a number of towns on the eastern coast of the Black Sea.

#### Denekine's Army in Retreat

The Bolsheviks in November concentrated their forces in a final attempt to break Gen. Denekine's line. The operation proved successful. A powerful concentration of Bolshevik cavalry, under Gen. Budenny, broke through Denekine's center on a front of nearly 50 miles, compelling a general retirement. As the Cossacks fell back through the blinding snow storms of a Russian winter they fought heroically, dealing the Bolsheviks many a staggering blow. Indeed, in one sector of the front, between Orel and Tambov, Denekine's troops gained an important victory over an army of 50,000 Reds.

Lacking food and ammunition, and with their communications all but destroyed by marauding bands, Denekine's Cossacks continued their retreat southward. In close pursuit, the Reds during December captured Kharkov, Poltava, Kiev and other important towns, and as the year 1919 came to a close they were virtual masters of European Russia, having in succession defeated their enemies on the Northern front, in Ukraina, Caucasia and Siberia.

RUSSIA, JAN. — SEPT.

## The Bolshevik Reign of Terror in Kiev, Capital of the Ukraine

City of 200,000 People Coerced for 10 Months  
4,000 Citizens Cruelly Slaughtered

SECTION 18 — 1919

THE blackest chapter in Bolshevik history is associated with the reign of terror inaugurated in Kiev, the capital of the Ukraine, after its capture and occupation by the Red forces in January, 1919. For 200 days this city of 200,000 people was held in terrified subjection by an army of 5,000 merciless soldiers dominated by 200 Bolsheviks, all of them aliens. In this awful period 4,000 innocent Ukrainians were slain.

There were but few Russians among the Red Guards; that murderous band comprised Chinese cutthroats, Letts, Finns, "internationalized" Jews, Roumanians and Germans. In the higher leadership of Bolshevism there was but one Russian, Lenine. Almost all the other leaders were Jews of various nationalities. The leaders of this murderous band were Rokowsky, a Bulgarian Jew, naturalized as a Roumanian; Latsis, a Lettish Jew, and other Jews from Russia, Germany and America. Reputable physicians have testified that these Bolshevik leaders, without exception were afflicted with loathsome diseases and addicted to the use of drugs, opiates and alcohol. These fiends, on gaining control of the city, seized all the food supplies arrested and tortured all the leading citizens regardless of sex or age, and

converted Kiev into a vast charnel house. Massacres and assassinations were of daily occurrence. Horrors became commonplace. Not content with the murder of innocent Christians, these Jewish Socialist monsters resorted to torture, in which they availed themselves of the practiced hands of the Chinese and the Letts.

It lay in the power of the 30,000 workmen of Kiev to annihilate the Bolshevik invaders, but they permitted themselves to be duped by the promise of easier hours of work and increased pay. Lulled into a sense of security by the false promises of the Socialist and Bolshevik leaders, the cowardly workmen in the beginning held a noncommittal and neutral attitude. Without protest they permitted the 5,000 Chinese and Lettish troops to disarm the bulk of the Christian population, seize the reins of government, overthrow the courts and murder the respectable citizens. Too late they realized their fatal mistake, when the factories closed, food rose to impossible prices and starvation stared them in the face. Even then the workmen, had they not been craven hearted, might easily have torn the Bolshevik throats to pieces, but they lacked the courage



and permitted themselves to be coerced and terrorized by their merciless masters.

The Bolshevik assassins held their "sittings" in two houses. At night they would send forth their Chinese and Lettish mercenaries to drag their victims from bed and bring them before Latsis for "examination." The trial of these suspects was of course a farce. The members of the Bolshevik tribunal always under the influence of vodka, morphine and cocaine, sat before a cage with wooden bars reaching the ceiling. The prisoners were marched through the cage, first to be reviled and then sen-

tenced to death. Among the victims of these merciless Reds was Dr. Florinsky, one of the most celebrated scholars in Europe, who was shot by Rosa Schwartz, a Kiev prostitute and lieutenant of Latsis; Sister Martinova, a gentle nun, who was violated and her breasts cut off before she was killed; a priest who was crucified and a lady of 60 who was tortured to death.

The Bolshevik terror in Kiev ended early in September, 1919, with the recapture of the Ukraine capital by Gen. Denekine's army.

SIBERIA, JAN. — DEC.

## Siberia a House Divided Against Itself

Treachery of Reactionary Generals—Plottings of Royalists and Japanese

SECTION 19—1919

**S**IBERIA, that vast hinterland of Russia, into which all of Europe might snugly be deposited, was the tremendous stage on which was fought, in 1919, the first effective Battle against Bolshevism.

Though greater in extent and richer in natural resources perhaps than any other country on the face of the globe, Siberia still is sparsely settled, its pre-War population not exceeding 9,000,000. For the most part the Siberians are a sturdy peasant race, who for centuries have tilled the rich soil to the very great profit of their harsh and rapacious landlords, but to their own impoverishment. Apart from the agrarian population, there were perhaps 1,000,000 artisans and tradesmen employed in the several industrial cities which have sprung up along the lines of the Siberian Railway System from Moscow eastward 6,000 miles to Vladivostok on the Pacific coast. The whole life of Siberia was, in fact, conditioned upon the transportation system, being disposed throughout the railroad zone and along the river courses in the south.

A long oppressed people, the Siberians naturally rejoiced when the tyrannous government of the Czar was overthrown. Ardently they had pledged their allegiance to the moderate Socialist government of Kerensky, which supplanted Czarism in Russia. Their joy was complete when the Provisional Government promised to put them in possession of the land which they had so laboriously tilled for the benefit of their cruel masters. Still, when Kerensky instructed them to seize the great estates and hold them as their very own possession, the timid peasants had shrunk from taking so revolutionary a step. So, during the life of the Kerensky regime, the land for the most part was in possession of the tyrannous landlords,

### Red Guards Release German War Prisoners

With the downfall of Kerensky and the ascendancy of Bolshevism, the situation underwent a sudden transformation. An army of Red Guards swept into Siberia, bringing with them great quantities of arms and ammunition. Their first care was to open the gates of all the war-prisons and release some 300,000 German, Austrian and Magyar prisoners of war, giving them the option of joining the ranks of the militant Bolsheviks or of facing starvation. Naturally, the war prisoners chose to fight and eat in the ranks of the Bolsheviks. This augmented Red Army found

but little difficulty in overawing the unarmed Siberian peasants. Next they seized a section of the Siberian Railway and nearly all the cities and towns adjacent thereto. They overthrew the town and rural councils, in which the peasants had conducted their local affairs, and set up in their stead the Soviet form of government. Subsequently, they seized the larger landed estates and cut them up into small farms which were apportioned among the peasants. But they could not induce any considerable numbers of peasants to accept the detestable tenets of Bolshevism. The political ideals of the peasants and of the artisans as well inclined toward a moderate form of Socialism, with its guarantees of universal suffrage, rather than toward the masked tyranny of Bolshevism, with its government of dictatorship by a godless minority.

### Refugees Plotted Restoration of Czarism

Into Siberia there had also poured a million or more royalist refugees from European Russia, including 50,000 officers of the Czar's Armies, many survivors of the nobility, professional men, wealthy merchants, bankers, and other well-to-do people. These refugees, aristocrats and reactionaries at heart, held Bolsheviks and Democrats in equal disdain. They began at once to plot the overthrow alike of Bolshevism and the Revolution, hoping for the restoration of the monarchy and the re-enslavement of the peasants. To these marplots may be attributed the fatal spirit of disunity which prevailed throughout Siberia leading up to the failure of the many diverse political elements to unite in a compact government which the Allies might have openly recognized. These refugees for the most part settled in Central, Southern and Eastern Siberia, where they gave their support to military bandits of the Villa type, who attempted from time to time to set up so-called governments that were nothing but military dictatorships.

### Coercion of Peasants by Bandit Generals

The liberation of Siberia had been nearly accomplished by the Czecho-Slovak Army in 1918. Without much difficulty the Czechs had freed the greater part of the Trans-Siberian railroad and the towns along the Volga. After expelling the Bolsheviks and the German war prisoners from the towns, the



Czechs had encouraged the Siberians to set up local governments to their own liking. Throughout Western and Central Siberia a spirit of Liberalism prevailed, the town councils being elected on the basis of the universal suffrage law as laid down by Kerensky's government. Farther East, on the other hand, the power of government had been seized by reactionary rulers of the bandit military type, all sworn foes of popular liberty and pledged to restore monarchy in Russia. These military tyrants attempted to coerce the Siberians into joining their armies, but with indifferent success. The peasants, though holding the tenets of Bolshevism in utter detestation, still had a greater abhorrence for Czardom, and rather than see the fruits of their Revolution destroyed, they consented to place themselves temporarily under the Bolshevik yoke. Upon their refusal to be conscripted into the various reactionary armies, the peasants were either flogged or shot. For every peasant coerced into joining these armies, two other peasants were put to death upon their refusal to serve. Naturally these unwilling soldiers embraced the first opportunity afforded them to desert to the Bolsheviks.

### Siberia, a House Divided Against Itself

Siberia, therefore, was a House Divided Against Itself, and in accordance with the inexorable law, its fall was inevitable. Some progress, it is true, had been made toward unity, as when Admiral Kolchak was named dictator of the government whose capital was Omsk. He subsequently gained the lukewarm support of Gen. Denekine, the Cossack leader in the Ukraine and of Gen. Horvath, the head of the Harbin government. Several bandit generals also promised him their support, but in the event they proved a detriment rather than a help to the cause of Siberian freedom. These factions were forever beseeching the Allied War Council to accord them recognition and financial aid, but it was contrary to the Allied policy to give recognition to any one faction in Siberia. If the Russian people as a whole, apart from the Bolsheviks, should form a strong central government, then and not till then would aid be forthcoming.

The United States and Japanese Governments did, in a small way, send troops into Siberia, but rather to protect the Czechs from attack and to police the Siberian Railway, than to interfere in the internal affairs of Russia.

### French Capital Builds Railroad

The great Siberian Railway system was the objective of every military campaign, since whoever controlled the railroads might govern Siberia. There are three main divisions in the Russian Railroad system:

(1) The Trans-Siberian, in its easterly course, crosses the Ural Mountains at Chelyabinsk, passes through Omsk, Novo-Nikolaiev, Karasnoyarsk, Irkutsk, skirts Lake Baikal and terminates at Chita, close to the Manchurian frontier. From that city two branches continue to the sea at Vladivostok.

(2) A short branch line from Chita strikes the Chinese frontier at Manchuria Station and connects with the Chinese Eastern Railroad, which traverses Northern Manchuria through Harbin and strikes the Russian frontier again at Podgranitz, a few hours from

Vladivostok. This is the short route followed by the express.

(3) A second branch makes a great loop from Chita northward along the Siberian side of the River Amur, through Blagovojensk to Khabarovsk, and then due south to Vladivostok. This branch is essentially a military railroad. Though longer than the direct Chinese Eastern, it has the advantage of lying entirely within Russian territory.

Of these three systems, the main Trans-Siberian and the Amur loop line were built and owned by the Russian Government. The Chinese Eastern Railroad was financed by the Russo-Asiatic Bank, which in turn is owned by French investors. The concession to cross Manchuria was secured by the Russian Government, and the treaty granting this concession awarded to Russia a wide zone all the way across Manchuria. China retained the technical sovereignty of this zone, but the real government of the zone devolved upon the Russian Empire, with the French bankers in the background.

### Gen. Horvath, the "Little Czar"

The Russian governor of the zone and the general manager of the Chinese Eastern Railroad were one and the same person—Lieut.-Gen. Horvath. Within the zone he was an autocrat. He appointed his own judges; he commanded the Russian troops stationed there; he had a private army, recruited from Chinese mercenaries under the name of police, he was responsible only to the French directors of the Russo-Asiatic Bank. As long as he satisfied the French investors by dividends, howsoever they might be acquired, he was in everything but name independent of the Czar.

Japan all along had coveted possession of the Chinese Eastern Railroad. Her own South Manchurian Railway in fact connects up with the Chinese Eastern Railway at Chang Chun. In her victorious wars against China and Russia, Japan had given her control of Korea and Port Arthur. Her jingoes have ever since declared that Japan needed the Chinese Eastern in order to "round out her manifest destiny."

### Manchurian Railroad Was "Milked"

France, naturally, wished to retain the concession for the benefit of the French investor. While Russia, China and Japan have regarded the Chinese Eastern Railroad as a political pawn, the French investors considered the railway a financial speculation.

In view of the intrigues which centered about the Chinese Eastern Railroad, our Department of State some years ago proposed the "neutralization" of the Manchurian Railroads. But this proposal was rejected by all the parties concerned. Neither France, nor any of the Eastern Powers, desired that the railroad should be opened on a basis of equal opportunity to all, for such an arrangement might not only jeopardize the monopolistic power which the French bankers enjoyed, but would checkmate the political aspirations of the Far Eastern Powers and ruin the road financially. Recollect that the Chinese Eastern was built at great expense and the receipts from freight and passenger traffic have not begun to meet the interest charges on the capital. Its main receipts up to the beginning of the World War had come from the monopolistic power it enjoyed. Having perfect freedom in the matter of discriminatory



and extortionate rates, the owners of the railroad concession were enabled to tax and "milk" every industry—mines, lumber, agriculture—along its route. It was these subsidiary and perhaps illicit profits which made the concession valuable, though the "legitimate earnings" did not support the railroad. So the politics of Siberia for many years have been influenced by the diplomacy centering in control of the Chinese Eastern Railroad.

### Harbin the Center of Intrigue

Gen. Horvath, with the aid of Chinese mercenary troops, for many years had ruled as a lesser czar in the zone of the Chinese Eastern Railroad, with Harbin as his capital. After the Russian Revolution of 1917, and the dissolution of the Empire, many of the old Russian nobility and former officers of the Czar's army had flocked to Harbin and there had plotted for the restoration of the Old Regime in Russia. Governor-General Horvath became their protector and the hope of the extreme reactionary party. It was from Harbin that most of the appeals issued for "Armed Intervention" on the part of the Allies. The intriguants at Harbin made no distinction between the legitimate aspirations for freedom of the great masses of the people of Russia and the destructive operations of the Bolsheviks. They were for hanging en masse all the ambitious peasants and working men in Russia—or reducing them to the condition of serfs.

### Horvath Goes to Vladivostok to Be "Crowned"

After the Allies had sent troops into Siberia, and the Czecho-Slovaks had succeeded in expelling the Bolsheviks out of Vladivostok, General Horvath proclaimed himself supreme ruler of the Far East and started with a motley army to crown himself as "Emperor of the East" in the Cathedral at Vladivostok. The Allied Powers, however, gave Horvath no encouragement in his Imperial designs. Instead, they disarmed his army, and gave their support to the local officials who had set up a regional government for Vladivostok and vicinity. It is said that the Japanese encouraged Horvath in his pretensions to supreme authority in Eastern Siberia as a reward for certain exclusive "concessions" he had promised to grant them in Manchuria and elsewhere in Siberia. These concessions included full fishing rights on Siberian coasts and waters for the subjects of Japan; the opening of the Amur to Japanese navigation; and exclusive privileges to exploit Siberian mines, forests and lands.

### Secret Treaties with Japan?

In addition to these concessions, Japan is said to have presented to the Allies a group of proposals concerning Manchuria and Mongolia, confirmatory of the concessions wrung from China in 1915. She demanded an extension of all leaseholds of territory and railroad rights extending over a period of 99 years, and a relinquishment by China of rights previously possessed to repurchase these properties from the actual possessor. She demanded the rights of leasing land, of residence, travel, opening of mines, as well as priority over other nations in any financing or building of railways. Japan also demanded that

the Chinese Government cede for the period of 99 years the control and management of the Kirin Chang Chun Railway.

These confirmatory agreements are believed to have been reached by the media of secret treaties with Great Britain and France in 1915 and with Russia in 1916. Japan's position was still further strengthened by the Ishli-Lansing agreement of 1917. Up to the time of this writing, the United States Government had not consented to disclose the considerations which influenced the four Great Powers in granting these concessions to Japan at China's expense.

### Japan Aids the Military Dictators

Japan had insisted, as a condition of her co-operation in the Siberian adventure, that her troops should not be required to advance east of Lake Baikal. She preferred to aid Horvath and the several military dictators who had held sway in Eastern Siberia, rather than assist Admiral Kolchak's All-Russian Government at Omsk in Central Siberia. In event of the disintegration of Siberia, she would, by virtue of her alliance with these generals, be in a position to seize the whole of Manchuria and Mongolia, together with sections of Eastern Siberia, as her share of the spoils of war. In express violation of her agreement with the United States Government, Japan had put an army of 72,000 soldiers in the field instead of the 10,000 troops agreed upon. As a result of her duplicity, Japan was thenceforward an object of suspicion on the part of the Allied nations, and she was finally ordered to recall the greater part of her troops.

Of the three military dictators in the East, the ablest by far was Gen. Ivanoff-Rinoff, a fighting general of marked ability and dash, but reactionary to the core and an inveterate intriguer as well. For a time he was associated with Kolchak's Government at Omsk, but his Imperial views having brought him into disfavor, he was sent into Eastern Siberia as supreme military commander. All forms of democracy were alike abhorrent to this despot, and had he remained in Central Siberia civil war might have resulted. As commander in the East, he forfeited the allegiance of the Siberian peasants by his enforcement of harsh and brutal discipline.

Further west, in the territory about Chita, the Cossack Gen. Semenoff, was supreme. His regime is described as "an orgy of banditism." Having no other sources of revenue for the support of his army, this bandit filled his war chest with the loot of train robberies and of pillaged towns. He is charged by American observers with having committed "unspeakable atrocities" against the peasants of Siberia who were aiding him in the battle against Bolshevism.

Associated with Semenoff was another bandit, Gen. Kalmikoff, whose favorite pastime was the knouting or shooting of the peasants whom he had conscripted into his army.

It was upon such discordant elements that Kolchak and Denekine depended in their heroic battle against the Bolsheviks, which resulted in complete disaster.



VERSAILLES, FRANCE, JUNE

## China Refuses to Sign the German Peace Treaty at Versailles

### Demands the Nullification of the Previous Treaty Forced Upon Her by Japan

SECTION 20—1919

**A**FTER pleading in vain for the restoration of the Shantung Peninsula in full sovereignty to China, and upon official notification that the politicians at Paris had concluded their shameful pact, which left Japan in possession of the rich Chinese province which she had wrested from Germany, the Chinese delegates dignifiedly withdrew from the Peace Conference and refused to sign the German Peace Treaty.

Article 156 of that Treaty reveals the extent of the betrayal of China by the politicians at Paris. Germany was required to renounce, in favor of Japan, all her "rights, titles and privileges" which she "acquired" in Kiao-Chau and Shantung in 1898, when she overawed the Chinese with her bayonets.

Foreseeing that the civilized world would not condone this colossal crime against one of the Associated nations, the Japanese Government promised in the indeterminate future to restore to China her political rights in Shantung, while retaining indefinitely all economic privileges which Germany by coercion had obtained from China in 1898.

These privileges comprised control of the great railroad extending through the Shantung Peninsula, the mines connected therewith, two other railways soon to be built, a settlement at Tsing-tao and control of the German submarine cables from Tsing-tao to both Shanghai and Chefoo. Thus Japan was given all the concessions needed for the perfect exploitation of Shantung and its thirty millions of Chinese inhabitants.

In attempting to justify this spoliation of a friendly nation, the English and French politicians, who had already entered into secret compacts for the division of Africa and the Near East between themselves, pretended that "their hands were tied", both by the secret agreement with England under which Japan had entered the War and by the treaty which Japan had extorted from China in 1915 under duress.

The Chinese statesmen dignifiedly entered their protest against the injustice of the Shantung concession. China, they said, had entered the Peace Conference in expectation that the principles enunciated by President Wilson in his 14 "points" would be adhered to. Above all, she had relied on the justice and equity of her case. The declaration of war by China against Germany and Austria-Hungary on August 14, 1917, expressly abrogated all treaties, agreements and conventions between China

and those powers, a fact of which the Allied nations had taken official cognizance. By this declaration, the rights and privileges formerly enjoyed by Germany in the province of Shantung became null and void, and China, as the sovereign power in that province, became automatically revested of them. The transfer of these rights to Japan could not be defended on any legal or moral grounds. Moreover, the 1915 "agreements" with Japan, and the further concessions of 1918, all having been given under duress, had no standing in law. Japan, when scheming for the cession of Shantung, had promised, in the nebulous future, to restore the peninsula to China. If her intention was to return the stolen goods, why should the politicians at Paris have awarded her Shantung at all? Why had not the initial transfer been made to China? These questions remained unanswered.

The Chinese delegates further rehearsed a long series of usurpations by Japan. Nearly every foot of territory gained by Japan has been acquired from China. In 1870, she took Loochow Island from China; in 1895, she seized Formosa and Pescadores; in 1905, she "leased" Kwantung Peninsula from China; in 1910, she "annexed" Korea, and now, under the terms of a concession extorted by the bayonet in 1915, and with the connivance of the Peace Conference politicians at Paris, Japan is enabled to keep Tsing-tao as an exclusive concession; also the port of Kiao-Chau and the Province of Shantung, which is densely settled with 40,000,000 Chinese, in utter disregard of the principle of self-determination of all civilized nations enunciated by President Wilson.

China, therefore, demanded the nullification of the Chino-Japanese treaties of 1915 on three grounds: First, because they were made under duress; second, because they tend to destroy the independence of China; and third, because they cannot be enforced without menacing the peace of the world.

Nullification being refused, the Chinese delegates refused to sign the German Peace Treaty, under the terms of which the betrayal of China's sovereignty had been perpetrated. Since refusal to sign the Treaty excluded her from the League of Nations, and from the enjoyment as well of certain rights of redress under that covenant, China sought to obtain membership in the League of Nations by signing the Austrian Peace Treaty, which contained none of the objectionable clauses in question.



CANADA, APR.—JUNE

## Canadian Government Investigates Causes of Labor Unrest

### Practical Suggestions In Report for Settlement of All Labor Disputes

SECTION 21—1919

A Royal Commission was appointed by the Canadian Government on April 9, 1919, to investigate the causes of labor unrest in Canada and suggest measures to insure permanent relief. After holding 70 sessions in all the industrial centers from coast to coast, and examining 486 witnesses, the Royal Commission reported that the chief causes of unrest are these ten: (1) Unemployment and the fear of unemployment; (2) high cost of living in relation to wages and the desire of the worker for a larger share of the product in his labor; (3) desire for shorter hours of labor; (4) denial of the right to organize and refusal to recognize labor unions; (5) denial of collective bargaining; (6) lack of confidence in constituted government; (7) insufficient and poor housing; (8) restrictions upon the freedom of press and speech; (9) ostentatious display of wealth; (10) lack of equal educational opportunities.

The Commission found much unemployment in the cities, and a scarcity of labor on the farms, especially in the three prairie provinces, Alberta, Saskatchewan and Manitoba. The chief reasons assigned by the unemployed men in cities for refusing farm employment were these: Objectionable conditions of life on the farm, its isolation, the hard and long hours of labor, the seasonal nature of employment, and insufficiency of wages paid during the few months of employment to tide the farm laborer over the unemployed season or to maintain his family in the city. Among the causes assigned for unemployment of white Canadians were: The large number of cheaply paid Orientals employed in the lumber industry in British Columbia and the curtailment of production in some industries because of the lack of ocean tonnage. As a means of providing immediate employment for thousands, it was suggested that the various governments undertake the prosecution of useful public works.

By many the real cause underlying labor unrest was held to be the high cost of living. In cases where nominal wages were advanced from time to time, the cost of the commodities advanced higher, so that the increase in wages had been neutralized. The belief was widespread that the high cost of living was due to profiteering in the necessities of life and that the chief instrument of profiteering was the cold storage plant.

The Royal Commission was strongly of the opinion that the high cost of living is closely allied with a desire by the worker for a larger share of the product of his toil.

The Commission believed that labor should no longer be regarded as a commodity, to be bought and sold in the open market, but that greater recognition should be given to human rights and human aspirations, and that chief consideration in industry should be the health, happiness and prosperity of the workers with service to the community.

The Commission was strongly of the opinion that, without any extraordinary upheaval, policies may be

adopted which will insure the workman against want during temporary periods of enforced idleness brought about by unemployment, sickness or invalidity and during old age. Legislation is recommended to provide for the fixing of a minimum wage, a maximum work day of eight hours and a weekly rest of not less than 24 hours.

The Commission further recommended an immediate inquiry by expert boards into the following subjects, with a view to early legislation: State insurance against unemployment, sickness, invalidity and old age; proportional representation in all branches of government, whether Federal, Provincial or Municipal; official recognition of the unions and the right to organize; the payment of a living wage; recognition of the principle of collective bargaining; the extension of equal opportunities in education; the taking of immediate steps toward the establishment of Joint Plant and Industrial Councils; the putting in effect of the findings of the Commission in all work controlled by the Government where the principles of democratic management can be applied.

Employees generally had coupled their approval of the 44-hour week, with statements of certain difficulties, such as the necessity for the utilization of all possible daylight where industry must be carried on during a limited season; the disadvantage of an establishment working shorter hours in competition with another establishment in the same industry working longer hours. The shorter day is most needed in industries that are fatiguing or where labor is employed under trying conditions. The number of hours should not, however, be fixed by the ability to work without undue fatigue, but should be based scientifically on the demands of the industry.

Holding that the day has passed when any employer should deny his employees the right to organize, the Commission finds that when all the establishments in one line of industry are so organized, it results in advantages for all from the point of view of competition, equal hours, equal wages and other conditions affecting costs of production.

The belief was entertained that the Canadian Governments, both Federal and Provincial, were largely controlled by the financial interests. The remedy suggested was "better representation in Parliament through a system of proportional representation for group constituencies such as has been in operation for several years in Belgium and Sweden."

The scarcity of dwellings, poor sanitary conditions, insufficient rooms and the high price of land and building material—all these factors have made it impossible for the worker to provide himself with a home, causing much unrest.

Greater co-operation between the employer and the employee is urged. The one great obstacle to such co-operation is the mutual distrust existing between them. As a means of eliminating this suspicion and distrust, and of securing a permanent improvement in industrial relations, the Commission



recommends that employers invite their employees to co-operate with them in formulating a plan of Joint Industrial Councils along the lines of Councils now in use in England, Canada, Australia and the United States, such as the Whitley, Colorado and Leitch Plans. These Councils are not intended to

supplant labor unions, and no impediment should be placed in the way of the workers forming or joining any union if they choose to do so, nor will they constitute a panacea for all industrial troubles, but in practice they have aided in the amelioration of the conditions surrounding labor.

..... MEXICO. JUNE .....

## Mexico and United States at the Point of War

..... SECTION 22—1919 .....

**T**HE United States and Mexico were at the point of war in 1919, due to the failure of the Mexican Government to protect American citizens and American property on Mexican soil. Large sections of Mexico were left unguarded, with the result that organized bands of Mexican rebels roamed the land, seizing the cities, destroying American property and murdering American citizens. From their lairs in the border towns these bandits fired into American territory, endangering the lives of our citizens. The rebels were especially active in and about Juarez. In order to drive the rebels away and safeguard the lives of Americans, a troop of American cavalry in June, 1919, crossed the Mexican border and dispersed Gen. Villa's bandit forces, then operating against Juarez. The Carranza Government protested against the invasion, but the Mexican press and people applauded American action.

The use of arms and munitions of war procured from the United States having produced a state of domestic violence in Mexico, President Wilson on July 25th, issued a proclamation tightening the embargo which had been declared by Act of Congress in March, 1914.

The murder of Peter Catron, an American citizen, in San Luis Potosi, in June, drew from our government the warning that a continuance of these outrages might force the United States to adopt a radical change in its policy with regard to Mexico. President Carranza, in reply, taunted our government with seeking to enforce a surer security of human life in Mexico's depopulated regions than in the most populous cities of our own cultured country, referring, no doubt, to the heavy loss of life resulting from the recent race riots in Washington and Chicago. He further charged that the fatalities among foreigners in Mexico were due, not to the failure of the Mexican Government properly to pro-

tect them, but to their own rash eagerness for profit which led them to travel in dangerous regions.

A diplomatic crisis arose in August when two American Army aviators, Lieut. Paul H. Davis and Harold G. Peterson, were seized by Mexican bandits while patrolling the border near Candelaria, Tex., and threatened with death on failure to pay a \$15,000 ransom. The State Department demanded that the Mexican Government secure the release of these aviators quickly. The ransom was eventually paid and the prisoners released after a punitive expedition from America had invaded Mexican territory in unsuccessful pursuit of the bandits.

An even more serious crisis arose with the seizure by Mexican bandits of William O. Jenkins, United States Consular Agent at Puebla, Mexico, and their demand for ransom of \$150,000. Jenkins was finally released by the bandits after five responsible citizens had guaranteed the payment of the ransom. Jenkins was, however, at once arrested by Mexican authorities on charges by Puebla officials that he had conspired with bandits to "kidnap" him and hold him for ransom. The United States Government on November 20th demanded the immediate liberation of Mr. Jenkins, but the demand was refused, on the ground that the Mexican Government could not legally interfere with the trial of Jenkins, then in progress in the Mexican courts. Jenkins, meantime, had steadfastly refused to enter bail in the sum of \$500, and in this position he was supported by the State Department. Bail was entered in his behalf, however, by J. S. Hansen, and on December 4th, Jenkins was released from prison.

Our government thereupon announced an embargo on all arms and munitions of war intended to be sent into Mexico except under license of the Secretary of State.

..... VERSAILLES, FRANCE, JUNE .....

## German Peace Treaty Signed at Versailles by 26 Allied Powers

Germany Holds Back Until Brought To Her Senses by Threat of Invasion

Summary of Peace Terms Imposed Upon the Authors  
of the Devastating World War

..... SECTION 23—1919 .....

**O**N June 28, 1919, the fifth anniversary of the assassination at Serajevo of Crown Prince Francis Ferdinand of Austria, the World War came to a close with the signing of the Peace Treaty by 26 Allied and Associated Powers in the historic

palace at Versailles in France.

The Peace Terms had been delivered previously to Count Brockdorff-Rantzau, head of the German Peace Mission, on May 7th, and by him laid before the German Government at Spa. Since then, the



German Government had ceaselessly striven, but in vain, to induce the Council of Four to modify the terms on the ground of their undue stringency.

On May 29th, the German Government laid before the Council a set of counter-proposals, which were rejected, but some few concessions were made, including provision for a plebiscite in Upper Silesia and suggestions for a method of reparation for the devastated districts. At the same time, Germany was warned that this revised form of the Treaty contained the ultimate terms, and that Germany's failure to sign the document on June 23d, the day when the Armistice would expire, might lead to summary action.

Meanwhile the Allies had perfected their plans for the invasion of Germany in the event of Germany's refusal to sign. American, French and British forces were on tiptoes, awaiting the signal to cross the Rhine. Marshal Foch had drawn a circle of steel around Germany and she was to be cut off from all communication with the world and her territories invaded unless she yielded to the Allies' terms.

#### German People Insist on Peace

President Ebert and the Scheidemann Cabinet long persisted in their refusal to sign the Treaty, but their objections were finally overborne by the war-weary people of Germany.

The Scheidemann Cabinet thereupon resigned and a new Cabinet was formed, with Herr Bauer as Premier and Dr. Hermann Muller as Foreign Minister. The new government pleaded for an extension of time, but were curtly refused. Thereupon the German National Assembly, on June 23d, accepted unconditionally the Allied terms. When the capitulation became known in Paris, the big guns began to boom from all the forts around the French capital.

But when another day had passed and no German plenipotentiary had appeared at Versailles to sign the Treaty, the situation grew exceedingly tense. Finally the Socialist rulers of Germany sent word that Dr. Hermann Muller and Dr. Johannes Bell had been chosen as plenipotentiaries and were on their way to Versailles.

#### Final Scene in the Great Drama

The final scene in the great drama was enacted on June 28th in the magnificent Hall of Mirrors in the Palace at Versailles, the historic home of the French Kings. Enormous crowds had flocked thither. An endless stream of automobiles stretched from Paris to Versailles. By noon, eleven regiments of French cavalry and infantry had taken positions along the approaches to the Palace, while within the

court on either side solid lines of infantry in horizon blue were drawn up at attention.

The delegates and plenipotentiaries all arrived shortly after 2 o'clock. The Place d'Armes was then a lake of white faces. Overhead a dozen airplanes wheeled and curvetted. A torrent of cheering signaled the arrival of Marshal Foch. Thunders of applause greeted the arrival of President Wilson, Gen. Pershing, Premier Lloyd George and Premier Clemenceau.

Within the Hall of Mirrors, where the new German Empire had dictated terms of peace to stricken France in 1871, that Empire passed out of existence on this day of jubilation. Fronting the chair of Premier Clemenceau, there stood a small table, on which the diplomatic instruments were laid. The 400 or more invited guests were given places in the left wing of the Hall, and 400 press representatives occupied the right wing. The rectangular peace table was spread with tawny yellow coverings, which blended with the rich browns, blues and yellows of the antique hangings and rugs.

Three untoward incidents marked the ceremony of signing. At the eleventh hour, the German delegation entered their protest against the provision of separate admission to the League; Gen. Jans Smuts of the South African delegation, with all the vehemence of his Dutch nature, protested against the severity of the terms imposed upon Germany; and the Chinese delegates refused to attend in righteous protest against the concessions granted to Japan in Shantung.

#### Germans Sign the Treaty

With haughty mien, and heads held high, the German delegates took their seats at 3.07 p. m. Premier Clemenceau opened the ceremony, inviting the Germans to sign the Treaty. For a moment there was a tense pause; then, in response to Clemenceau's bidding, the German delegates moved forward to the signatory table, where they placed upon the Treaty the sign manuals which German leaders had declared over and over again would never be appended to the Treaty. They also signed a protocol, covering changes in the documents.

After the German delegates had regained their seats, President Wilson advanced to the table, being the first of the Allied delegates to sign. Lloyd George, Clemenceau and Baron Saijoni of Japan followed in turn. The conference was then declared closed. The German delegates filed out of the Hall, not a delegate arising to do them honor. They stole through the streets by a roundabout route to Noisy-le-Roi, where they boarded their train at 9 o'clock, being accompanied as far as Cologne by French and Italian officers.

## The German Peace Treaty Summarized

The Treaty of Versailles, which was signed by the peace plenipotentiaries of Germany and of 26 Allied and Associated Powers on June 28, 1919, is a voluminous document whose essential features may be learned from the following summary:

The Allied and Associated Powers who were signatories to the Treaty were: The United States, France, the British Empire, Italy, Japan, Belgium, Bolivia, Brazil, China, Cuba, Ecuador, Greece, Guatemala, Hayti, the Hedjaz, Honduras, Liberia, Nicaragua, Panama, Peru, Poland, Portugal, Roumania, Serbia,

Siam, Czecho-Slovakia, and Uruguay, and on the other part, Germany.

The first section of the Treaty comprises the Covenant of the League of Nations, elsewhere summarized.

It is the privilege of the League of Nations to question Germany at any time for violation of the neutralized zone east of the Rhine as a threat against the world's peace. It is empowered to appoint three of the five members of the Saar Commission, who shall oversee its regime and carry out the plebiscite.

The League will appoint the high commissioner of Danzig, guarantee the independence of the free city, and arrange for treaties between Danzig, Germany and Poland. It will devise the mandatory system to be applied to the former German col-



onies: it will act as a final court in part of the plebiscites of the Belgian-German frontiers, in disputes as to the Kiel Canal, and in deciding certain of the economic and financial problems. It is authorized to call an International Conference on Labor and a Conference on the International Control of Ports, Waterways and Railways.

#### Western Frontiers of Germany

Germany cedes to France all of Alsace-Lorraine; to Belgium two small districts between Luxemburg and Holland, comprising 382 square miles; to Poland the southeastern tip of Silesia, most of Posen and West Prussia, East Prussia being isolated from the main body by a part of Poland. Germany loses sovereignty over the northeasternmost tip of East Prussia and the internationalized areas about Danzig, and the basin of the Saar. The southeastern third of East Prussia and the area between East Prussia and the Vistula is to have its nationality determined by popular vote. A similar plebiscite is provided for a part of Schleswig.

Germany consents to the abrogation of the treaties of 1839 by which Belgium was established as a neutral state and agrees in advance to any convention with which the Allied and Associated Powers may determine to replace them. She recognizes the full sovereignty of Belgium over the contested territory of Moresnet and over part of Prussian Moresnet, and renounces in favor of Belgium all rights over Eupen and Malmédy, the inhabitants of which are to be entitled within six months to protest against this change of sovereignty, either in whole or in part, the final decision to be reserved to the League of Nations.

Germany renounces all her treaties and conventions with the Grand Duchy of Luxemburg; she adheres to the abrogation of its neutrality and accepts in advance any international agreement concerning it, reached by the Allied and Associated Powers.

Germany consents not to maintain any fortifications or armed forces within 50 kilometers of the eastern bank of the Rhine, and to hold no maneuvers and maintain no works to facilitate mobilization within that territory. In event of Germany's violation of this agreement, she shall be regarded as committing a hostile act against the powers who have signed the Treaty and as intending to disturb the peace of the World.

The territories of Alsace-Lorraine, ceded to Germany by the Treaty of Frankfurt, are restored to France with their frontiers as before 1871, to date from the Armistice and to be free of all public debts.

The ownership of the railroads in Alsace-Lorraine, together with the bridges crossing the Rhine, pass to France without payment or credit. All public property and all private property of German ex-sovereigns in this territory also pass to France without payment or credit. Contracts between Alsace-Lorraine and Germans are maintained. All manufactured products of Alsace-Lorraine will be admitted to Germany free of duty for five years.

#### The Saar District

Germany cedes to France, in compensation for the destruction of coal mines in Northern France and as payment on account for reparation, full ownership of the coal mines of the Saar Basin with their subsidiaries, accessories and facilities. The value of these properties will be estimated by the Reparation Commission and credited against that account. The territory will be governed by a commission appointed by the League of Nations and consisting of five members, of whom one shall be French, one a native of the Saar district and three representing different countries other than France or Germany. Order will be preserved by a local gendarmerie only. The people will preserve their local assemblies, religious liberties, schools and languages, but may vote only for local assemblies. They will retain their present nationality. After 15 years a plebiscite will be held by communes to ascertain the desires of the population as to the continuance of the existing regime under the League of Nations, union with France or union with Germany. All inhabitants over 20 years of age will have the right to vote.

#### Other Frontiers of Germany

Germany recognizes the total independence of German Austria in the boundaries traced.

Germany recognizes the entire independence of the Czechoslovak state, including the autonomous territory of the Ruthenians south of the Carpathians.

Germany cedes to Poland the whole of Upper Silesia, besides Posen and the province of West Prussia on the left bank of the Vistula.

The southern and eastern frontiers of East Prussia are to be fixed by plebiscites. The commission will report the results of the plebiscites to the five powers, with a recommendation for the boundary. The Allied and Associated Powers will draw up regulations assuring East Prussia full and equitable access to, and use of the Vistula, as well as to assure suitable railroad communication across German territory, between Poland and Danzig, while Poland shall grant free passage from East Prussia to Germany.

#### Danzig a Free City

Danzig and the adjacent district is to be constituted into the "Free City of Danzig" under the guarantee of the League of Nations. A convention between Poland and Danzig shall be concluded, which shall include Danzig within the Polish cus-

toms frontiers, through a free area in the port; it shall also insure to Poland the free use of all the city's waterways, docks and other port facilities, the control and administration of the Vistula and the whole through railway system within the city, and postal telegraphic communication between Poland and Danzig; it shall provide against discrimination against Poles within the city, and place its foreign relations and the diplomatic protection of its citizens abroad in charge of Poland.

The frontier between Germany and Denmark shall be defined by plebiscite and administered by an international commission of five, of whom Sweden and Norway shall be invited to name two. On the basis of these plebiscites, a new frontier will be drawn. Germany will renounce all sovereignty over territories north of this line in favor of the associated governments, who will turn them over to Denmark.

#### Heligoland Forts to Be Destroyed

All the fortifications, military establishments and harbors of the Islands of Heligoland and Dune are to be destroyed under the supervision of the Allies by German labor and at Germany's expense. They may not be reconstructed or any similar fortifications built in the future.

#### Russian Relations

Germany consents to the abrogation of the Brest-Litovsk and other treaties entered into with the Bolshevik Government of Russia and to recognize the full force of all treaties entered into by the Allied and Associated Powers with states which were a part of the former Russian Empire. Germany agrees to respect as permanent and inalienable the independence of all territories which were part of the former Russian Empire. The Allies and Associated Powers formally reserve the right of Russia to obtain restitution and reparation on the principles of the present treaty.

#### Renounces Colonies and Overseas Possessions

Germany renounces in favor of the Allies and Associated Powers all her possessions outside Europe. To China she renounces all privileges and indemnities resulting from the Boxer protocol of 1901, excepting diplomatic or consular establishments in the German concessions of Tientsin and Hankow. All the German concessions in Hankow and Tientsin are to be thrown open to international use.

All German public property in Siam, except consular and diplomatic premises, passes, without compensation, to Siam.

Germany renounces all rights in Liberia secured by the international agreements of 1911 and 1912.

Germany renounces all her rights, titles and privileges in Morocco, and accepts the consequences of the French protectorate.

Germany recognizes the British Protectorate over Egypt, declared on December 18, 1914, and consents to the transfer to Great Britain of the powers given to the late Sultan of Turkey for securing the free navigation of the Suez Canal.

Germany accepts all arrangements which the Allied and Associated Powers made with Turkey and Bulgaria with reference to any right, privilege or interests claimed in those countries by Germany and her nominals and not dealt with elsewhere.

Germany cedes to Japan all rights, titles and privileges in China which she acquired by her treaty of March 6, 1897, and other agreements as to Shantung. All German rights to the railroad from Tsing-tao to Tsinanfu, including all mining rights and rights of exploitation, pass equally to Japan, and the cables from Tsing-tao to Shanghai and Chefoo, the cables free of all charges.

#### Military, Naval and Air Forces Curtailed

Germany agrees to demobilize her army within two months after the Peace. The strength of the German Army may not exceed 100,000, including 4,000 officers, with not over seven divisions of infantry and three of cavalry, and the Army shall be devoted exclusively to maintenance of internal order and control of frontiers. The German General Staff is abolished.

All munition and arms factories, except those specifically excepted, must be closed within three months of the Peace, and their personnel dismissed. The exact amount of armament and munitions allowed Germany is specified and all supplies in excess of that amount shall be surrendered or destroyed. The manufacture or importation of asphyxiating, poisonous or other gases, and all analogous liquids, is forbidden, as well as the importations of arms, munitions and war materials.

Conscription in Germany is abolished. The enlisted personnel must be maintained by voluntary enlistments for terms of twelve consecutive years, the number of discharges before the expiration of said terms not to exceed 5 per cent of the total effectives in any year. Officers remaining in the service must agree to the age of 45 years and newly appointed officers must agree to serve actively for 25 years. No military schools except those absolutely indispensable for the units allowed shall exist in Germany two months after the Peace. No associations, such as societies of discharged soldiers, shooting or touring clubs, educational establishments or universities, may occupy themselves with military matters. All measures of mobilization are forbidden.

Fortified works, fortresses, and field works situated in German territory, within a zone fifty kilometers east of the Rhine, will be dismantled within three months. The construction of any new fortifications there is forbidden. On the Southern and Eastern frontiers, however, the fortified works may remain.



A time limit of three months is set for the execution of these provisions, which will be conducted under the scrutiny of Inter-allied Commissions of Control, which may establish headquarters at the German seat of government and go to any part of Germany desired.

#### German Navy Greatly Reduced

The German Navy shall be demobilized within a period of two months after the Peace. Germany is allowed to retain six small battleships, six light cruisers, twelve destroyers, twelve torpedo boats, but no submarines. The Navy personnel shall not exceed 15,000 men and no reserve force of any character shall be allowed. Conscription is abolished, only voluntary service being permitted with a minimum period of 25 years' service for officers and twelve for men. No member of the German mercantile marine will be permitted any naval training. The German High Seas Fleet interned at Scapa Flow, together with all German vessels of war in foreign ports, will be surrendered, the final disposition of these ships to be decided upon by the Allied and Associated Powers. Germany must also surrender 42 modern destroyers, 50 modern torpedo boats and all submarines with their salvage vessels, and all war vessels under construction must be broken up. War vessels not otherwise provided for shall be placed in reserve or used for commercial purposes. Replacements of ships, except those lost, can take place only at the end of 20 years, for battleships, and 15 years for destroyers. The largest armored ship permitted to Germany will not exceed 10,000 tons. Germany is required to sweep up the mines in the North Sea and the Baltic Sea. All German fortifications in the Baltic, defending the passages through the belts, must be demolished. Other coast defences are permitted, but the number and caliber of the guns must not be increased. Fourteen German cables are to be retained by the Allies; all other German cables are restored to Germany.

#### No More Zeppelins Permitted

Germany is forbidden to keep any Zeppelins or other dirigible balloons. No military or naval airplanes are to be retained, except 100 unarmed seaplanes which may be retained till October 1st to assist in the search for submarine mines. The entire air personnel is to be demobilized within two months, except for 1,000 officers and men retained till October. No aviation grounds or dirigible sheds are to be allowed within 150 kilometers of the Rhine or the eastern or southern frontiers, all existing installations within these limits to be destroyed. The manufacture of aircraft and parts of aircraft is forbidden for six months. All military and naval aeronautical material must be surrendered within three months.

#### Repatriation of Prisoners

A commission composed of representatives of the Allies and of Germany will conduct the repatriation of German prisoners and interned civilians without delay at Germany's expense. Until Germany has surrendered persons guilty of offenses against the laws and customs of war, the Allies have the right to retain selected German officers.

#### Trial of the Kaiser and His Advisers

In fixing the responsibility for the World War, the Allied and Associated Powers publicly arraign William II of Hohenzollern, formerly German Emperor, not for an offence against criminal law, but for "a supreme offence against international morality and the sanctity of treaties." Holland is to be requested to surrender the ex-Kaiser. A special tribunal is to be set up composed of one judge from each of the five Great Powers, to try the Kaiser and fix the punishment it feels should be imposed.

Other persons, accused of having committed acts in violation of the laws and customs of war, are to be tried and punished by military tribunals under military law. Germany is required to hand over to the Associated Governments, either jointly or severally, all persons so accused and all documents and information necessary to insure full knowledge of the incriminating acts, the discovery of the offenders and the just appreciation of the responsibility. The judge will be entitled to name counsel.

#### War Reparations

Germany accepts the responsibility of herself and her Allies for causing all the loss and damage to which the Allied and Associated Governments and their nationals have been subjected as a consequence of the War imposed upon them by the aggression of Germany and her Allies. While the Allies recognize that the resources of Germany are inadequate to make complete reparation for all such loss and damage, they require her to make compensation for all damages, caused to civilians, under seven main categories: (1) Damage by personal injury to civilians caused by acts of war, directly or indirectly, including bombardments from the air. (2) Damage caused to civilians, including exposure at sea, resulting from acts of cruelty ordered by the enemy, and to civilians in the occupied territories. (3) Damages caused by maltreatment of prisoners. (4) Damages to the Allied peoples represented by pensions and separation allowances, capitalized at the signature of this treaty. (5) Damages to property other than naval or military materials. (6) Damage to civilians by being forced to labor. (7) Damages in the form of levies or fines imposed by the enemy.

Germany also binds herself to repay all sums borrowed by Belgium from her Allies as a result of Germany's violation of the treaty of 1839 up to November 11, 1918, and for this purpose will issue at once and hand over to the Reparation Commission 5 per cent gold bonds falling due in 1926.

The total obligation of Germany to pay, as defined in the category of damages, is to be determined and notified to her after a fair hearing and not later than May 1, 1921, by an Inter-allied Reparation Commission. At the same time a schedule of payments to discharge the obligations within 30 years shall be presented. These payments are subject to postponement in certain contingencies.

As an immediate step toward restoration, Germany shall pay within two years, \$5,000,000,000 in either gold, goods, ships or other specific forms of payment. In periodically estimating Germany's capacity to pay, the Reparation Commission shall examine the German system of taxation to the end that the sums for reparation which Germany is required to pay shall become a charge upon all her revenues, prior to that, for the service or discharge of any domestic loan.

The Inter-Allied Commission, with headquarters at Paris, shall consist of one representative of each of the United States, Great Britain, France, Italy and Belgium, with all other Allied powers entitled, when their claims are under consideration, to the right of representation without voting power.

The Commission may require Germany to give from time to time, by way of guarantee, issues of bonds or other obligations as follows: \$5,000,000,000 issue, payable not later than May 1, 1921, without interest; \$10,000,000,000, bearing 2½ per cent interest between 1921 and 1926, and thereafter 5 per cent, with a 1 per cent sinking fund payment beginning in 1926, and an undertaking to deliver bonds to an additional amount of \$10,000,000,000 bearing interest at 5 per cent. Under terms to be fixed by the Commission, interest on Germany's debt will be 5 per cent, unless otherwise determined by the Commission in the future, and payments that are not made in gold may be accepted by the Commission in the form of properties, commodities, businesses, rights, concessions, etc.

#### Replacing Sunken Ships

Germany recognizes the rights of the Allies to demand the replacement, ton for ton and class for class, of all merchant ships and fishing boats lost or damaged owing to the War, and agrees to cede to the Allies all German merchant ships of 1,600 tons gross and upwards, one-half of her ships between 1,600 and 1,000 tons gross, and one-quarter of her steam trawlers and other fishing boats. These ships are to be delivered within two months to the Reparation Commission. As an additional part of reparation, the German Government further agrees to build merchant ships for the account of the Allies to the amount of not exceeding 200,000 tons gross annually during the next five years.

#### To Restore Belgium and France

Germany consents to devote her economic resources directly to the physical restoration of the invaded areas of Belgium, France, Serbia and Poland. The Reparations Commission is authorized to require Germany to replace the destroyed articles by the delivery of animals, machinery, etc., existing in Germany and to manufacture materials required for reconstruction purposes, with due consideration for Germany's essential domestic requirements.

#### To Deliver Coal to France and Belgium

Germany is required to deliver to France, annually for ten years, supplies of coal equivalent to the difference between the annual pre-war output of the Nord and Pas De Calais mines and the annual production during this period of ten years. In addition to the above, Germany gives options for the annual delivery for ten years to France of 7,000,000 tons of coal; of 8,000,000 tons of coal to Belgium, and to Italy an amount rising from 4,500,000 tons in 1919 to 8,500,000 tons in the period between 1922-1942, at prices to be fixed as prescribed in the Treaty. Provision is also made for delivery to France of benzol, coal tar and sulphate of ammonia. Should these deliveries interfere unduly with the industrial requirements of Germany, the Commission is empowered to postpone or annul them.

#### Special Reparations to Louvain

As reparation for the destruction of the library of Louvain, Germany is required to hand over manuscripts, early printed books, prints, etc., to the equivalent value of those destroyed.

The Germans are also required to restore within six months the Koran of the Caliph Othman, stolen by them from Medina, to the King of the Hedjaz. They must also return the skull of the Sultan Mkawa, formerly preserved in German East Africa, to his Britannic Majesty's Government.

#### Powers to Share Germany's Pre-War Debt

The pre-war debts of Germany, in the territories ceded to various Allied Powers, will be shared by those powers except in certain cases. Thus France is exempted from sharing Germany's pre-war debt in Alsace-Lorraine, and Poland is exempted from sharing Germany's pre-war debt in her restored domain. Governments accepting mandatory powers over any seized territory will not assume any German debts or grant any credit for German Government property. Germany is required to pay the total cost of the Armies of Occupation from the date of the Armistice as long as they are maintained in German territory. This cost is to be a first charge on her resources, the cost of reparation being the second charge. Germany is required to deliver to the Allied and Associated Powers all sums deposited in Germany by Turkey and Austria-Hungary in connection with the financial support extended by her to them during the War and to transfer to the Allies all claims against Austria-Hungary, Bulgaria or Turkey in connection with agreements made during the War.



### Customs, Contracts and Conventions

Germany agrees to treat all the Allies on a "favored nation" basis. She shall impose no customs tariff for five years on goods originating in Alsace-Lorraine, and for three years on goods originating in former German territory ceded to Poland, with the right of observation of a similar exception for Luxemburg. For a period of six months after the peace, Germany shall impose no tariff duties higher than the lowest in force in 1914.

Germany opens her door to foreign shipping. Under reciprocal conditions, unless the League of Nations otherwise decides, ships of the Allied and Associated Powers shall, for five years and thereafter, enjoy the same rights in German ports as German vessels and be granted "favored nation treatment" in fishing, coastwise trade and towage, even in territorial waters. Ships of a country having no seacoast may be registered at some one place within its territory.

To insure against unfair competition in trade, Germany is required to give the Allies adequate safeguards, and in particular she is to suppress in future the use of false wrappings and markings, and reciprocally to respect the laws and judicial decisions of Allied and Associated Nations in respect of regional appellations of wines and liquors.

### Bilateral Treaties

Each Allied and Associated Nation may renew any treaty with Germany, in so far as it may be consistent with the Treaty of Versailles, by giving notice within six months. Treaties entered into by Germany since August 1, 1914, with other enemy states, and before or since that date with Roumania, Russia and governments representing parts of Russia, are abrogated. Concessions granted under pressure by Russia to German subjects are annulled.

The Allied and Associated States are to enjoy "most favored national treatment" under treaties entered into by Germany and other enemy states before August 1, 1914, and under treaties entered into by Germany and neutral states during the War. Some forty multilateral conventions are renewed between Germany and the Allied and Associated Powers, but special conditions are attached to Germany's readmission to several. Germany consents to adhere to the new convention of the International Railway Union when formulated.

### Pre-War Debts

To liquidate all pre-war debts, including those arising from contracts suspended by the War, and for the adjustment of the proceeds of the liquidation of enemy property and the settlement of other obligations, a system of clearing houses is to be created within three months; in each Allied and Associated state and in Germany. Each participating state assumes responsibility for the payment of all debts owing by its nationals to nationals of the enemy states, except in case of pre-war insolvency of the debtor.

### Sale of Enemy Property

Germany must restore or pay for all private enemy property seized or damaged by her, the amount of damages to be fixed by the mixed arbitral tribunal. The Allied and Associated States may liquidate German private property within their territories as compensation for property of their nationals not restored or paid for by Germany, for debts owed to their nationals by German nationals and for other claims against Germany. The proceeds of the sale of private enemy property in each participating state may be used to pay the debts owed by the nationals of that state, direct payment from debtor to creditor and all communications thereto being prohibited.

### Contracts

Arbitral tribunals, consisting of three members, shall have jurisdiction over all disputes as to contracts concluded before the present peace treaty. Rights as to industrial, literary and artistic property are re-established. The special war measures of the Allied and Associated Powers are ratified and the right reserved to impose conditions on the use of German patents and copyrights when in the public interest. Except as between the United States and Germany, pre-war licenses and rights to sue for infringements committed during the War are cancelled.

### Religious Missions

The Allied and Associated Powers agree that properties of religious missions in territories belonging or ceded to them shall continue in their work under the control of the Powers, Germany renouncing all claims in their behalf.

### Aerial Navigation

Germany consents that, until 1923, aircraft of the Allied and Associated Powers shall have full liberty of passage and landing over and in German territory, equal treatment with German planes as to use of German airdromes, and with "most favored nation" planes as to internal commercial traffic in Germany.

### Transit and Transport in Germany

The Kiel Canal is to remain free and open to the War and merchant ships of all nations, which are to be treated on terms of absolute equality.

Germany shall grant freedom of transit through her territory by mail or water to persons, goods, ships, carriages and mails from or to any of the Allied or Associated Powers without customs or transit duties, or tax discrimination.

Free zones existing in German ports on August 1, 1914, must be maintained.

The Elbe, Ulava, Oder, Niemen and Danube Rivers are declared international, together with their connections. The Rhine is placed under control of a special commission. Belgium is to be permitted to build a canal connecting the Meuse with the Rhine, if she so desires, within 25 years, in which case Germany must construct the part within her territory on plans drawn by Belgium. The Allied Governments, too, may construct a Rhine-Meuse Canal, and both theirs and the Belgian Canal, if constructed, will be controlled by the International Commission.

Germany agrees to ensure communication by rail between the Allied, Associated and other States and to conform her rolling stock to the standard gauge of Europe.

To assure Czecho-Slovakia access to the sea, special rights are given her both north and south. To the north, Germany is to lease to her, for 99 years, spaces in Hamburg and Stethin. Toward the Adriatic, she is permitted to run her own through trains to Fiume and Trieste.

### International Labor Office

In order to promote international adjustment of labor conditions, an International Labor Office is established at the seat of the League of Nations as a part of its organization, at which an annual International Labor Conference will be held. This conference is composed of four representatives of each state, two from the Government and one each from the employers and the employed. Each of them may vote individually. It will be a deliberate legislation body, its measures taking the form of draft conventions or recommendations for legislation, which if passed by two-thirds vote, must be submitted to the law-making authority in every state participating. It is the privilege of each government either to enact the terms into law, approve the principle while adopting them to local needs, leave the actual legislation to local legislatures, or reject the convention altogether without further obligation.

The International Labor Office will collect and distribute information on labor throughout the world and prepare agenda for the conference. It will publish a periodical in French and English. The governing body consists of 24 members, 12 representing the various governments, six the employers and six the employees, to serve three years.

A complaint by one government against another may be referred by the governing body to a commission of inquiry nominated by the secretary general of the League. From the decision of this commission, appeal may be taken to a permanent court of international dispute.

Nine principles of labor conditions were recognized: (1) Labor is no longer to be regarded as a commodity; (2) employers and employees both have certain inalienable rights; (3) labor is entitled to a wage adequate to maintain a reasonable standard of life; (4) the eight-hour day should be universally recognized; (5) labor is entitled to a weekly rest of at least 24 hours; (6) child labor should be abolished; (7) men and women should receive equal pay for equal work; (8) all workers should receive equitable treatment; (9) women should participate in a system of inspection.

### Occupation of Germany

As a guarantee for the execution of the Treaty, the Allied and Associated troops will occupy German territory to the west of the Rhine, together with the bridgeheads, for 15 years. If the conditions are faithfully carried out by Germany, certain districts, including the bridgehead at Cologne, will be evacuated at the expiration of five years; certain other districts, including the bridgehead of Coblenz and the territories nearest the Belgian frontier, will be evacuated after ten years; and the remainder, including the bridgehead at Mainz, will be evacuated after fifteen years.

Should the Inter-allied Reparations Commission find that Germany has failed, in whole or in part, to observe her obligations, either during the occupation or after the fifteen years have expired, the whole or part of the areas specified will be reoccupied immediately. If, before the expiration of the fifteen years, Germany complies with all the treaty undertakings, the occupying forces will be withdrawn immediately.

All German troops at present in territories to the east of the new frontier shall return as soon as the Allied and Associated Governments deem wise. They are to abstain from all requisitions and are in no way to interfere with measures for national defense taken by the government concerned.

### Mandatories for German Colonies

The Council of Three, Clemenceau, Wilson and Lloyd George, named the following mandatories for the German colonies:

Togoland and Kameruns—France and England to make a joint recommendation to the League of Nations as to their future.

German East Africa—Great Britain.

German Southwest Africa—Union of South Africa (Boer-British).

German Samoan Islands—New Zealand (British).

German South Pacific Possessions—Australia (British).

Naurn Island—British Empire.

German North Pacific Islands—Japan.

### Germany Ratifies the Treaty

The German National Assembly, sitting at Weimar, ratified the Peace Treaty by a vote of 208



to 115 on July 9th. Before ratifying the Treaty, certain delegates violently protested against its alleged "injustice", and a resolution was introduced, having for its object the saving of Kaiser Wilhelm from the ignominy of a public trial, but the hotheads were speedily convinced that the time for reservations had passed.

In Berlin an atmosphere of gloom settled upon the city. The newspapers appeared with black borders and the Evangelical churches of Germany set aside Sunday, July 6th, as a day of mourning.

On June 18th, 50 Spartacans, recently released from jail, attempted to force their way into the castle

at Weimar and seize President Ebert, Chancellor Scheidemann and General Noske. They were routed after a sharp engagement.

#### Military Crisis in Berlin

A military crisis arose in Berlin on June 24th, when a number of army officers threatened to resign if the Peace Treaty were signed without reservations. Gen. Noske, however, brought them to their senses, though not until fifteen flags captured from the French in 1870 had been consigned to the flames. Much mob violence prevailed in Berlin and Hamburg for a week, but the excitement finally died down.

U. S. CONGRESS, JULY 10—NOV. 19

## United States Senate Rejects the German Peace Treaty

Amendments Designed to Safeguard the Monroe Doctrine Voted Down

President Wilson Tours the West to "Feel the Pulse" of the Nation

SECTION 24—1919

THE German Peace Treaty was accorded an extremely hostile reception when first presented to the United States Senate on July 10, 1919, by President Wilson. In a formal address, the President placed his services and all the information he possessed at the disposal of the Senate Committee on Foreign Relations, at the same time reviewing the work of the Peace Conference which had formulated the Treaty. Many Republican Senators made no concealment of their antipathy toward the Peace document, especially that section of it creating the League of Nations.

The Treaty was championed in the Senate on July 14th by Senator Swanson of Virginia, who pleaded for ratification without modification. This proposal was challenged by Senators Fall of New Mexico and Kellogg of Minnesota, both Republicans, who contended that the Senate should make certain reservations to the Treaty, even though the document itself were referred back to Paris for reconsideration.

#### Stormy Session of Senate Committee

A stormy session of the Senate Foreign Relations Committee was held on the same day and several resolutions were introduced.

Senator Lodge of Massachusetts called upon the State Department for a copy of the alleged secret treaty arranged between Germany and Japan in October, 1919.

Senator Borah asked President Wilson to submit a memorandum alleged to have been filed by Secretary Lansing, General Bliss and Mr. White, protesting against the Shantung award.

Senator La Follette called upon President Wilson to inform the Senate whether Nicaragua had been permitted to invade Costa Rica.

Senator Hiram Johnson of California called on the State Department to supply to the committee a stenographic report of all the secret proceedings of the Peace Conference, especially the discussions on the proposed League of Nations.

Senator Hitchcock, the Democratic spokesman, attacked the Johnson resolution as a flagrant violation of all diplomatic ethics. The resolution was tabled.

after a violent debate, but it was adopted at a subsequent session.

#### Republican Senators Confer with President Wilson

Senator Lodge's resolution was adopted on July 15th, after a bitter debate, in which its author denounced the Shantung decision as "a price paid." President Wilson, in apprehension of the rejection of the Treaty gave notice, on July 16th, that he would confer with Republican Senators at the White House with a view to throwing new light on the proposed League of Nations. Although fifteen Senators met the President in conference, he was still unable to charge their views as to the essential danger to American sovereignty involved in the acceptance of the Covenant.

Three days later, the opposition leaders served notice on President Wilson that, if certain changes in the League of Nations Covenant were not made, the entire Peace Treaty would be rejected. President Wilson, in reply, assured the Senators that while welcoming any "interpretative reservations", he should oppose to the bitter end any reservations that would exempt the United States from obligations imposed by the League covenant.

Some days later, Senator Lodge announced that he had received assurances from a British statesman that both England and France would consent to reservations in the Treaty pertaining to Article X, the Monroe Doctrine, all purely domestic questions, such as immigration, the tariff and racial equality, and America's right to withdraw from the League upon two years' notice.

#### Senators Refuse to Be Trapped

President Wilson, in effect, sought to commit the Senate to the League of Nations Covenant before a vote had been taken on ratification of the Treaty. His stratagem took the form of a letter addressed to Senator Lodge, chairman of the Foreign Relations Committee, asking that the committee approve the provisional appointment of an American representative on the Reparations Commission provided for in the Treaty. The Senators were not to be caught



napping, however. Both Republicans and Democrats, while holding that the Senate could not confirm a temporary appointment, were agreed, nevertheless, that the President could appoint such a provisional representative on his own responsibility.

Senator McKellar of Tennessee, on July 23d, proposed that the Senate accept the League of Nations Covenant entire, but Senator Borah of Idaho silenced his colleague with the reminder that ex-President Taft was even then formulating a plan of reservations, and assuring him that this or some other similar plan would be approved eventually by the Administration.

#### Ex-President Taft's Reservations

Former President Taft, on July 20th, proposed six interpretative reservations to the League of Nations Covenant, substantially as follows:

(1) That upon two years' notice the United States could cease to be a member of the League without having the League pass upon whether she had fulfilled all her obligations under the Covenant. (2) That self-governed colonies and dominions could not be represented on the League Council at the same time with the mother government, or be included in any of those clauses where the parties to the dispute are excluded from its settlement. (3) That the functioning of the Council, under Article X, shall be advisory only, and that each member shall be left free to determine questions of war in its own way, the decision of the United States resting with Congress. (4) That differences between the nations regarding immigration, the tariff and other domestic questions shall not be left to the League for settlement. (5) That the Monroe Doctrine is to be reserved for administration by the United States. (6) That the United States reserves the right to withdraw unconditionally at the end of ten years, or at least to terminate then her obligations under Article X.

#### New Triple Alliance Proposed

Disclosures were made in July that, while President Wilson was striving to establish a League of Nations which he hoped might insure the future peace of the world, he was at the same time a party to a secret pact or treaty by which the United States,

Great Britain and France were united in a triple alliance. All knowledge of this special treaty had been withheld from the United States Senate and from the public. When its existence became known, it was vigorously challenged by Senator Brandegee of Connecticut and others on the ground that any special treaty of alliance between the three nations was superfluous if all the Allied Powers were to be united in a League of Nations. Moreover, they declared the President had, by withholding the special treaty, violated Article IV of the agreement which provided that it should be submitted to the Senate along with the treaty of peace with Germany.

#### Charles E. Hughes' Reservations

The Foreign Relations Committee, on July 28th, gave notice of the purpose to draft six reservations to the League of Nations Covenant, relating to Article X, immigration, tariff, right of withdrawal within two years, the application of the Monroe Doctrine and the Shantung agreement.

Charles E. Hughes, an eminent Justice of the United States Supreme Court, offered for adoption to the Senate four reservations dealing with the ratification of the Treaty. These were summarized as follows:

(1) That on giving notice of its intention to withdraw from the League, a Power shall cease to be a member or subject to obligations of the Covenant at the time specified in the notice, but that such withdrawal shall not release that Power from debt or liability theretofore incurred. (2) That questions such as immigration or import duties, which are solely within domestic jurisdiction, shall not be submitted for consideration or action by the League. (3) That the United States shall not relinquish its traditional attitude toward purely American questions, which shall not be subject to jurisdiction of the League, leaving this country free to oppose acquisition by any non-American country or territory in the Western Hemisphere. (4) That under Article X, the United States shall assume no obligation to undertake any military expedition or employ its armed forces on land or sea unless such action is authorized by Congress.

## The Shantung Controversy

The betrayal of China by the Peace Conference, through the cession to Japan of certain economic privileges in the Shantung Peninsula, was the theme of several sensational debates in the Senate. The Chinese Government, in a memorial presented to the Peace Conference, had demanded the return of the leased territory of Kiao-Chau as being an integral part of Chinese territory, the restoration of which would be held tantamount to redressing a wrong committed by Germany.

Japan had craftily promised to return these concessions "at some future time," but the Chinese evidently placed no faith in these promises, charging the Japanese with having attained their ends by "mendacious intrigue."

Senator Borah, on July 15th, sharply assailed the Japanese cession and demanded that this portion of the treaty be rejected. Other Republican Senators declared that the betrayal of China to Japan seriously impugned the honor of the United States.

Democratic Senators generally upheld the Japanese cession, declaring that the Powers had to yield to Japan in order to gain Japan's consent to a peace. Senator Lodge of Massachusetts retorted that the framers of the Treaty had "paid Japan's price."

Senator Williams of Mississippi, Democratic leader, warned the Republicans that further criticism of the Shantung concessions might bring about a

misunderstanding with the Japanese Government. Senator Borah replied that if Japan cared or dared to challenge the United States for refusing to uphold a bargain which meant the enslavement of 40,000,000 Chinese, he was willing to accept the challenge.

In the course of debate, it was alleged that President Wilson, himself, had expressed disfavor of Japan's claims in China both before and after the revelation of the secret treaties between Japan and the European Powers, but he had yielded finally to the persuasions of Great Britain and France in order to insure Japanese membership in the League of Nations.

#### How America Was Hoodwinked

Secretary Lansing, on the other hand, testified before the Senate Foreign Relations Committee, on August 11th, that Japan's secret treaties with Great Britain, France and Italy, involving the Shantung settlement, were unknown to President Wilson and himself at the time of the Lansing-Ishii agreement, in which the United States consented to the spoliation of Chinese territory. According to Secretary Lansing, the diplomats at Paris had concealed from America the existence of these treaties while hypocritically professing that all their actions were "open and above board." Mr. Lansing's first knowledge of these secret agreements, he said, came early in Feb-



ruary, 1919, when they were transmitted to the State Department by the American Peace Commission in Paris.

### Japan Promises to Get Out of Shantung

An insistent demand was made by the American press and public that Japan should declare at once her intentions with respect to her occupancy of Shantung. That statement, so long awaited, was finally issued on August 4th. It was not, however, addressed to the participating governments, but took the form of a communication to the Japanese press over the signature of Viscount Uchida, the Japanese Foreign Minister. In this statement, these assurances were given:

"That the policy of Japan is to hand back the Shantung Peninsula in full sovereignty to China, retaining only the economic privileges granted to Germany. Upon arrangement being arrived at between Japan and China for the restitution of Kiaochow, the Japanese troops at present guarding that territory and the Kiaochow-Tsinaufu Railway will be completely withdrawn. The railway is to be operated as a joint Sino-Japanese enterprise without any discrimination in treatment against the people of any nation. The Japanese Government has, moreover, under contemplation proposals for the re-establishment in Tsingtao of a general foreign settlement instead of the exclusive Japanese settlement which by the agreement of 1915 with China they are entitled to claim."

### President Wilson's Rejoinder

The reference in the Japanese statement to "the agreement of 1915 with China", and which America now interprets to mean the coercion of China by Japan in that year, drew from President Wilson an official pronouncement which explicitly refused to recognize the so-called "agreement" of 1915. The President, in his reply, advised Viscount Uchida that in the Paris Conference, when the Shantung settlement was concluded, the Japanese delegates made no insistence upon the "agreement of 1915" being kept. On the contrary, President Wilson had felt it his

duty to say on that occasion that his concurrence in the "agreement" must not be construed as an acquiescence on the part of the United States in the policy of the notes exchanged between China and Japan in 1915 and 1918. Furthermore, in the discussions at Paris, reference was made to the enforcement of the "agreement" of 1915 and 1918 only in case China shall have failed to co-operate fully in carrying out the policy outlined in the statement of Baron Makino and Viscount Uchida.

### Senator Lodge Assails League of Nations Covenant

The Covenant of the League of Nations was ridiculed in the Senate Chamber, on August 12th, by Senator Lodge of Massachusetts, as a "deformed experiment", in which the inherent interests of the United States were sacrificed to a dangerous international compact, and as a "political organization", in which the destinies of all participating nations would be at the mercy of the European politicians. Instead of a League of Peace, it was an alliance dominated by the five great Powers of the world. He counselled the United States neither to meddle in the politics of Europe, nor yet to place itself in a position where Europe might attempt to meddle with American affairs. "To us, America should come before anything else. We have our own ideals, even if they differ from the ideals of those who have tried to establish a monopoly of idealism. To preserve the sovereignty of America should be our chief concern, and in order to preserve that sovereignty, the acceptance of the five reservations which he urged was necessary." Upon the conclusion of his address, the galleries broke out in a genuine ovation in which a body of Marines who had fought at Chateau Thierry joined.

## A White House Conference

President Wilson, having been sharply criticized for his long neglect to take the Senate into his confidence, sought to make amends by calling the members of the Foreign Relations Committee into conference in the East Room of the White House on August 19th. Interesting disclosures were made at this conference. President Wilson revealed that the original draft of the "American Plan" for the League of Nations was largely built by him upon the lines of a skeleton draft submitted by Mr. Phillimore of the British Commission at Paris. Article X, however, was his own exclusive work. This American draft was finally superseded by a new plan for a League of Nations, wholly British in origin and drawn by Gen. Smuts, the Boer leader.

### Wilson's Views on "Article X"

Quizzed by Senator Borah as to the true import of Article X, President Wilson expressed his personal opinion that, despite the apparent meaning of Article X, Congress would in the end have the power to determine whether any decision of the League War Council, calling upon American soldiers to fight the battles of Europe, should be obeyed. In any event, he held that the consent of the American delegate must first be secured before the trouble makers of Europe could commit America to their cause. As to the right of participating nations to withdraw from the League, the President held that this was indisputable. Each nation had the privilege of withdraw-

ing after having fulfilled all moral obligations to the League, and in no way could the Council pass upon it.

### Shantung Treaty Concealed from Wilson

Concerning the award of the former German "rights" in Shantung Peninsula to Japan, the President said he would have preferred a different disposition of the matter if he could have achieved it, but in order to insure the League of Nations, he felt impelled to acquiesce in the settlement. He sadly acknowledged that the existence of the secret treaty between England, Japan and France had been concealed from him by his "honest Allies" at Paris, and also admitted that Henry White, one of America's Peace Delegates, had denounced the award as "unjust" to China. Asked to say if he concurred in this judgment, the President deemed it inexpedient to make reply.

### America and Europe's Quarrels

The Senators endeavored to convince President Wilson that, under the terms of Article XI, the United States might in future be embroiled in all European quarrels at the will of the League, but Mr. Wilson held otherwise, saying that all such questions would inevitably be decided by Congress, as in his opinion it was not to be assumed that any of the Constitutional rights of the United States were to be abrogated through joining the League of Nations.



To a suggestion that much of the language of the League of Nations was obscurely phrased, requiring certain reservations by the Senate to safeguard the sovereignty of the United States, President Wilson replied that he was not aware of any "general objection" to the phraseology of the Treaty, and he felt that the changes embodied in the Treaty had cured any apparent defects, and even obviated the necessity of any reservations being made.

To this opinion Senator Brandegee demurred. He insisted also that the sections referring to the Monroe Doctrine, the withdrawal clause, domestic questions, Articles X and XI, were not adequately clear.

#### Monroe Doctrine

Pressed to explain why the Monroe Doctrine had not been specifically mentioned in the various clauses of the League, President Wilson said, if this had been done and equally specific treatment had not been accorded other questions of import, an appearance would have been created of intention to omit them.

Asked regarding the special treaty between England, France and America, he explained it merely as an extra precaution taken to insure prompt assistance in event of an unprovoked attack on France by Germany.

### German Treaty Reported to the Senate

The German Peace Treaty was reported to the Senate by the Foreign Relations Committee on September 10th, with 38 amendments and four reservations. The report was signed by nine Republican Senators—Lodge, Borah, Brandegee, Fall, Knox, Harding, Johnson, New and Moses. One Republican Senator, McCumber of North Dakota refused to sign.

On the following day, the dissenting Democratic members on the Foreign Relations Committee submitted a minority report. They were Senators Hitchcock, Williams, Swanson, Pomerene, Smith and Pittman. One Democratic member, Senator Shields, withheld his signature.

#### Denunciation of the Treaty by Senators

The majority report of the committee, representing the general Republican view, recited the many obstacles they had encountered in their study of the Treaty terms. Of the several documents desired by the committee to facilitate their work, there had been furnished them by the Executive two only, these being the American plan for the League of Nations and the composite draft made by experts of that commission. The records of the Peace Conference and of the representatives of the five great Powers were asked for by the committee and refused by the Executive.

Adverting to the popular clamor for hasty and unconsidered action on the Treaty, and the pretended fear that textual amendments would require a summoning of the Peace Conference, and therefore cause great delay, the majority report reminded the nation that there would be no necessity of summoning the Peace Conference, because it was then in session in Paris prepared to consider any textual amendments that might be made. "And the conference would be at least as usefully employed in that consideration as they (England, France and Italy) now are in dividing and sharing southeastern Europe and Asia Minor,

The President was plied with questions pertaining to the several treaties arranged with Austria, Hungary, Turkey and Bulgaria, all of which the Senators desired to study in connection with the proposed League of Nations, but he explained that these were inaccessible as yet, being in the hands of the Paris conferees pending the adjustment of territorial boundaries.

The President, in the course of his conference with the Senators, had advanced certain views or opinions which they construed as "interpretative reservations", but which he was reluctant to have incorporated specifically in the Treaty. They declared themselves unconvinced, after the President's exposition of the Treaty, and their attitude was even more belligerent than before.

In a statement issued by Senators Borah and Johnson, it seemed the conference had developed "nine significant facts" tending to demonstrate that the United States was legally and morally bound to take part in European controversies once it joined the League.

On August 29th, Senator Knox of Pennsylvania counselled the utter rejection of the Treaty, declaring it rather a truce than a treaty, and prophesying that it would cause "centuries of blood-letting."

n handing the Greeks of Thrace over to our enemy Bulgaria, and in trying to force upon the United States the control of Armenia, Anatolia and Constantinople through the medium of a large American Army."

After drawing this vivid picture of our erstwhile Allies, at the conclusion of a War that was ostensibly fought to liberate humanity, all greedily engaged in dividing among themselves the spoils of Egypt, Africa, Europe and Asia, the while they were suppressing the aspirations for freedom of their own subject peoples, and seeking to use the American Army and Navy as a catspaw in their several spoliations, the report discusses the amendments and reservations proposed.

#### England's Six Votes to America's One

The first amendment proposed by the Republican majority relates to the League of Nations. It aims so to amend the text as to secure for the United States a vote in the Assembly of the League equal to that of any other power.

Great Britain now has, under the name of the British Empire, one vote in the Council of the League. She was given four additional votes in the Assembly of the League for her self-governed dominions and colonies. She also has the vote of India, which is neither a self-governing dominion nor a colony, but merely a part of the British Empire, and which apparently was simply put in as a signatory and member of the League by the Peace Conference on request of Lloyd George. Great Britain also will control the votes of the Kingdom of Hedjaz and of Persia, but with these last two, the report assumes, America had nothing to do. "But if Great Britain had six votes in the League Assembly, no reason has occurred to the committee, and no argument has been made to show why the United States should not have an equal number."



### Justice to China

Amendments 39 to 44, inclusive, transfer to China, the German lease and rights as they exist in the Chinese province of Shantung which are given by the Treaty to Japan. The committee cannot consent to taking the property of a faithful ally and handing it over to another ally in fulfillment of a bargain made by other Powers in a secret treaty. It is a record which they are not willing to present to their fellow citizens or leave behind for the contemplation of their children.

### Other Amendments

Amendment No. 2 is simply to provide that where a member of the League has self-governing dominions and colonies which are all members of the League, the exclusion of the disputants under the League rules shall cover the aggregate vote of the member of the League and its self-governing dominions and parts of the empire combined, if any one is involved in the controversy.

Amendment No. 45 provides that the United States shall have membership on the Reparations Commission, but that such Commissioner of the United States cannot, except in the case of shipping, where the interests of the United States are directly involved, deal with or vote upon any other questions before that commission except under instructions from the government of the United States.

The remaining amendments have the common purpose of relieving the United States from having representatives on the commissions established by the League which deal with questions in which the United States has and can have no interest and in which the United States has been inserted by design.

### Withdrawal from the League

The first reservation proposed in the Majority report was one in which the United States reserves to itself the unconditional right to withdraw from the League of Nations upon giving notice as provided in Article 1, instead of waiting until after the Council had decided whether America had "fulfilled all its international obligations". It is made perfectly clear that the United States alone is to determine when the fulfillment of its obligations is reached and its right of withdrawal must therefore be unconditional.

### League May Not Order Our Army to Fight Abroad

By the second reservation, the United States declines to assume, under the provision of Article X, or under any other article, any obligation to preserve the territorial integrity or political independence of any other country, or to interfere in controversies between other nations, members of the League or not, or to employ the military or naval forces of the United States in such controversies, or to adopt economic measures for the protection of any other country, whether a member of the League or not, against external aggression, or for the purpose of intervention in the internal conflicts or other controversies which may arise in any other countries, and no mandate shall be accepted by the United States under Article XXII, Part 2, of the Treaty of Peace with Germany except by action of the Congress of the United States.

### America Superior to European Leagues

In other words, under no circumstances must there be any legal or moral obligation upon the part of the United States to enter into war or to send its Army and Navy abroad or to impose economic boycotts on other countries without the unfettered action of Congress.

Under the Constitution of the United States, the Congress alone has the power to declare war. No American soldiers or sailors must be sent to fight in other lands at the bidding of a League of Nations.

This reservation also covers the subject of mandates. The decision as to accepting a mandate must rest exclusively within the control of the Congress of the United States and must not be delegated, even by inference, to any personal agent, or to any delegate or commissioner.

The third reservation gives the United States the exclusive right to decide what questions are within its domestic jurisdiction, and these questions shall not be submitted in any way either to arbitration or to the consideration of the Council or of the Assembly of the League of Nations, or to the decision or recommendation of any other power.

### To Safeguard Monroe Doctrine

The purpose of the fourth reservation is to preserve the Monroe Doctrine from any interference or interpretation by foreign powers. The Monroe Doctrine is to be interpreted by the United States alone and is declared to be wholly outside the jurisdiction of the League of Nations and questions which depend upon or relate to its long-established policy.

### "An Alliance, Not a League"

In conclusion, the Senate Committee's majority report describes the Covenant as an alliance and not a league, which vests all essential power in five great nations. The committee believe that the Covenant of the League demands sacrifices of American independence and sovereignty which would in no way promote the world's peace, but which are fraught with the gravest dangers to the future safety and well being of the United States.

The amendments and reservations alike are governed by a single purpose, and that is to guard American rights and American sovereignty, the invasion of which would stimulate breaches of faith, encourage conflicts and generate wars.

The report concludes that the United States can serve the cause of peace best, as she has served it in the past, and do more to secure liberty and civilization throughout the world by proceeding along the paths she has always followed, rather than permitting herself to be fettered by the dictates of other nations or by becoming immersed and entangled in all the broils and conflicts of Europe.

### The Minority Democratic Report

The Minority report of the Foreign Relations Committee, signed by six Democrats, and presented by Senator Hitchcock, urged the early ratification of the pending Treaty of Peace without amendments and without reservations. To adopt an amendment or to reject the Treaty means that the United States will sacrifice all the concessions secured from Germany by a dictated peace. Among these concessions are:



Germany's promise to us in the Treaty that she will not impose higher or other customs duties or charges on our goods than those charged to the most favored nation and will not prohibit or restrict or discriminate against imports from the United States except the lowest duties that were in force for the first six months of 1914. Germany's promise to restore the property of our citizens seized in Germany or to compensate the owners. Germany's threat to validate all acts by the United States and by the Alien Property Custodian by which we seized and proceeded to liquidate \$800,000,000 worth of property in the United States belonging to German citizens. Germany's agreement that the proceeds of the sale of these properties may be used to compensate our citizens in Germany if Germany fails to do so, or to pay debts which Germany or Germans owe to American citizens, or to pay pre-war claims against Germany for property destroyed and lives taken similar to the losses because of the destruction of the Lusitania. Germany's agreement that the United States shall retain over 500,000 tons of German shipping, seized in American ports which must more than compensate us for shipping lost during the war.

In addition we should lose our membership on the Reparations Commission, "which will be the most powerful international body ever created and will have enormous control over the trade and commerce of Germany with the rest of the world for years to come. In no way can the United States assure itself against discrimination in German imports and financial policies unless we have a member upon this great Reparations Commission."

The effect will be just as complete if we adopt an amendment to it as if we rejected the Treaty absolutely. In either event, we should find ourselves at the end of the War, but without any peace with Germany, and reduced to the necessity of seeking a negotiated peace with an angry Germany on such terms as she would be willing to accord.

The Minority report declared that the reservations are the work of Senators "organized for the purpose of destroying the League and, if possible, defeating the Treaty." While masquerading in the guise of reservations, they are in fact alterations of the Treaty. They would, in fact, if adopted, result in its defeat.

The League of Nations proposes to organize the nations of the world for peace, whereas they have always heretofore been organized for war. It pro-

poses to establish the rule of international justice in place of force. It is the only plan proposed to redeem the world from wars, pestilence and famine, the only one by which a stricken world can be redeemed from the disaster of the late War and the dangers of impending international chaos. Those who seek with microscopes to find some petty flaw in its structure have nothing themselves to propose. They have resorted to every desperate method of attack to destroy this great international effort to establish peace, but they suggest nothing in its place.

#### Senator McCumber's Minority Report

Senator McCumber of North Dakota, a Republican member of the Senate Committee on Foreign Relations, on September 15th, presented a Minority report of which he himself was the sole signatory and which embodied a scathing indictment of the Majority report.

He taunted his fellow Republicans with acting in bad faith and substituting irony and sarcasm for argument, in their attack on the League of Nations. He considered the Covenant a mighty step in the right direction. Some of its provisions, he granted, were as yet crude and uncertain, but the whole purpose is most noble and worthy. "All of these noble and lofty purposes have been ignored in the Majority report or treated with sarcastic disdain or jingoistic contempt."

Still, he consented that "experience will undoubtedly necessitate many changes in the Covenant in order to make a more perfect instrument that will work for the benefit of humanity."

It was inferred that the efforts of the Majority Senators to make some of those necessary changes at the present time, in order to safeguard the sovereignty and integrity of the United States, left them open to a charge of "selfish, immoral and dishonorable" practices.

### President Wilson's Nation-Wide Speaking Tour

Failing to persuade Congress to accept his views on the League of Nations, President Wilson carried his cause before the people. Leaving Washington, on the evening of September 3, 1919, he made a nation-wide tour that carried him to the Pacific Coast. In 27 days he delivered more than 30 speeches before large audiences.

His first speech was delivered at Columbus, O., on September 4th, where he ventured the opinion that the League of Nations alone could prevent the recurrence of such a catastrophe as that which had overwhelmed the world. In the evening of the same day, he addressed a large audience at Indianapolis, in defense of Article X, which he conceived as "speaking the conscience of the whole world." It goes to the heart of this whole bad business, he said, for the members of the League engage to resist and to preserve against all external aggression the territorial integrity and political independence of the nations concerned.

At St. Louis, the President first discussed the Shantung settlement, expressing his belief that Japan will keep her promise and return the sovereignty of Shantung to China. He also said that if we did not join the League of Nations we would have to play

a "lone hand", and that would necessitate a great standing army.

At Kansas City and at Billings, Montana, he developed the same thought, warning the nation that a great standing army not only would mean burdensome taxation and compulsory military service, but the building up of a military class.

Thirty thousand greeted the President in the Stadium at Seattle on September 13th, where he reviewed the fleet and made two addresses.

Two days later, at Portland, Oregon, the President called upon the nation to bind themselves in the solemn League and Covenant and redeem the expectation of the world.

At San Francisco, President Wilson touched upon the Irish question. Articles X and XI of the League of Nations, he declared, not only did not put the United States in a position where it would have to aid England in the event that Ireland sought to obtain her freedom, but these Articles went further by providing a Court of the World before which Ireland or any nation which felt that Ireland was wronged could seek the verdict of public opinion.

At San Diego, President Wilson addressed 50,000 people, saying that the League of Nations and the



Peace Treaty fulfilled Republican ideals.

At Los Angeles, President Wilson denied that England, with her six votes in the Assembly of the League, could exert an influence greater than America with its one vote. The Assembly, he said, is a debating and not an executive body, and in every matter on which the Assembly can vote along with the Council, it is necessary that all the nations represented on the Council should concur in the affirmative vote to make it valid. So that in every vote, no matter how many vote for it in the Assembly, in order for it to become valid, it is necessary that the United States should vote aye.

#### President Trailed by Republicans

The President was trailed on this trip by a number of United States Senators, all of them critics of the League of Nations Covenant, who delivered speeches in opposition to the terms of the Treaty and in support of amendments to the Covenant. Among these assailants of the Covenant were Senators Johnson, Borah, Reed and McCormick. They were greeted by large audiences which unfailingly expressed their disapproval of the League of Nations Covenant as drawn.

### Division of the Senate on Peace Treaty

The debates in the Senate, over the ratification of the Peace Treaty, at times grew acrimonious. Three shades of Senatorial opinion developed. One group, whose spokesman was Senator Lodge, strongly supported the direct amendment of the Treaty and this position was sustained by 36 Republican and two Democratic Senators. A second group, comprising twelve Republicans and three Democrats, opposed direct amendments while favoring specific and effective qualifying reservations. A third group, numbering 40, and known as "Administration Democrats," opposed any amendments to the text of the Treaty and the greater number strongly opposed any qualifying reservations whatsoever. Senator Hitchcock was a leader of this group.

#### The Fall Amendments Defeated

Thirty-five textual amendments to the Treaty were offered by Senator Fall, Republican, of New Mexico, intended to prevent America's participation on any commission established under the Treaty excepting the Reparations Commission. These amendments were all defeated by decisive majorities on October 2d.

The so-called "Middle Ground" Senators were in control of the situation. With them voted Senator Gore, Democrat, of Oklahoma, and Senator Thomas of Colorado. Senator Jones, Republican, of Washington, voted with the Democrats on two amendments.

#### The Shantung Amendments

A vote was taken en bloc, October 16th, on the six amendments proposed by Senator Lodge, to restore the economic privileges on the Shantung Peninsula to China. All six were defeated by a vote of 35 to 55. Senator Lodge thereupon announced that, at the proper time, he would move to strike the entire Shantung section from the Treaty.

In the course of the debate on these amendments Senator Johnson denounced the Shantung award as "infamous, detestable and abominable." Many Republicans, while voting against the amendments, intimated that they would be willing to support a reservation that would assert the privilege of the United States to refuse to be bound by any action of the League of Nations in any dispute relating to the Shantung Peninsula.

#### Revised Reservations Reported

A series of revised reservations was reported by the Foreign Relations Committee, on October 22d,

as substitutes for those of September 10th. In a preamble to the series, adopted by a vote of 10 to 7, it was specified that all the reservations must be accepted by three of the four principal Allied Powers before becoming effective. Ten of these reservations were adopted by a vote of 11 to 6, action on three others being postponed.

Of those accepted, five touched upon points already covered in the four original reservations previously adopted by the committee, namely, the right of withdrawal from the League; Article X; the guarantee of territorial integrity and political independence of members of the League; the mandate over weak nations, which was formerly a part of the reservation on Article X, the Monroe Doctrine; and domestic questions, such as the tariff and immigration.

By many it was thought significant that the reservation on Article X was almost identical in phrasing with that which President Wilson had condemned in his Salt Lake City speech as being "a dagger thrust at the heart of the Treaty." This reservation was adopted despite the warning of Senator Hitchcock that its acceptance alone would move the Administration forces to reject the Treaty.

The Shantung reservation was qualified in committee, by the excision of the provision that the United States should decline to recognize the validity of any titles which Germany assumed to possess on the Shantung Peninsula. On the resolution providing that the United States shall accept no mandate except by consent of Congress, the vote was 12 to 2.

Four more reservations were adopted by the Senate Foreign Relations Committee on October 23d, making 14 in all. One reservation specified that no citizen shall represent the United States under the League of Nations or the Treaty, or shall be elected or appointed as a member of any commission, court council or conference except with the approval of the United States Senate. By the terms of another reservation, our Government may permit the nationals of a covenant-breaking state to continue their commercial, financial and personal relations with the nationals of the United States. A third reservation enables the United States to decline to accept any interest as trustee or in her own right, or to accept any responsibility for the government or disposition of the overseas possessions of Germany to which Germany renounces her right and titles.

A fourth reservation enables the United States to determine what questions are within its domestic jurisdiction. Among the questions included are



those concerning the suppression of the traffic in women and children, and in opium and other dangerous drugs.

#### Senator Lodge's Reservation

Senator Lodge, on October 24th, offered a reservation in which it is specified that the United States reserves to itself exclusively the right to decide what questions affect its honor or its vital interests and which declares that such questions are not under this treaty to be submitted in any way, either to arbitration or to the consideration of the council or the Assembly of the League of Nations or any agency thereof, or to the decision or recommendation of any other power.

### All Amendments Defeated

It was now apparent that a majority of the Senate were unalterably opposed to any amendment of the Peace Treaty, although many Senators looked favorably on certain reservations. On October 29th, the Senate rejected three more amendments. One of these, offered by Senator Johnson, Republican, was a new attempt to secure for the United States a voting power in the League Assembly equal to that accorded Great Britain and her dominions and colonies. This was defeated by a vote of 43 to 35.

An amendment offered by Senator Shields, Democrat, of Tennessee, to provide that Great Britain and her colonies and dominions have collectively but three delegates and one aggregate vote in the Assembly, was defeated 49 to 31.

#### "Almighty God" Voted Down

An amendment offered by Senator Sherman, Republican, of Illinois, to insert the phrase, "to invoke the considerate judgment of mankind and the gracious favor of Almighty God" in the preamble was defeated 57 to 27.

### Battle Royal Over the Reservations

A battle royal to decide the qualifying reservations reported by the Foreign Relations Committee was begun on November 7th. The opening attack was made on the preamble, which required the written assent of three of the Allied powers to the American reservations. All efforts to modify it failed, and the preamble was adopted by a vote of 48 to 40. Three Democrats, Walsh of Massachusetts, Gore of Oklahoma and Reed of Missouri, voted with the Republicans affirmatively; one Republican, McCumber of North Dakota, voted negatively with the Democrats.

The reservation, making the United States the sole judge as to whether it has fulfilled its obligations to the League in event of its determination to withdraw therefrom, was adopted after a stubborn fight by a vote of 50 to 35. All 49 Republican Senators, together with six Democratic Senators, were known to favor this reservation, while 41 Senators were opposed. The minority sought variously to strike out all mention of a concurrent or joint resolution, proposing to give the Congress the option to proceed as it thought best, but all their efforts were in vain.

#### Refuse to Be Bound by Article X

Despite President Wilson's opinion that any mod-

This motion, which was passed by a vote of 10 to 5, was first suggested by Senator Reed of Missouri, a Democrat, who is not a member of the committee, then proposed by Senator Shields and afterwards phrased by Senator Lodge.

#### Refuse to Increase America's Voting Strength

An amendment proposed by Senator Hiram Johnson of California seeking to equalize the voting strength of the United States in the proposed League with the six votes allotted to Great Britain and its dominions, was defeated by a vote of 40 to 38.

On October 29th, the Senate by a vote of 47 to 36 rejected an amendment sponsored by Senator Moses, Republican, of New Hampshire, intended to effect an equality of vote in the League Assembly.

On November 4th, Senator Lodge offered an amendment striking from the Treaty the three sections under which the economic rights on the Shantung Peninsula were awarded to Japan. This was voted down, 41 to 26.

Senator Borah offered an amendment to strike from the Treaty the article guaranteeing the territorial integrity and political independence of members of the League of Nations. After two hours of debate, Senator Borah withdrew this amendment, saying that he would await the Senate's action on his reservations to limit the obligation imposed on the United States under the article in question.

Senator La Follette, on November 5th, moved an amendment to strike from the Treaty all the labor provisions. This motion was defeated by a vote of 47 to 34.

The last attempt to amend the Treaty occurred on November 6th, when Senator Gore, Democrat, of Oklahoma, proposed that the United States should hold a referendum vote before entering any war. This was defeated by 76 to 16.

fication of Article X would be equivalent to "a knife-thrust at the heart of the Covenant," the Senate majority refused to be bound by its original provisions, which require that America shall use its armed forces whenever outside aggression threatens the territory of any member of the League.

Under this authority it was held that the League would be empowered to call on the United States Army to fight the battles of European Imperialism against aspiring Liberty whenever and wherever a people should rise up against tyranny. A reservation was proposed requiring the consent of Congress before our Army and Navy should be required to do the war-bidding of the despotisms in Europe, Asia and Africa.

Senator Thomas, Democrat, of Colorado and Senator Hitchcock, the Democratic Leader, both sought to modify this reservation, but both failed, four Democrats voting with the Republicans.

After four days' debate, the reservation as recommended by the Foreign Relations Committee was adopted by a vote of 46 to 33. All the Republican Senators and four Democratic Senators, Walsh of Massachusetts, Gore of Oklahoma, Reed of Missouri and Smith of Georgia, voted in the affirmative.



### Reservations Adopted Under Closure Rule

Senator Lodge, on November 13th, offered a petition, signed by 30 Republican Senators, to invoke the closure rule as a means of limiting further debate on the Treaty. By a vote of 78 to 16, the closure rule was adopted on November 15th, each Senator being limited to one hour in presenting his arguments on any question regarding the Treaty. Under this rule, ten reservations were adopted that day, as many as 13 Democratic Senators voting "yes" with the Republicans.

On November 17th, a reservation proposed by Senator Owen for America's participation in the disposal of the German colonies, and another reservation

offered by Senator Reed, excluding the League of Nations from action affecting the "honor and vital interests" of the United States, were rejected.

### President Wilson Opposes Reservations

Warning was given on November 17th that President Wilson would pigeon-hole the Treaty if Senator Lodge's resolution of "ratification with reservations" should be adopted. The President was quoted as saying that in his opinion the resolution in its modified form provided not for the ratification but rather for the nullification of the Treaty. He urged all friends and supporters of the Treaty to vote against the Lodge resolution of ratification.

## Defeat of the Peace Treaty

The United States Senate, on November 19, 1919, at 10.30 p.m., rejected the German Peace Treaty. Two votes were taken. A resolution for unconditional ratification of the Treaty, without amendments or reservations, was defeated by a vote of 53 to 38. A resolution for ratification of the Treaty with the reservations already adopted was defeated by a vote of 55 to 39. A motion to reconsider was similarly defeated.

In the final vote, party lines were broken. Seven Democrats voted with the Republicans against accepting the Treaty without qualifications, and seven Democrats voted with the Republicans in favor of ratification with reservations.

On the other hand, one Republican voted with the Democrats for unconditional ratification and 13 Republicans voted with the Democrats against ratification with reservations. These Republicans were styled "irreconcilable opponents of the League of Nations Covenant."

With the defeat of the Treaty, the Senate adjourned to reassemble at the regular session on December 1st. Before adjournment, Senator Lodge moved a resolution, declaring that the War between Germany and the United States is at an end. This resolution was referred to the Foreign Relations Committee.

AMERICA, JULY 18—AUG. 3

## Race Riots in Washington, Chicago, Omaha and Elaine, Ark.

62 Deaths and Many Injuries Result from Battles Waged in the City Streets

SECTION 25—1919

THE importation of half a million negroes into the Northern States, to fill the places of white artisans and laborers drafted for the World War, had its tragic sequel in the race riots which occurred during July and September, 1919, in four cities—Washington, Chicago, Omaha and Elaine, Arkansas. These riots, resulting in 62 deaths and hundreds of injuries, were in part due to negro assurance, based upon the wide acceptance among the blacks of the pernicious doctrine of the social equality of the races as enunciated by negro editors generally and by one white lawyer in Arkansas. Other contributing causes were the alleged assaults committed by blacks upon white girls, and the industrial enmities engendered by the transplanting of these blacks on Northern soil, displacing white men not only from positions of lucrative employment, but, dispossessing them of their homes as well.

### The Washington Riot

The riots in Washington, D. C., began on Saturday, July 19, 1919, the alleged provocation being a succession of assaults committed by negroes on white women. Bands of soldiers, sailors, marines and civilians made their way to the Center Market district in the heart of the city, dragging many negroes from street cars and automobiles and assaulting them. The Police Reserves were called out, but could not quell the

rioting, which by nightfall had spread to other parts of the city. A score of badly injured negroes by this time had been removed to the Emergency Hospital.

For three days and nights the rioting continued, but on the 22d, Major-Gen. Ham, in co-operation with the police, apparently had the situation well in hand. On that day, without warning, the riots broke out anew. This time the negroes were the aggressors. Bent upon retaliation they rode about in automobiles, shooting promiscuously at the whites. The whites accepted the challenge and a violent clash ensued. Troops were called out and by evening order was restored. As a result of the day's bloody work, four blacks and three whites were killed and 70 injured. Hundreds of rioters were arrested. That night Washington was policed by a large force of soldiers and marines. No further outbreak occurred at the Capital.

### 38 Killed in Chicago's Riot

News of the Washington riots stirred Chicago, where 50,000 blacks had displaced as many whites from places of employment in the preceding two years. The blacks, moreover, had overflowed into the better residential districts, occupying houses usually reserved for whites. Property values had fallen in consequence of the negro "invasion," causing



much ill feeling among landlords and homeowners.

Numbers of blacks, moreover, had imbibed the false doctrine of social equality, with especial reference to miscegenation, as taught by the negro press and enunciated by negro orators. This evil teaching had borne fruit in a certain assurance on the part of many negroes which was resented by the whites.

On the afternoon of Sunday, July 27th, while thousands of young folks were bathing at the South Side beach, a colored boy was drowned. The false report gained currency that he had been stoned while in the water by white boys. Accepting this report as true, a number of negroes crossed the dividing line to the white section of the beach and demanded satisfaction. A general fight followed, in which scores received cuts and bruises from flying stones and rocks.

From the beaches, the rioting spread through the "Black Belt," and for several days this part of the city was the scene of much disorder, accompanied by shooting, stabbings, assaults and some incendiarism. The police were unable to control the situation.

On July 30th, on request of the mayor of Chicago, Gov. Frank O. Lowden called out 5,000 State Troops. Members of the National Guard and veterans of the World War also assisted.

On July 28th, five negroes and nine whites were killed in a battle lasting five hours, the blacks firing from windows, roofs and other points of vantage. On the following day the battle continued with unabated fury. Fourteen participants were killed and 500 injured. One negro who had been riddled with bullets, was burned to a cinder. Hundreds of rioters were arrested for carrying concealed weapons or for disorderly conduct.

Martial law was proclaimed on July 30th and all the saloons were closed. The negroes had secured arms and barricaded themselves within their houses, while thousands of infuriated whites besieged the Black Belt, waiting for the negroes to come out. Five more deaths were reported bringing the toll up to 33.

On July 31st, 36 incendiary fires were started with the evident purpose of "smoking out" the blacks; one negro was killed and six negroes were badly beaten. By August 3d calm had been restored throughout Chicago and five days later the 6,000 state troops guarding the city were sent home. A coroner's jury which investigated the race riots fixed the number of deaths at 38. Of these 15 were white and 23 colored persons. Twenty men were held for

the grand jury on charges of murder and manslaughter. Race segregation by agreement and quick punishment of the guilty regardless of color, were suggested as remedies for race riots.

#### Mayor of Omaha Nearly Lynched in Race Riots

At Omaha, Nebraska, on September 19th, a mob of several thousand white citizens stormed the Douglas County Court House in their efforts to seize William Brown a negro confined in the jail there awaiting trial for an alleged assault on a white girl named Lobeck. The police held back the mob for a time.

Mayor E. P. Smith of Omaha, a former law partner of counsel for the negro's defense, attempted to quell the disturbance by appealing to the rioters to await the orderly processes of the law. In the midst of his address he was seized, a rope placed around his neck and he was strung up twice, being cut down when life was almost extinct. He recovered after two weeks' hospital treatment.

After assaulting the mayor, the rioters set fire to the \$1,000,000 courthouse, which was practically destroyed, and secured the prisoner. He was immediately hanged and his body burned to a crisp.

Fifteen hundred Federal troops were sent to the scene from Fort Crook and Fort Omaha. Gen. Leonard Wood, Commander of the Central Department, arrived on September 30th, and quickly restored order.

During the rioting Louis Young, a 17 years old boy, was shot and killed by the police while attempting to enter the courthouse, and a man named H. J. Hykell was fatally injured. Hundreds of persons sustained injuries. Of the hundreds of rioters arrested, 150 were charged with murder, being identified from photographs taken during the disturbance.

#### Sixteen Killed at Elaine, Arkansas

A white lawyer, in Little Rock, Arkansas, who had incited the colored population of the state to demand social equality by force of arms was in part responsible for the dreadful race riots, which broke out at Elaine, Arkansas, on October 1 and 2, 1919. The killing of W. D. Adkins, a railroad special agent at Elaine, on September 30, was the immediate cause of the conflict between the whites and blacks. For several days there was serious fighting between the two races throughout Phillips' County, but with the arrival of 500 Regular Army troops the disturbance was quelled. In the rioting eleven negroes and five white men were killed.

UNITED STATES, JULY—DEC.

## Nation-wide Prohibition, Ratified by 45 States, Becomes Law

### Brewers and Distillers Seek to Repeal the War-Time Prohibition Act

SECTION 26—1919

**T**ECHNICALLY, the United States was put on a War-Time Prohibition basis on July 1, 1919, but in reality beers, wines and even ardent liquors were openly sold over thousands of bars in every state of the Union pending a decision by the Supreme Court on the constitutionality of the War-Time Prohibition Act. Meantime, Congress had adopted an Amendment to the Federal Constitution, to become effective on January 16, 1920, upon its

ratification by the legislatures of 36 states, prohibiting the manufacture, sale or transportation of "intoxicating liquors" in the country. This Amendment was duly ratified by 36 state legislatures, but long before it became operative, the question of what percentage of alcohol in any given beverage entitled it to be called "intoxicating" was the subject of lively discussion in every state court.

Opinions of courts, legislatures, municipalities and



citizens were at variance on this question, and the whole matter was referred to the United States Supreme Court for final decision. The decree of the Supreme Court had not been handed down when the year 1919 closed.

#### Ratification of the National Prohibition Amendment

The first legal step taken in the total suppression of the liquor traffic throughout the Union was the adoption by the United States Senate, on August 1, 1917, by a vote of 65 to 20, of a joint resolution, submitting to the states a Constitutional Amendment prohibiting the manufacture, sale or transportation of intoxicating liquors in these United States, after the ratification of the Amendment by 36 states.

This resolution, after amendment, passed the House of Representatives on December 17th by a vote of 282 to 128. The Senate on December 18th, accepted the resolution as amended by a rising vote of 47 yeas to 8 nays.

The proposed Amendment to the Federal Constitution was then submitted to the State Legislatures for ratification. Twenty-four states already were on a Prohibition basis prior to December, 1917. They were: Alabama, Arizona, Arkansas, Colorado, Georgia, Idaho, Kansas, Maine, Michigan, Mississippi, Montana, Nebraska, North Carolina, North Dakota, Oklahoma, Oregon, South Carolina, South Dakota, Tennessee, Utah, Virginia, Washington and West Virginia.

Before Jan. 1, 1919, fifteen states had ratified the amendment in this order: Mississippi, Virginia, Kentucky, South Carolina, North Dakota, Maryland, Montana, Texas, Delaware, South Dakota, Massachusetts, Arizona, Georgia, Louisiana and Florida. Twenty-eight other states had ratified before February 25th, making a total of 43, or seven more than the required number.

These 28 states ratified in this order: Michigan, Ohio, Oklahoma, Idaho, Tennessee, Maine, West Virginia, California, Washington, Illinois, Indiana, Arkansas, Kansas, North Carolina, Alabama, Colorado, Iowa, New Hampshire, Oregon, Utah, Nebraska, Missouri, Wyoming, Wisconsin, Nevada, Vermont, New York, Pennsylvania.

Three states—Connecticut, New Jersey and Rhode Island—refused to ratify the amendment. A proposed amendment to the Michigan Constitution, permitting the sale and manufacture of beer and wine, was defeated at the state election, April 7, 1919.

Ratification of the Prohibition Amendment to the Federal Constitution was formally proclaimed on January 29, 1919, by Frank L. Polk, acting Secretary of State in the absence of Secretary Robert Lansing. Though the document was dated the 29th, still the legal authorities held that the ratification was accomplished when the 36th state acted affirmatively on January 16th and that under the terms of the Amendment itself Prohibition would become effective one year from that date, on January 16, 1920.

#### President's Veto is Overridden

The 18th amendment to the Constitution of the United States, known as the National Prohibition Act, was vetoed by President Wilson on October 27th but was passed over his veto by the House on the same day, by a vote of 176 to 55, and by the Senate on October 28th, by a vote of 65 to 20. The amend-

ment consequently became a law without the President's approval.

In returning the Act without his approval, President Wilson made the point that the subject matter in the measure dealt with two distinct phases of Prohibition legislation. One part of the Act sought to enforce War-Time Prohibition; the other to enforce provisions made necessary by the Constitutional Amendment. The President disapproved of that part of the proposed legislation with reference to War-Time Prohibition because of the emergencies of the War, whose objects had been satisfied in the demobilization of the Army and Navy, and whose repeal he had already sought at the hands of Congress. Where the purposes of particular legislation arising out of War emergency have been satisfied, he held that sound public policy made clear the reason and necessity for repeal. It would not be difficult for Congress to separate these two questions and effectively to legislate regarding them, making the proper distinction between temporary causes which arose out of the War-Time emergencies and those like the Constitutional Amendment of Prohibition, which was now part of the fundamental law of the country.

#### The War-Time Prohibition Act

The War-Time Prohibition Act, passed by Congress on August 29, 1918, before the War had ended and signed by President Wilson on November 21, ten days after the Armistice, became effective July 1, 1919. This act made unlawful the sale of intoxicating liquors of all description for the duration of the War, or until the complete demobilization of the United States Army had been accomplished.

The Brewers and Distillers Association, at Chicago, on January 8, 1919, took steps to test the constitutionality both of the War-Time Prohibition Act and the Constitutional Prohibition Act. They contended that the 18th Amendment was unconstitutional under Article X, which provides that powers not delegated to the Federal Government by the Constitution, nor prohibited by it to the states, shall be reserved to the states respectively. On the same day, the United States Supreme Court sustained the constitutionality of the Webb-Kenyon Act, forbidding the shipment of liquor into "dry" territory. It was deduced from this decision that the same conclusions would apply to the National Prohibition Act when brought up for review.

On March 19th, the United Brewers' Association applied to the Federal District Court in New York for an injunction restraining the Collector of Internal Revenue and the United States District Attorney from beginning any proceedings to interfere with the Hoffman Brewing Company's production of beer of 2.75 per cent alcoholic content. The complaint challenged the Revenue Department's definition of "intoxicants" as without legal authority; it also challenged the constitutionality of the War-Time Prohibition Act, forbidding the manufacture after May 1st and the sale after July 1st of intoxicants. Federal Judge Mayer on May 23d, granted the injunction asked for, pending the court's decision on the legality of the Act.

#### Various Court Decisions

The Rhode Island Assembly passed, and Gov. Beekman signed, a resolution directing the Attorney-



General to secure from the United States Supreme Court a determination of the constitutionality of the Prohibition Amendment.

Attorney-General Palmer announced on June 30th, that the Department of Justice, while enforcing the War-Time Prohibition Act, would make no arrests except in test cases until the courts had passed on the question of what constituted an "intoxicating" beverage.

Federal Judge Anderson in Boston held, on July 15th, that the sale of non-intoxicating beer was not illegal. In Pittsburgh, Federal Judge Thompson overruled the demurrers of local brewing companies to charges of violating the War-Time Prohibition Act. In New Orleans, Federal Judge Foster sustained a demurrer filed by a brewing company to an indictment charging that the manufacture of beer of 1 per cent alcoholic content was in violation of the War-Time Prohibition Act. Federal Judge Chatfield of Brooklyn, in a test case brought by the United States Government, held that beer of 2.75 per cent alcoholic content was intoxicating. Federal Judge Page in Chicago ruled that the manufacture or sale of malt beverages containing one-half of 1 per cent or more of alcohol was illegal.

#### Repeal by Referendum Attempted

Counsel for the brewers and distillers contended that, inasmuch as 45 state legislatures had ratified the Amendment, it would be void if the voters in ten of the states where the referendum has been instituted should reverse the action of their legislatures. The states in which the referendum proceedings were invoked are: Michigan, Ohio, Missouri, Arkansas, New Mexico, Colorado, Nebraska, Washington, California, Nevada, Maine, Oklahoma, Oregon, Utah and Idaho. Of these 15 states, the petitions were rejected in Oregon, Utah and Idaho.

#### President Seeks Its Repeal

When the 66th Congress was assembled in extraordinary session on May 17th, President Wilson cabled from Paris a message urging the repeal of the War-Time Prohibition Act on the ground that demobilization had progressed far enough to make it safe to allow beers and wines to be sold, combined with the statement that the President himself had

not the authority to raise the ban. Congress, however, was obdurate.

As July 1st drew near, the brewers renewed their efforts to induce President Wilson, by special order, to lift the ban so far as it applied to beers and light wines. The President, on June 28th, replied that the failure of Congress to act on his suggestion of May 21st, made it impossible for him to lift the ban, for by the terms of the Act War-Time Prohibition was to end, not with the signing of Peace, but with the termination of the demobilization of troops, and there were still 1,000,000 United States soldiers bearing arms. He promised to use his power of repeal as soon as demobilization had been completed.

#### Bitter Debate in Congress

A bitter debate on the War-Time Prohibition question was precipitated in the House on July 11th, when five members of the House Judiciary Committee, in a minority report, recommended that Congress should repeal the War-Time Prohibition Act or else lift the ban on beer and light wines. The "dry" partisans, however, marshaled their forces and by a large majority rejected the recommendation.

#### No Absolute Prohibition in July

Although the War-Time Prohibition Act became effective in July, 1919, the sale of beer and wine continued over thousands of bars in every state in the Union, and even ardent liquors were sold in many places. Some arrests were made, but pending a decision by the Supreme Court determining what percentage of alcohol renders a beverage "intoxicating" the policy of federal, state and municipal authorities seemed to be to allow the dealers to sell at their own risk.

#### Organized Labor Opposes Prohibition

Organized labor went on record against prohibition. At the annual convention of the American Federation of Labor in Atlantic City, a resolution protesting against prohibition was adopted "unless 2.75 per cent beer was exempted." The Woman's Trade Union League, with a membership of 500,000, were said to be opposed to the War-Time Prohibition Act and "willing to campaign at the polls to sustain their position."

ITALY. SEPT. — DEC.

## D'Annunzio, Poet-Soldier, with 9,000 Rebels Seizes Fiume

Italy Blockades the Port, But Afterward Raises the Blockade. France and England Arrange a Settlement but President Wilson Objects

SECTION 27—1919

ITALY had been in a state of ferment ever since the Peace Conference declared its intention to internationalize the city and port of Fiume, which the Italians claimed on three grounds: First, their historic right to Fiume as ancient Italian territory which Austria had seized from them; second, by right of conquest; and third, its concession to Italy under the terms of the secret treaty signed by Great Britain, France and Italy, before the latter's entrance into the World War.

The Government of Italy, while hoping to regain possession of Fiume, still was disposed to abide by

the decision of the Peace Conference. The great majority of the Italian people, on the other hand, were in favor of seizing Fiume as of right and holding it against all odds.

Impelled by what he conceived to be the national voice of Italy, Gabrielle D'Annunzio, the poet-soldier, who had served during the War with marked distinction as a captain in the aviation corps, at the head of a body of 9,000 troops, took possession of the city of Fiume on September 17, 1919.

Three days later a fleet of Italian airplanes, landing near Fiume, was placed at the disposal of D'An-



nunzio, but a brigade of Lombardy troops, which had marched to Fiume to participate in the great adventure, was sent back to its garrison because of lack of food. Five thousand Volunteers, after debarking at Fiume from the steamer Prince Hohenlohe, were also turned back.

#### Attempt to Starve Out D'Annunzio Fails

The Italian Government endeavored to suppress the insurrection by establishing a blockade of Fiume, yet so universal was the sympathy of the Italian people with D'Annunzio in his enterprise that he received food supplies in abundance. The Italian Government thereupon issued an ultimatum, ordering Capt. D'Annunzio to return to Rome with his troops by September 21st, but the poet-soldier refused to obey the mandate, saying that he would "defend to the last breath the honor of Italy and the Army before the cowardly, vile world."

In a subsequent proclamation, appealing to the Italian people, D'Annunzio declared: "God is with us and so all will turn out as sworn by us. Have faith, pray in your churches, your homes, in public places. Let every place be a temple. Pray for the whole victory on behalf of the dead, for these brethren are now rejoicing that Fiume rules itself. One wish among us all unites our minds in one only thought: Fiume today is Italy's."

#### D'Annunzio Pledges His Life to the Cause

D'Annunzio commandeered all food supplies in Fiume, expelled all foreigners from the city, arrested a thousand or more of the Jugo-Slavs, and finally in his airplane flew above the Italian fleet, dropping pamphlets containing his proclamations and invitations for support.

Gen. Bodoglio, Italian Chief of Staff in the armistice zone, countered by sending an airplane over Fiume, from which dropped printed orders calling upon D'Annunzio's troops to return to duty with the Italian Army not later than September 18th.

D'Annunzio retorted, in an address to his officers, saying:

"The true Army is here, formed by you, combatants without fear and without reproach. You are accomplishing a work of regeneration. The deserters are those who abandon our Fiume, committing the basest crime ever committed upon earth. I will answer for you with my head, my spirit, my whole self. Be faithful to Fiume, be true to Italy, nobody can move us from here. For myself, I shall not leave here alive, nor shall I leave here when I am dead, as I shall be buried here, to become one with this sacred soil."

#### American Marines Disperse Italian Raiders

The Italian Government, convinced at last that the nation applauded D'Annunzio's adventure, appealed to the Allied Powers on September 22d to send an armed force, exclusive of Italians, to recapture Fiume.

The crisis became acute on September 24th, when an Italian detachment, with several armored motor cars, crossed the Armistice Zone at Trau, Dalmatia, 150 miles southeast of Fiume, and engaged the Jugo-Slav soldiers stationed there. These raiders were, however, dispersed by a company of American Marines under Admiral Knapp, who debarked from their ship at the request of the Italian authorities. The Jugo-Slav Armies prepared to march on D'Annunzio's forces at Fiume, but were dissuaded by the Americans.

Meanwhile, President Wilson had rejected the compromise plan to make Fiume an Italian city with

an internationalized port, and all Italy was swept with indignation. The Socialists showed their hostility to the Italian Government, but the great mass of the Italian people apparently were enthusiastic supporters of D'Annunzio.

#### Matter Referred to Italian People

D'Annunzio now extended his cordon beyond the city of Fiume, as far as the Jugo-Slav settlement of Sussak, apparently bent on the conquest of Dalmatia. In this crisis, King Victor Emmanuel, on September 25th, called an extraordinary meeting of the Crown Council to consult with the leaders of Parliament. At this meeting it was proposed that a general election be called to determine the will of the Italian people.

On September 27th, the Chamber of Deputies passed a vote of confidence in Prime Minister Nitti, head of the Government, the session being marked by great tumult and even by personal encounters.

Foreign Minister Tittoni, after advising that Italy remain in unity with the Allies, declared that responsibility for the Fiume crisis rested with President Wilson, who, he said, had become "dictator of the Supreme Council" by reason of America's part in the ultimate winning of the War and her control of food and fuel supplies. Nevertheless, in his opinion, the uncompromising attitude of President Wilson toward Italy's claims, and the support given him by Great Britain and France, made compromise on the part of Italy expedient. The Chamber of Deputies thereupon issued a call for general elections for November 16th.

#### War Against Jugo-Slavia Declared

D'Annunzio, on September 30th, declared war against Jugo-Slavia. The French troops had all left Fiume and the regular Italian troops were fraternizing with D'Annunzio's volunteers on the Armistice Line. Troops had been sent also to the first line of reserve prepared for any emergency. The Jugo-Slav leaders professed to hold D'Annunzio in disdain, characterizing his declaration of war as "only a continuation of his cinematographic procedure."

#### Blockade of Fiume Is Raised

The National Council of Fiume, despite the report that it possessed food supplies sufficient to the needs of the 30,000 inhabitants for three months, sent a message to Foreign Minister Tittoni, on October 3d, protesting against the blockade of Fiume, and declaring that the city faced imminent starvation. Within 24 hours the Italian Government lifted the food blockade, while continuing to enforce the military blockade.

On October 5th, D'Annunzio issued a proclamation addressed to the Croats, assuring Jugo-Slavia of free access to the sea under Italian control and protesting against Allied interference with Adriatic questions.

Italy once again exploded in wrath on October 8th, when it was reported that the English Under Secretary of State had warned the Italian Ambassador that Italy might be excluded from the alliance if the Fiume controversy were not quickly settled. The report was later found to be without justification.

#### Proposal to Make Fiume a Buffer State

Progress toward an amicable settlement of the controversy was announced on October 10th, the



Italian Government consenting that Fiume should be made a buffer state in connection with the adjacent Dalmatian Coast. D'Annunzio had pledged his followers to oppose such a solution, "to the death", but the Council of Fiume had opposed the plan.

On October 13th, following a conference with King Victor Emmanuel, Foreign Minister Tittoni expressed his confidence in Italy's prompt acceptance of the plan, which he said was based largely on the proposal of President Wilson. Specifically, the new Fiume settlement proposed the annexation to Italy of the district of Velossa, lying between Fiume and Trieste, thereby establishing a joint boundary between the enlarged Italian state and the proposed buffer state of Fiume.

Meanwhile, on October 5th, one Ruggero Gothardi, the self-styled "President of the Democratic Autonomist Party of Fiume," laid before the Peace Conference at Paris an appeal to "save Fiume from ruin."

#### "Pirate Ship", with Rifles Aboard, Reaches Fiume

An open rupture occurred on October 11th, between D'Annunzio and Professor Zanella, leader of an Italian faction in Fiume, which favored an Italian protectorate over the city, but was opposed to Italian annexation of Fiume. On the same day, a "pirate" ship appeared at Fiume with 30,000 rifles consigned to Admiral Kolchak in Russia, the crew having mutinied and compelled the captain to take the ship into the harbor of Fiume.

#### D'Annunzio Meditates a March on Rome

As if aspiring to martyrdom, D'Annunzio announced on October 15th that, if no enemy appeared to attack him in Fiume, he would lead his troops to the gates of Rome.

A day later he addressed a message to Premier Clemenceau of France, asking him to secure a declaration from the Allies making Fiume a free port.

On October 27th, he addressed Americans as "brothers", imploring their aid in Fiume's struggle to secure her liberty.

#### Fiume Votes for Annexation to Italy

The citizens of Fiume, at the elections held on October 27th, voted in favor of annexation to Italy by practically a unanimous vote, girls and women being accorded the franchise. On November 8th, D'Annunzio proposed that Italy return its mandate for Fiume to the Peace Conference and leave to the people of Fiume the determination of its future status, saying that it would be impossible to execute the mandate without shedding fraternal blood and involving the nation in civil war.

#### D'Annunzio Lands on Dalmatian Coast

D'Annunzio's Army in November numbered 50,000 men. With this force he proposed annexing the whole Dalmatian Coast. On the morning of November 15th, before daylight, D'Annunzio sailed from Fiume on the torpedo boat *Nulla*, followed by the war fleet of Admiral Millo, who had sworn allegiance to him.

Arrived at Zara, on the Dalmatian Coast, D'Annunzio landed with 600 troops and made a triumphal entry into the city, amid enthusiastic acclamations from the populace, and announced its occupation.

Returning to Fiume the following day, he received a great ovation.

Alarming rumors were now current. It was said that a part of D'Annunzio's Army were eager to attempt the invasion of Italy, hoping to overthrow the monarchy and establish a republic. It was believed that D'Annunzio's plans also included the invasion of Montenegro.

A Serbian division, 12,000 strong, was concentrated at Spalatto on November 22d, ready to oppose the advance of the Italian insurgents if they approached the city. Neither of these adventures was carried out.

Instead, D'Annunzio evinced a willingness to listen to the proposals of the Italian Government, even consenting to evacuate Fiume and permit the Royalist Army to occupy the city pending an agreement with the Allies.

#### President Wilson Refuses to Compromise

In mid-December, a solution of the Fiume controversy seemed imminent. Premier Nitti and Foreign Minister Tittoni had transmitted to President Wilson the text of a compromise plan. The terms provided that Italy should receive that part of Istria which formed a triangle with its extreme point at Velossa, the line running through the Alps to Mont Maggiore and thence to Fisona. Fiume and the territory to the north, together with some of the islands in the Gulf of Quarnero, was to constitute a buffer state with a special status; Italy was to have no jurisdiction over Fiume's foreign affairs, but the Italianity of the city was to be recognized and safeguarded. Zara was to be constituted a free city and port, represented in its foreign affairs by Italy.

President Wilson refused to indorse this proposal, insisting upon conformity to his original plan. Foreign Minister Tittoni, as a result of this failure, resigned his office; he was superseded by Signor Scialoja.

#### Italy Proposes New Terms

On January 5th, a conference was held at London between the Italian statesmen and Premiers Lloyd George and Clemenceau. The conference was continued at Paris on January 11th, when the whole Adriatic question was considered. Four days later the conferees reached an agreement to which it was hoped the United States would assent. The Italians withdrew their claims to the whole of Dalmatia and the adjacent islands, excepting the city of Zara. They agreed to the internationalization of the port and railway of Fiume, and the Italianization of Istria as far as Fiume.

This agreement, acceptable to France and England, was taken to Belgrade for approval, with the warning that if not accepted by the Jugo-Slavs, it would be necessary to put in execution the Treaty of London, by the terms of which Italy would be privileged to annex all the territories promised her by the Allies in the London Pact of 1914.

#### Jugo-Slavs Balk at the Terms

The Jugo-Slav decision, reached on January 20th, was deemed indefinite and likely to wreck all hopes of an immediate settlement of the Adriatic problem. The Jugo-Slavs, while accepting six of the Allied propositions, still refused to consent to any change



in the frontier line as outlined by President Wilson, whether on the Senozziche-Karinthia side or on the Volosca-Abbozia side.

Italy replied that she had made her utmost concessions and that if these were not accepted her only recourse was to insist on the execution of the Pact of London.

#### Supreme Council Warns Jugo-Slavia

The Supreme Council summoned the Jugo-Slav Government to send a definite reply not later than January 27, 1920. The reply, when forthcoming, rejected the proposed Adriatic compromise plan and sought to continue negotiations along the line of the proposals made by President Wilson in 1919. As to the Pact of London, the Jugo-Slavs protested that they had no official knowledge of it.

After long deliberation, the Allies refused to reopen the negotiations with Jugo-Slavia, commanding the Serbian Government on February 12th to accept unchanged the Franco-British proposals. Public

sentiment in Serbia promptly expressed itself in meetings of protest.

#### President Wilson's Stand

President Wilson, on February 14, 1920, warned the Allies that if the Adriatic question were settled without the concurrence of the United States Government, he might withdraw the Versailles Treaty from Senate consideration and demand the abrogation of the Pact of London.

Meanwhile, D'Annunzio was displaying militant activity at Fiume. He seized a government merchant ship bearing stores and 2,000,000 lire for the Italian Army of Occupation, besides two torpedo boats and an Italian destroyer carrying munitions and food-stuffs for the Italian naval forces. He also ordered the arrest of Gen. Nigra, who had criticised him, but afterward released him. Newspapers were forbidden to publish without his consent. The conscription of five classes of Fiume citizens "for defence of the city" was ordered by him.

#### ARMENIA—OCTOBER

### Turks and Tartars Massacre the Armenians and Greeks

England and France, Engrossed in Dividing the Spoils of War  
Ignore the Cries of Christian Nations

#### SECTION 28—1919

Turkish Armies, 300,000  
Mustapha Kemal, Commander-in-chief  
Col. Khalil Bey, Tartar Commander

Armenian Forces, 10,000

THE military power of Turkey, supposedly destroyed in 1918 by the British successes in Palestine and Mesopotamia, was revived in 1919. Great numbers of former Turkish soldiers, in loosely organized bands, swept over Asia Minor and the Caucasus, wreaking vengeance particularly on the Armenians and the Greeks. Assisted by savage Kurds and Tartars, these "Turkish Nationals", as they came to be known, sought to regain control of the old Ottoman possessions.

By the terms of the Armistice, Armenia had been left undefended by Allied troops and no provision had been made for the evacuation of the Turks from Armenia and Syria. The young Turks, thoroughly Prussianized, took advantage of this opportunity to resume the massacre of Armenians. As early as February, 1919, 1,000 Armenians had perished at the hands of the Turks and Tartars.

The little Armenian Republic, with an army numbering 10,000, was entirely surrounded by a cordon of Turco-Tartar Governments determined to destroy the new and struggling nation. It was the plan of the Young Turks, first to cut off Russian Armenia from so-called Turkish Armenia and, secondly, to exterminate the whole race which had stood for so many centuries as the outpost of Christian civilization in the East.

The Turks were emboldened to resume their warfare by the failure of the Supreme Allied Council at Paris to agree upon the dismemberment of the Turkish empire. The Council had considered a joint mandate over Turkey and Armenia, enabling both nations to have a separate autonomous government with a governor-general over all. The Armenians, desirous of breaking away from all semblance of union with the Turkish Government, had demanded an independ-

ent government, preferably under the mandate of the United States. More explicitly, they desired to link the new Armenian Republic on the Black Sea with Turkish Armenia, thus connecting Armenian territory from the Black Sea down to the Mediterranean and also including Cilicia and the littoral of Trebizonde. This union, if effected, would embrace a population of 3,000,000 Armenians as against an alien population of 1,500,000. President Wilson, when urged to accept a mandate for the new Armenia, replied that he would not advocate such a solution without first consulting the United States Senate.

#### England Declines to Help the Armenians

Meanwhile the Armenians were dying by thousands from starvation, the relief supplies sent from America having been held up by the Turks, with no hand to stay them. Although strong representations were made by Herbert Hoover and Major Joseph C. Green, directors of the American Relief Administrations work, that the Armenians would soon be exterminated unless the British Government should take immediate steps to clear all Russian Armenia of Turkish and Tartar forces, the British officials in the East refused to act, saying that "orders from higher up" prevented their interference. Tory England had no intention, as we shall see in the developments of the succeeding months, to withdraw her protection utterly from Turkey, whose bloody hands she had sustained for seventy years during the whole period of Christian massacres.

#### England and France Quarrel Over Syria

The situation in Armenia grew rapidly worse. In July, 1919, Major Green reported to President Wilson that the Turks and Tartars were advancing from three sides in the districts of Karabagh and Alagbez. They were then in occupancy of most all the



reopened territory of Russian Armenia. American relief depots and trains had been seized; the Armenian people and government, in despair of British or Allied protection, had ordered a general mobilization, taking all able-bodied men from the harvest fields to assist in repelling the invaders.

Meanwhile the settlement of the whole complex question was being seriously retarded by a conflict of British and French ambitions regarding the control of Syria. France had a prior claim on Syria, yet British troops occupied the land and the French were vainly appealing for their withdrawal. By a treaty entered into between France and England in 1916, France was empowered to administer the Syrian coast as far north as Aintab, and other parts of Syria were to be under French supervision, while England was to have the whole of Mesopotamia, with Bagdad, plus the seaports of Akka and Haifa, just south of the French line where it reached the Syrian coast.

Britain's recognition of its puppet, the "King of the Hedjas", however, had wiped out practically the whole French claim under the Treaty to a large section of Syria. The British at first refused to leave the zone, they even expelled the French troops from the regions in dispute.

While England and France were thus parcelling out the earth's surface between themselves, and subjecting additional millions of unwilling peoples to their rule, their armies held aloof while the detestable Turks and Tartars, the former wards of England, France and Germany, were massacring the Christian Armenians and Greeks and seizing the American supplies sent to a starving people.

#### Young Turk Army Numbers 40,000

Encouraged by the passivity of Great Britain and France, the Young Turks, under the generalship of Mustapha Kemal, by October, 1919, were able to organize an army of 40,000 and set up a Turkish Nationalist Government at Konieb, a railroad center

virtually dominating Southern Asia Minor. Associated with the Turks was a large force of Tartars under command of Khalil Bey. In a hypocritical proclamation Mustapha promised to safeguard the lives of all persons, without distinction of race or religion, though his unspeakable hordes even then were slaughtering the Christian Armenians under the nodding eyes of the British officials. He also brazenly demanded the privilege of applying President Wilson's principle of self-determination to the Turkish nation, by which he meant that Turkey should be permitted to hold Christian nations in subjection as of yore. At the same time he professed toleration for the independent Armenian Republic and promised that the lives and property of the Armenians should be respected.

Despite these hypocritical promises, the Turks, in alliance with the savage Kurds and Tartars, fell upon the unarmed populations of Armenia, expelling them from their villages and killing them without mercy, while England and France were still so busily engaged with their Imperial adventure that they found no opportunity to go to the aid of the distressed Christians. Col. William Haskell, head of the Allied High Commission, in Armenia, in October, reported that the Turks had compelled the Armenians to abandon Igdirdir and were threatening the cities of Kars and Erivan. This warfare had largely increased the number of refugees to be taken care of by the United States and made uncertain the shipments of food supplies from the Kuban district. He estimated there were 800,000 destitute Armenians who required immediate assistance.

#### A Moslem-Bolshevist Revolt in Kurdistan

The Bolsheviki of Russia and the Arabian-Moslems of Kurdistan formed an alliance in December. Under the guidance of Enver Bey, the former Minister-of-War of Turkey, who had been the subservient ally of Germany throughout the War, the Moslems and Bolsheviki proclaimed a Moslem-Bolshevik government in Kurdistan.

### UNITED STATES—AUGUST

## Government Ownership of Railroads Urged by Brotherhoods

The "Plumb Plan" of Railway Nationalization—\$800,000,000 Wage Increase Demanded with Alternative of a General Tie-Up—Railroads Returned to Private Ownership

### SECTION 29—1919

THE United States Government, in taking over control of the principal American railroads in 1919, as a War measure, expressly stipulated that these properties should be returned to their owners when the exigencies of war expired. Subsequently, the date for the restoration of the railroads to private control was fixed for January 1, 1920. Before this decree could be carried out, the four powerful Railroad Brotherhoods, together with ten affiliated organizations of the American Federation of Labor, numbering 2,200,000 men, declared against the return of the railroads to private control, urging instead the nationalization of all rail lines on a profit-sharing basis.

This revolutionary plan, so indicative of the paternalistic tendencies of the times, was first proposed

in a bill presented before Congress by Representative Sims, Democrat, on August 2, 1919, incorporating the features of a scheme of railway nationalization devised by Glenn E. Plumb, and thenceforth known as the "Plumb Plan." Coupled with the general proposal for Government Ownership was a peremptory demand for an immediate increase of wages for all railroad employees amounting in the aggregate to \$800,000,000.

#### Economics of the "Plumb Plan"

Starting with the proposition that Labor faces a persistently serious situation, due to the cost of living and the impossibility of wages keeping pace with the depreciation of money, the Railway Brotherhoods contended that, in the strife for wage increases, no



permanent victory can be gained, inasmuch as increased wages are always overcapitalized for inflated profits and the cost of goods mounts faster than the wage level. Any basic change must begin with the railroads. The interests of Labor and the public are held to be identical in the railroad question.

Not only has Labor suffered from inadequate wages, but the public has paid an extortionate tax for transportation, a tax based on inflated values and collected from every person buying the necessities of life. Now the Brotherhoods propose to operate the railroads democratically, in accordance with the principle enunciated by President Wilson in his message of May 20, 1919, when he declared for the "genuine democratization of industry, based upon a full recognition of the right of those who work, in whatever rank, to participate in some organic way in every decision which directly affects their welfare in the part they are to play in industry; a genuine co-operation and partnership based upon real community of interest and participation in control."

Answering the argument that Labor is merely asking the public to let the workers become the railroad profiteers in place of Wall Street, the proponents protested that, while asking for a share of the surplus at the end of each year, they still provide an automatic reduction in rates when this surplus comes to a certain level. Before restoring the surplus, the employees of the railroads must first increase the efficiency of their management and then invite new business. What they propose is to share in any savings which accrue from economies they themselves may introduce and to share also in any surplus from new business which their efficiency may make possible.

The rights of the public, they aver, are protected under this plan, since the final check upon railroad management remains with the Interstate Commerce Commission. If the new corporation should attempt to pay itself excessive returns and produce a deficit, the lease is forfeitable. The public is assured of immediate and enormous savings under this unified system. The cost of capital would be reduced from 7 per cent now paid to Wall Street to 4 per cent paid upon Government securities. The savings effected by increased production, due to efficient democratic operation, would be incalculable.

Finally the Brotherhoods contended that their plan, in reducing transportation charges "in surprising measure", would prove the first and most important step in any constructive effort to lower the cost of living.

#### Specific Features of the "Plumb Plan"

The specific features of the "Plumb Plan" may be summarized in this wise:

1. Purchase by the Government on valuation as determined finally by the courts.
2. Operation by a directorate of fifteen members, five to be chosen by the President to represent the public, five to be elected by the operating officials and five by the classified employees.
3. Equal division of surplus, after paying fixed charges and operating costs, between the public and the employees.
4. Automatic reduction of rates when the employees' share of surplus is more than 5 per cent of gross operating revenue.
5. Regional operation as a unified system.
6. Building of extensions at expense of the communities benefited, in proportion to the benefit.

#### League for Public Ownership Formed

The "Plumb Plan", for public ownership of the railroads, enlisted the immediate support of all the

organized railway employees of America, together with the American Federation of Labor, the Non-Partisan League, various farmers' organizations and civic bodies, as the only rational solution of the railroad problem. A Plumb Plan League was formed and a publicity campaign wide in scope was started; it was even proposed to form a new political party to bring the issue squarely before the voters.

#### Railroad Shopmen Strike

President Wilson, meantime, had proposed to Congress the creation of a Federal Wage Commission, with power to adjust railway rates to wage increases. This proposal was rejected on August 4th by the House Interstate Commerce Committee, and the Cummins Bill, restoring the rate-making power to the Interstate Commerce Commission, was reported out.

The railroad shopmen, through their officials, rejected the scheme of a Federal Wage Commission, and served notice on President Wilson and on Railway Director Hines that unless Congress should consent to their wage demands, the railroad system would be tied up by a strike beginning not later than September 2d.

Director Hines protested there was no money available to meet the wage demands of the railway shopmen.

In a second communication to Director Hines, the railway shopmen on August 5th demanded an immediate increase in wages, totaling \$165,000,000. The associated Labor Unions pressed their demands for wage increases totaling \$635,000,000 on the following day. Without allowing the Government time to consider the colossal wage demands, many of the shopmen, without authority from their official organization, went on strike. The situation was rendered still more acute by a strike threat made by the Association of Railway Clerks.

#### President Wilson Orders Strikers to Resume Work

President Wilson on August 7th called a halt on the rebellious railroad shopmen. He authorized Director General Hines to say to the impetuous shop employees that the wage question they had raised would be dealt with in a spirit of fairness, and by regular methods only, through the duly chosen international officers of the regularly constituted organization and their authorized committees, but that inasmuch as they had gone out on strike and repudiated the authority of their officers, there could be no consideration of the matter in controversy until the employees should have returned to work and again recognized the authority of their own organization.

The car and shop repair men in Chicago, 24,000 strong, voted to resist the President's ultimatum, but elsewhere the railway shopworkers were more amenable to reason, and in a few days nearly all of them returned to work.

#### Opposition to the Plumb Plan

Glenn E. Plumb, author of the Railroad Nationalization Plan bearing his name, was summoned before the House Interstate Commerce Committee on August 7th, to explain certain charges made by him against the Railway Administration. In the course of his radical utterances, he intimated that a "Revolution" would occur within three months if



the demands of Organized Labor were not met by the Government. He qualified this statement by saying that the Revolution he had in mind would take the form of a general strike of the workingmen of the nation unless their condition was materially improved. He charged "Wall Street" with planning to wreck the rail system at the expense of the investors through a systematic plundering of all the transportation highways of the United States. He also said the Plumb Plan would be made an issue in the next presidential campaign.

The Plumb Plan, besides being repudiated by the Chamber of Commerce of the United States, was denounced as Socialistic and an example of the Russian Bolshevistic system by ex-President Taft, and in general it encountered a storm of protest on all sides. The railroad employees themselves had begun to recede from their extreme position after President Wilson had adjured them to "act like true Americans." Finally the plan of forcing the Plumb Plan through Congress by the employment of the general strike and by coercion of individual legislators was abandoned.

#### Railroads Returned to Private Ownership

On November 15th, Director General Hines submitted to the Railway Brotherhoods an increased wage scale amounting to \$36,000,000 a year, affecting trainmen, firemen, engineers, and conductors, but more particularly the underpaid employees in the slow freight train service.

The net loss to the Government in the operating expenses of the railroads for the ten months of 1919 ending with October was \$269,078,158.

The Railroad Brotherhoods and the Federation of Labor, on December 17th, petitioned President Wilson to defer action on the return of the railroads to private ownership for two years. In their peti-

tion they argued that the return of the railroads, as clearly shown by the report of the Interstate Commerce Commission, will involve an increase in freight revenue of close to a billion dollars, the rates being increased by 25 to 50 per cent. This increase in rates it was estimated will be reflected in an increased cost of living of at least \$4,000,000,000 a year. "The American people cannot and should not stand such increases."

Moreover, Government operation, as reported by Director General Hines, showed a net profit at the rate of \$168,000,000 a year for the three months prior to the coal strike.

The Senate was asked to investigate serious charges preferred against certain officials of railroads, during the period of Federal control, to the effect that they had wilfully and purposely attempted to discredit Government operation. They asked that a more thorough and consistent trail of Government operation be made under peace conditions.

A bill offered by Senator La Follette, to authorize the continuance of Government operation of railroads for two years, was rejected by the Senate, 65 to 11. The bill introduced by Senator Cummins of Iowa, authorizing the return of the railroads to private ownership, and containing a provision forbidding all strikes of railway employees, was passed by the Senate on December 20th, by a vote of 46 to 30. The conflicting Esch bill at the same time passed the House of Representatives. Both bills were referred to a joint standing committee in the expectation of fusing them into one organic law.

President Wilson, on December 24th, announced by proclamation that the railroads and express companies would be returned to private ownership on March 1, 1920.

UNITED STATES. — OCTOBER

## Industrial Conference Tries to Solve Labor Problems in America

### Labor Representatives Quit Conference When Capitalists Insist Upon the "Open Shop"

SECTION 30—1919

AT the height of the American Labor disturbances, on October 6, 1919, President Wilson from his sick bed called an Industrial Conference at Washington in the hope of finding a solution of America's increasing Labor troubles. Three main groups of delegates, representative of the Employers, the Employees and the Public, participated in the conference. Men and women of high distinction in the social, financial, industrial, educational and economic spheres were assembled to consider fundamental means of bettering the whole relationship of Labor and Capital, to discuss means of bettering the whole relationship of Labor and Capital, to discuss the public's interest in strikes and lockouts, Labor's right of collective bargaining, and the question of the closed shop.

The Public Group included President Emeritus Eliot of Harvard, John D. Rockefeller, Jr., Judge Elbert H. Gary, H. B. Endicott of Dedham, John Spargo, Charles Edward Russell, and Ida M. Tarbell. Or-

ganized Labor was represented by Samuel Gompers, together with Federation of Labor executives, chiefs of the Railroad Brotherhoods, and others. The Employers' Group was represented by Chamber of Commerce officials, delegates from the Investment Bankers' Association, Farmers' Organization officials, and other financiers.

Secretary of Labor Wilson, in calling the Conference to order, struck the keynote in his address. The industrial world, he said, was facing a crisis, due to the wastages of war and the financial inflation prevailing in all commercial countries, which had raised havoc with the relative values of money, wages and commodities. The effect of these things has been reflected in the high cost of living and the consequent demand for higher wage rates to meet the increasing burden of the family budget. Yet increases in the wage rate do not always give relief. Increased production alone will replace the wastage of war, restore the normal price levels and abolish



the opportunity for profiteering. The maintenance of industrial peace is essential to increased production, but there can be no permanent industrial peace that is not based upon industrial justice. Surely, he opined, human intelligence can devise some way of adjusting the relationship between employer and employee.

Voting was determined by groups. If the three groups could reach no agreement, the result would be nullified. A Committee of Fifteen was selected to pass upon all suggestions before they were submitted to the Conference. Franklin K. Lane, Secretary of the Interior, was chosen as permanent Chairman. In a stirring address, he expressed the hope that "ignorance and arrogance should have no place in this country on any matter, whether political, social or industrial."

#### Secretary Wilson's Plan

Secretary Wilson, on October 7th, outlined a plan for the adjustment of Labor disputes, whereby joint boards of employers and employees in each industry should act in case of imminent strikes and lockouts, appeals being taken to a general board appointed by the President of the United States, and an umpire drawn by lot if the general board should fail to agree.

Among the proposals made were these: That an industrial truce be declared for three months; that employers and employees in each plant be allowed to determine the method of improving conditions; that a National Board of Conciliation and Arbitration be appointed.

#### Labor's Eleven Proposals

The Labor Bloc reported a resolution embodying eleven proposals, including the right of workers to organize in trade unions; the right of collective bargaining; that wage earners be allowed to choose their own representatives; freedom of speech, press and assemblage; the eight-hour day; the "living wage as that is understood in this time and country"; equal pay for women and men in equal work; no employment of children under 16 years of age for private gain; a National Conference Board for the settlement of industrial disputes; that all immigration be prohibited for a period of two years after the ratification of the Peace Treaty, and thereafter regulated with due regard to the employment situation.

#### The Open Shop Issue

The growing dissensions between the Employer Group and the Labor Group increased at the session on October 10th, when the employers insisted on retaining the open shop and on the right to deal exclusively with their employees, rather than with delegated agents of the labor unions.

The Employer Group enunciated twelve principles which they held should govern the relations of employer and workmen, including "the adjustment of wages according to demand and supply", with equal wages for men and women under equal conditions, and a system of bonuses, profit-sharing and stock ownership to be worked out if possible; the fixing of hours of labor "according to necessities of health and leisure"; right of free association of workmen for collective action, but with no compulsion over those who remain outside such association; the right of all

individuals to enter into lawful contract; no interference with the open shop; the right of strike and lockout in private industries granted as an ultimate recourse after all possible means of adjustment are exhausted; sympathetic strikes and lockouts; blacklists and boycotts all to be condemned; public utility and Government service to be made continuous, independent of any private associations, subject to state or Government means for redress of grievances; practical plan to be inaugurated in industry and outside of it for the training and upgrading of industrial workers, vocational education and apprenticeship.

#### Dodging the Steel Strike Issue

At the session on October 14th, Samuel Gompers offered a resolution "that the steel strike be suspended while arbitration by the conference proceeded." The Employer Group voted solidly against it. Dr. Eliot of the Public Group opposed the strike resolution as not germane, the conference having been asked to consider "new" and not existing relations between Capital and Labor. An amendment providing for the return of the steel workers on the basis of a settlement by separate shop committees for each plant was also rejected.

Samuel Gompers warned the delegates of the gravity of the steel strike; assured them that "the men and women of America are determined not to return again to pre-war conditions and concepts"; declared that Labor demands a voice, "not as suppliants, but by right" in the determination of the conditions under which service is rendered; and bade the delegates consider that, if the strikers are crushed, capital must bear the consequences of what might follow. No vote was taken that day or the next on the Gompers' resolution.

#### The Right to Collective Bargaining

The break between Capital and Organized Labor widened at the session on October 17th, when the Committee of Fifteen presented a resolution declaring the right of wage earners to collective bargaining and to be represented in their dealings with employers by agents of their own choosing. Despite earnest pleas from the other groups, the Employers vehemently opposed the resolution. The Labor Group threatened to withdraw from the conference if the resolution was re-committed.

On the following day the Employers offered a substitute resolution, in which the right of collective bargaining was conceded, but the Employers reserved the right to deal or not to deal with men or groups of men who are not their employees and chosen by and among them. Both resolutions were then referred to the Committee of Fifteen.

#### Labor Group Withdraws from Conference

The battle over the dual principle of Labor's right of collective bargaining, and of representation by delegates of its own choosing, was fought to a finish on October 21st. Five resolutions, recognizing the rights of Labor, were successively defeated by the negative votes of the Employers' Group and a resolution in favor of the settlement of the steel strike by arbitration was also defeated by a decisive vote. President Wilson, in a message dispatched from his bed of sickness, sought to compose the differences of the rival groups, but in vain. Samuel Gompers



made a final effort to persuade the Employers to indorse the Labor Union Program, but to no purpose. Seeing the futility of further discussion, the Labor Group thereupon withdrew from the Conference.

When the Conference re-opened on October 23d, both the Public Group and the Employers' Group were present. By authority of President Wilson, the chairman announced that the presence of the Employers in future conferences would be unnecessary, as they had ceased to be members together with the Labor Group. The Public Group alone continued the work of the Conference, but they adjourned without date on October 29th, after recommending that President Wilson call a new conference.

#### New Industrial Conference Called

The International Labor Conference, with its three groups of warring interests, having failed to solve the labor question, President Wilson attempted by a new method to reach an understanding between Capital and Labor.

On November 20th, the President invited 17 distinguished men to sit as an Industrial Board at Washington, on December 1st, and endeavor to compose the difficulties existing in the industrial world.

There were no representatives of Labor included in the personnel, nor representatives of Capital as such.

The conferees included three former Cabinet officials, three former Governors of States and two former Federal officials, with Secretary of Labor Wilson. The meetings of this Industrial Board were held in secret.

On December 28th, the Board set forth a tentative plan for the settlement of Labor disputes. The plan provided for the establishment of twelve Regional Boards of Inquiry and Adjustment, one for each of twelve industrial regions covering America, with authority to pass upon Labor disputes. If any or all of these Regional Boards failed to compose the difficulties that arose in the industrial world, appeal might be taken to a National Industrial Tribunal of nine members, to be appointed by the President and confirmed by the Senate, with headquarters in Washington.

Samuel Gompers, President of the American Federation of Labor, objected to the plan of the Industrial Board for its "fatal omission" to recognize Trade Unions definitely, and Secretary Frank Morrison challenged the plan because it ignored the principle of collective bargaining and the necessity for organizations of workers.

## Working Women's International Congress

A Congress of International Working Women was held at Washington, D. C., in October, twelve nations being represented by 50 delegates. Interest centered largely in a proposal to prohibit night work for men and women in all industries except those which may be in continuous operation by reason of public necessity.

The delegates from the United States, France, Belgium, Norway, Sweden, Czecho-Slovakia and Japan contended for the prohibition of night work for women in all industries and for men in all save continuous industries.

The Congress also discussed the question of maternity benefits, in all its aspects, especially whether such benefits should be paid to all mothers or only wage-earning women at the period of childbirth, and whether the State should make an "adequate allowance" for both mother and child or grant the mother alone a sum equal to the minimum wage paid to women in her own land. Resolutions were adopted for the safeguarding of women in hazardous occupations, including the prohibition of home work in such occupations.

## New Labor Party Formed at Chicago

A Labor Congress was held in Chicago on November 22nd, with 1,000 delegates present as the representatives of Labor Unions, Farmers' Organizations, co-operative Societies, non-partisan advocates, and radicals of all degrees of redness. John Fitz Patrick,

President of the Chicago Federation of Labor, was chairman. The principal work of this Congress was the formation of a new Labor party which was expected to issue a call in the spring of 1920 for a convention to nominate a national ticket.

UNITED STATES — OCTOBER

### International Labor Conference Holds First Session

Declares for the 8-Hour Day, Safeguarding of Child Labor, and Pay for Wage-Earning Women at Time of Childbirth

SECTION 31—1919

**D**ELEGATES representing forty nations were present at the International Labor Conference, provided for in the Treaty of Versailles, which opened its first session at Washington, D. C., on October 29, 1919. The United States was not entitled to official representation in the Conference, due to the Senate's non-acceptance of the Peace Treaty.

Unofficially, however, the Government was represented by Secretary of Labor Wilson, who opened the first session of the Conference and continued as permanent chairman during the greater part of its proceedings. Samuel Gompers, President of the American Federation of Labor, by invitation, sat in the Conference as the unofficial representative of



American Labor. Germany and Austria were unrepresented, although it was the sense of the delegates present that both the former enemy powers should be admitted without delay.

In conformity with a provision of the German Peace Treaty, that eight of the twelve members of the governing body of the Conference should be named by the foremost industrial nations, the following countries were so designated: United States of America, Great Britain, France, Italy, Belgium, Japan, Switzerland and Germany. It was expressly stipulated that Germany should be the last country named and that Spain be not included in the conference.

The chief interest of the session centered in the debate on the eight-hour day. Samuel Gompers asserted that Labor in the United States was bent on shortening the 48-hour week. The question was referred to a committee, composed of delegates representing governments, employers and labor, which reached an agreement on November 22d. The principle of an eight-hour day and a 44-hour week was accepted by international agreement with all countries except Japan, India, and other Oriental nations.

This principle was subject to two qualifications, namely: In all "continuous industries", where a seven-day week is the rule, a 56-hour week was conceded. It was also recommended that the time lost by the granting of a Saturday half holiday, or abstention from work on any other holiday, be made up during the week by an extension of the usual workday, but in no case should the increased day exceed nine hours. All overtime should be paid for at a rate not less than time and a quarter. The labor employed in the devastated regions of France and Belgium was to be considered as employed under special conditions.

A Conference Committee reported in favor of the prohibition of women labor in all industries between

the hours of 10 p. m. and 5 a. m., and it was reported that the Eastern nations are prepared to adhere to the new convention which is intended to supersede that adopted at Berne in 1906.

A Conference Committee agreed on the prohibition of the employment in industry of all children under 14 years of age, except that Japan has agreed to raise the age limit from 9 to 12 years, and India has been asked to do the same, with 14 years fixed as the eventual age standard for all countries.

A Special Commission considered the proposal to definitely limit the hours of work in Eastern countries represented in the Conference.

Other committees were to render reports on non-employment, the employment of women before and after childbirth and the employment of children at night.

William Gemmill, employers' delegate from South Africa, protested against the preponderance of European influence in the governing body, 20 of whose 24 members were from Europe and only two from the Americas. He asked for an expression on his protest, which was supported by a vote of 44 to 39. Arthur Fontaine, Director of the Labor Department of the French Ministry of Labor, said that no unfairness was intended, but inasmuch as the governing board will meet every two months at the seat of the League, it would be more convenient for members from European countries to attend than for those overseas.

Six draft conventions were adopted by the Conference, including those relating to the eight-hour day, the 48-hour week, the alleviation of the unemployment problem and the indemnification of wage-earning mothers at the period of childbirth. This last convention provides for the granting of a six-weeks' leave of absence, both before and after the birth of the child, and the payment, either by the State or by some form of insurance, for the time lost.

UNITED STATES, NOV. 1-DEC. 13

## Bituminous Coal Strike Threatens to Paralyze Industries

400,000 Miners Strike for Six-Hour Work Day and a Five-Day Week

SECTION 32-1919

**J**UST as winter was setting in, on November 1, 1919, Industrial America was threatened with business paralysis by reason of a general strike of 400,000 miners in the bituminous coal fields. The miners had been working during the War period under a wage agreement, made with the sanction of the United States Fuel Administration, and which was to continue up to but not beyond April 1, 1920. This agreement had been repudiated by the mine workers, who justified their action on the ground that the mine owners, by limiting production to six months in the year, had made it impossible for them to earn a living wage.

The miners prepared a new program of mine operation, based upon a six-hour workday, with a guarantee of five days' work each week the year around, coupled with a demand for a 60 per cent increase in wages.

At their convention, held in Cleveland on September 23, 1919, the United Mine Workers had adopted a proposal that all existing contracts in the bituminous

coal fields should be declared as having automatically expired on November 1, 1919.

The mine owners, in rejecting these proposals, called upon the miners to live up to their existing contracts. Refusing to comply, the miners reiterated their threat to call a general strike on November 1st.

Secretary of Labor Wilson interceded with both miners and operators, urging them to agree upon a compromise. Failing to bring either side to terms, he appealed to President Wilson to intervene.

### President Wilson's Position

The President, from his sickbed, dictated a letter in which he proposed that the miners and operators should resume negotiations in an effort to reach a peaceful settlement, failing which the matters would be referred to a board of arbitration, and that the operations of the mines be resumed pending a settlement. The operators accepted, while the miners rejected, President Wilson's proposal.

The President, on October 25th, issued a statement in which he denounced the proposed strike as not



only unjustifiable but unlawful in the circumstances then existing. It constituted, in his opinion, a fundamental attack upon the rights of society and upon the welfare of our country. He requested the miners to recall the strike order, solemnly warning them that the law would be enforced and means found to protect the interests of the nation in any emergency that might arise.

Resolutions were offered in Congress condemning the miners' attitude and promising support to the Government in any action taken. President John L. Lewis of the United Mine Workers, on October 26th, invited the district presidents of the Miners' Union to meet with the International Board and discuss the President's statement, which he characterized as "without warrant of law."

Attorney General Palmer declared that all the resources of Government would be used to prevent the national disaster involved by the threatened strike.

On October 29th, the union officials announced that a strike was inevitable unless a new agreement were signed.

The Southwest Coal Operators agreed to a proposal made by Governor Allen to negotiate a new contract and wage scale for the Kansas district, but Governor Cornwall of West Virginia threatened to treat as "insurrectionists" any miners engaging in an armed uprising and invasion of any parts of the state.

A general meeting of the operators, held in Cleveland on October 30th, saw no way of averting a strike. In Indianapolis the situation was so threatening that the citizens asked the Governor's permission to arm themselves for self-protection. Congress, on October 31st, voted the President its support in maintaining order and the Federal Government took measures to insure the protection of all workers by the forces of the United States.

Meanwhile, the President had approved the re-establishment of the old maximum coal prices as fixed by Fuel Administrator Garfield.

#### Coal Miners Defiant

President Lewis of the Mine Workers' Union, holding that the miners were threatened by a "sanctified peonage", denounced President Wilson and his Cabinet as the allies of "sinister financial interests."

On October 31st, Judge Albert Anderson of the Federal District Court at Indianapolis, issued an injunction restraining John L. Lewis and other officials of the United Mine Workers from taking any further steps in directing the coal strike called for the following day.

President Samuel Gompers of the American Federation of Labor warned that the injunction might result in "new and disturbing issues." He charged the mine operators with curtailing production in order to maintain exorbitant prices for coal, thereby throwing the miners into idleness and reducing their incomes 50 per cent at a time when the cost of living had advanced 100 per cent.

The miners, he said, having reached the limit of human endurance, had sought to exact from the operators a promise of work at least five days during each week throughout the year and a wage sufficient to cover the increased cost of living. But the miners' plea for continuous employment had been refused because it would destroy the mine owners' arrangement to curtail the mining of coal so as

to permit exploiting the public with high and exorbitant prices.

The nation, said Mr. Gompers, was now faced with a coal strike of magnitude, but the Government, instead of dealing with those responsible for this grave menace to the public welfare, now proposes to punish those who have been the victims of the coal barons' exploitation. Mr. Gompers declared that the injunction, though it would not prevent the strike, could only result in creating "new and more disturbing issues, which might not be confined solely to the mines."

#### The Strike Is Begun

On November 1st, 400,000 of the 600,000 miners in the bituminous fields went out on strike, but the non-union miners continued at work. The union leaders remained quiet at their headquarters at Indianapolis. A statement of sympathy with the strikers was issued by the Brotherhood of Railway Trainmen. The Government sent additional troops into West Virginia, Wyoming, Utah, and New Mexico. On November 3d, there were signs of a break in the labor ranks, especially in West Virginia, where 15 union mines resumed operations. Presidents Gompers and Lewis, the following day, announced the willingness of the miners to resume negotiations with the operators, providing the injunction were vacated, but Attorney General Palmer declared that the Government would accept no compromise.

A motion to dissolve the Government's injunction was denied on November 8th, and the miners were commanded to recall the strike order before November 11th. The Executive Committee of the Federation of Labor, on November 9th, denounced the injunction as being "so autocratic as to stagger the human mind", and called on all organized labor in America to support the strikers.

#### Miners Yield to Government

On November 11th, after an all-night session, the miners' officials voted to rescind the strike order, saying they "would not fight the Government." The Federal Government brought the miners and operators together on November 19th for a settlement of their differences. The operators declared that a 60 per cent wage increase could not be granted.

President John L. Lewis charged the operators with receiving 125 per cent more profit for coal in 1919 than in 1914, while the miners' wages showed an increase of only 37 per cent, as against an increase of 110 per cent in the cost of living.

The operators made a proposal of an increase of 15 cents a ton to pick and machine miners and 20 per cent increase for day laborers. The proposal was rejected as "preposterous and ridiculous."

At a subsequent session the miners abandoned their demand for a 30-hour week.

Secretary of Labor Wilson proposed that the miners be granted a 31 per cent increase of wages. The miners acquiesced in this proposal, but the operators rejected it.

#### Deadlock on Wages

At request of the operators, Fuel Administrator Garfield, Railway Director Hines, and Attorney General Palmer conferred on November 23d with the object of finding a solution that would break the



deadlock. It was laid down as a principle of settlement that the public should not be asked to pay more than it was paying for coal unless a reasonable labor wage or a reasonable operating profit justified such advance in price. The operators asserted that their offer of a 20 per cent increase in wages would mean a total wage increase of 80 per cent since 1913, while an increase of 31 per cent at this time would amount to an average increase of 111 per cent over 1913 wages.

#### Inordinate Profits of Mine Operators

William G. McAdoo, who had just resigned his office of Secretary of the Treasury and as Director of Railways, charged that the profits of the coal operators in 1917 had reached in some cases 2,000 per cent. He also maintained that the demands of the miners were fair and urged that no part of any eventual wage increase should be borne by the public.

The operators attempted to discredit Secretary McAdoo's statements, asking him upon what current facts and figures he had based them. Secretary McAdoo, in reply, reiterated his charges and challenged the coal operators to publish their income tax returns for 1918 and 1919.

The operators declined, but the Treasury Department made public an official statement showing that the coal profits for 1917 reached as high as 800 per cent, but that they had been less in 1918 and still less in 1919.

Fuel Administrator Garfield on November 26th proposed an average wage increase for miners of 14 per cent, at the same time stipulating that the price of coal to the public should not be increased. The mine owners naturally accepted a wage proposal lower than the one they themselves had offered, but the coal miners refused to consider the offer, standing firmly behind the 31 per cent increase proposed by Secretary Wilson, and saying that the Garfield wage would mean starvation to them.

#### The President's Compromise Plan

President Wilson, on December 7th, intervened with a new offer. He proposed that the miners return to work at an increased wage of 14 per cent, and that the Government appoint a commission of three men to investigate the profits of the operators with a view to readjusting both wages and prices, reporting within 60 days. The President warned both operators and miners that the Government would not tolerate any interference with the production of coal, stating that 100,000 troops were to be held available for use in any emergency. Coal operators in the Johnstown field, representing an annual production of 60,000,000 tons, accepted Garfield's proposal.

#### Miners Return to Work

On December 3d, charges of criminal contempt of court were filed against President Lewis and 83 other officers of the United Mine Workers in the District Court of Indianapolis, one specific charge being that they had paid strike benefits to miners to enable them to continue the strike. All were released in bonds of \$10,000. Secretary Wilson strongly urged the miners to accept the president's proposal.

The officials of the United Mine Workers, with only one dissenting vote, voted on December 10th to accept the President's plan. Gradually the miners returned to work.

Fuel Administrator Garfield, on the ground that the President's plan of settlement was fundamentally wrong in principle and guaranteed no protection to the public, resigned office on December 12th. The charges of contempt made against the miners' official were dropped.

A sequel to the great coal strike was the issuance on December 13th of a "bill of rights" by delegates from 119 national and international unions, including the four Railway Brotherhoods, which upheld the right of labor to strike and denouncing in one breath government by injunction, Bolshevism, and I. W. W. ism.

GERMANY, NOV. — DEC.

## German National Assembly Fails to Fix Guilt for World War

Hindenberg and Ludendorff Assured by Soldiers: "We Will Follow You Again When the Time Comes."

SECTION 33—1919

THE German National Assembly, in November, 1919, conducted an inquest to determine the highest responsibility for the World War. Many notable personages connected with the German Imperial regime were summoned, including Count von Bernstorff, former Ambassador to the United States, ex-Chancellor von Bethmann-Hollweg, Dr. Helfferich, and Dr. Zimmerman.

Count Bernstorff held the Kaiser chiefly culpable for bringing America into the War. He produced a letter from the Kaiser addressed to Foreign Secretary Zimmerman on January 16, 1917, which read as follows:

"His Majesty instructs me to thank you for your communication. His Majesty does not care a bit about President Wilson's offer to mediate. If a

breach with America cannot be prevented, it cannot be helped. Events are developing."

The official archives were searched for further revelations on the subject of Germany's War activities. They yielded up documents, penned by German Army officials, proving that as early as 1916 the German Army authorities agreed that Germany could not hope to win the War by land or sea, but instead must rely on diplomacy and intrigue.

#### 810 Submarines Built by Germany

With reference to the number of U-boats constructed by Germany, Vice-Admiral von Capelle testified that 810 submarines were built before and during the War. Of these, 45 were constructed before the War, 186 during the von Tirpitz adminis-



tration, and 579 after von Capelle became Minister of Marine.

#### Hindenberg Testifies

When Field Marshal von Hindenberg arrived in Berlin, on November 14th, to testify before the National Assembly, his automobile was quickly surrounded by students who blocked his way, praying that he "would not degrade himself" by appearing before the Assembly, and mingling their shouts for the Kaiser with the singing of "Deutschland uber Alles."

So insistent were these young monarchists and reactionaries, that Hindenberg decided to return home. Four days later, however, he appeared before the committee of the Assembly. Again there was an upflaring of Junker and reactionary sentiment, with friendly demonstrations of students and royalists before his door. He felt compelled, indeed, to issue a request through the press asking that the public refrain from any manifestations in his honor. As a further precaution against a possible monarchist coup d'état, the Government posted sentries before the door of Hindenberg's residence and erected barbed wire barricades across Wilhelmstrasse and other important thoroughfares.

In his testimony before the Assembly inquest, von Hindenberg said he knew "with absolute certainty" that neither the people, the Kaiser nor the Government desired war in 1914. With some bitterness he averred that if there had been united co-operation between the Army and the homeland, Germany would have won the War. In his opinion, "internal agitation had broken the will to victory." Contrary to the general European view, he asserted that both himself and Ludendorff had been in entire accord throughout the War and both had favored unrestricted U-boat warfare.

It developed that the German General Staff knew positively that America would wage war against Germany if the submarine methods were continued, while, per contra, if the U-boat activities ceased, America would compel the lifting of the British blockade.

Gen. Ludendorff, in his testimony, bitterly censured Count von Bernstorff for misleading Germany as to the real status of public opinion in America. In reply, von Bernstorff said this was renewed proof that the German Embassy at Washington had been unpopular with the German naval and military leaders who would not believe its representations regarding America.

Continued sessions of the War-Guilt investigation committee of the Assembly were held throughout November and December. On November 15th, Dr. Karl Helfferich, the former Vice-Chancellor, was fined 300 marks upon his refusal to answer a question put by Deputy Cohen, a Jew, whom he declined

to recognize, "from patriotic motives", charging him with having accepted a bribe from the Russian Bolsheviks to assist in the betrayal of the German Republic.

#### Hindenberg and Ludendorff Again Testify

Field Marshal von Hindenberg and Gen. Ludendorff again appeared before the Assembly committee on November 18th. A monarchist faction, which had gained entrance to the building, welcomed the two military leaders with shouts of "Down with the Republic" and with cheers for the Kaiser and von Hindenberg.

On this occasion, Hindenberg reiterated his former assertion, that neither the Kaiser nor the German Government had desired war, adding that Germany's defensive strength was "as unfavorable as possible" from the start. He declared that it was not the German Army nor its leaders, but the Socialist politicians, who had lost the War. As for himself, he had desired an honorable peace and emphatically denied all charges to the contrary.

#### Ludendorff Eulogizes the Kaiser

Gen. Ludendorff eulogized the Kaiser as the "all-highest and all-wisest of mortals." All that the Kaiser strove to accomplish, he believed, had been done for the benefit of the whole world. With much heat, he denounced as "an infamous lie" the allegation that he had really directed Germany's policy during the War. He charged Count von Bernstorff with having falsely appraised and inadequately reported the American situation to the officials at the Wilhelmstrasse. The inquest adjourned indefinitely when Hindenberg and Ludendorff refused to give further testimony.

Hindenberg, on his return to Hanover, was welcomed by a tremendous demonstration. At Brunswick, also, he was greeted by cheering and singing crowds. Addressing a deputation of Hanoverians, he significantly declared that it was a pleasure to discover that "the national spirit was rising again."

Ludendorff, on November 23d, attended a memorial service at the Potsdam garrison church, where he sat in the Kaiser's pew. At the conclusion of his remarks, a soldier in uniform arose and shouted:

"When the time comes, General, we will follow you again." As Ludendorff left the church, there were loud cheers for him and the ex-Kaiser.

#### Ovation for Mackensen, Too

A popular ovation was extended to Field Marshal von Mackensen at Berlin on his return from his Roumanian "captivity" on December 3d. The National Guards and troops of all arms waited at the station, together with several prominent generals, including von Falkenhayn.



EASTERN SIBERIA, JAN.—DEC.

## American Troops and Engineers Guard Great Siberian Railroad

American Soldiers Clash with Bolsheviki, Japanese and Cossacks

SECTION 34—1919

American Troops, 10,000  
Major-General W. S. Graves  
American Engineers  
John F. Stevens, Chairman

Ussuri Cossacks, Gen. Kalmikoff  
Japanese Troops  
Bolshevik Troops

**T**HE first patrol duty, to which the United States troops in Eastern Siberia had been assigned, consisted in safeguarding a section of the Trans-Siberian Railroad. Early in January, 1919, American soldiers were stationed at Spasske and Khabarovsk on the Ussuri branch, north of Vladivostok.

While engaged in this service, late in January, the Yankee boys aroused the anger of the Japanese generals by giving protection to a large body of mutinous Cossacks. It appears that Gen. Kalmikoff, commander of the Ussuri Cossacks, had run amok through the districts, terrorizing the inhabitants. The American and Japanese authorities had cautioned this bandit captain to cease his abusive treatment of the peasant soldiers, but to no avail. At length, 1500 Cossack troops revolted against Kalmikoff, surrendering their arms and horses to Major-Gen. Graves, the American commander, who assured their protection until the dispute could be adjusted.

### Japs Show Their Teeth

On February 19th, the Japanese Staff at Vladivostok, which had contracted to furnish Kolchak's Omsk Government with men, money, and arms to use against the Bolsheviki, requested Col. Henry D. Styer of the United States forces to turn over to them all the arms, horses and equipment surrendered by the revolted Cossack troops. Col. Styer refused the request, and was upheld by Major-General Graves, upon the ground that the Cossacks, if deprived of their arms, might be left helpless in the event that Kalmikoff should care to resume his policy of terrorism. The Japanese angrily charged the Americans with protecting the deserters, whereupon Col. Styer explained his position as follows:

### The American Rejoinder

"The American troops have no intention of defending or sheltering political parties or groups, whether they are called Bolshevik or other names. The Americans recently disarmed the Cossack deserters for the sole purpose of avoiding bloodshed and disorder. We are keeping them under guard while the Allied Council at Vladivostok decides what is to be done with them. The American troops are always ready to act conjointly with the commander of the Allied forces in the defense of safety."

The dispute was composed by the gradual release of the deserters and the restoration to Gen. Kalmikoff of the arms and equipment surrendered by the deserters. In this affair, the action of Gen. Graves was warmly approved by our Government.

### Americans Manage Siberian Railway System

The Allies, in February, assumed joint control of the entire Siberian Railway System, including the Chinese Eastern Railway, intrusting the supervision of the system to a directorate comprising representatives from the United States, Great Britain, France, Japan, China, Italy and Russia with M. Oustrougoff as chairman.

The economic and technical management of these vast railway systems was vested in a board whose chairman was John F. Stevens, the eminent American engineer who helped to build the Panama Canal and who had been sent to Russia during Kerensky's dictatorship as head of the American Railway Commission for Siberia.

With Mr. Stevens were associated C. H. Smith, formerly of the Missouri Pacific Railway, and Col. Gallagher, the Quartermaster of the American Expeditionary Force, together with 200 expert railroad engineers.

These Siberian Railway systems, with their 6,000 miles of single-line tracks, had greatly deteriorated since the Russian revolution. It was found necessary to rebuild many bridges, lay many miles of tracks, repair locomotives, and generally to bring order out of chaos.

American technical skill, plus Yankee grit, was equal to the emergency and gradually the trains resumed their trips across the wide stretches of Russia, though their operation was frequently prevented by the action of the various belligerent armies.

### Hostility to America Shown

Vladivostok in 1919 was described as a "sink of corruption, into which all the muddled and malodorous streams of treachery flowed." The very air seemed charged with corruption. Political intriguants were tireless in their efforts to betray Russia into the hands of this or that selfish faction. Moreover, Russian provincial rivalries seriously interfered with the restoration of order and the prosecution of the war.

Powerful influences were ceaselessly at work seeking to commit America to the endorsement of the various political factions. Our Government, however, resolutely adhered to its avowed policy of non-interference in Russia's internal affairs, while expressing its willingness to assist the Russian people as a whole in setting up a government to their liking.

Charges of pro-Bolshevism were made against Americans, arising from the refusal of our troops to co-operate against the alleged Bolsheviki in the Amur district, and more specifically for having extended protection to the mutinous Cossacks of Gen. Kalmikoff's Army.

The State Department at Washington, on March 19th, expressed its entire approval of the conduct of the American Expeditionary Force under Major-General Graves, explaining that he had been strictly enjoined to avoid any act which might tend to commit the United States Government to either side in any factional trouble.



## America Recognizes the Kolchak Government

America played a leading role in the recognition, on June 12th, of the All-Russian Government at Omsk, whose military and political head was Admiral Kolchak. All the independent governments in Russia, save those in the Caucasus, had previously bowed to the supreme authority of the Omsk Government.

The Allies, on the contrary, had withheld their formal recognition of Kolchak for the reason that his name had been associated with rumors of a plot to re-establish Imperialism on the ruins of Bolshevism. These rumors having finally been traced to Bolshevik and German sources, the Supreme Council of Four at Paris, intimated that Allied support would be given to Kolchak on receiving his pledge that, after the Bolsheviks had been suppressed, he should call a Constituent Assembly of all the Russian peoples to enable them to determine under what form of government they desired to live, and should further agree to refer the settlement of all disputes between the new Russian nation and its neighbors to the peaceful arbitration of the League of Nations.

Admiral Kolchak gave formal assurance that he would resign his power at the moment when Bolshevism was definitely crushed; that he would uphold the right of the Russian people to decide their own destiny in freedom by means of a Constituent Assembly, but that he could not consent to recognize the Assembly of 1917 which was elected under a regime of Bolshevik violence and a majority of whose members were then adherents of the Soviet Government.

Through the legally elected Constituent Assembly alone, which his government would do its utmost to convoke properly, he said there would be established the sovereign right of deciding the problems of the Russian state, both in the internal and external affairs of the country. Far from placing obstacles in the way of the free election of local assemblies, municipalities and zemstvos, his government was already actually giving them its support by all the means at its disposal.

These assurances proving satisfactory to the Council of Four at Paris, the Allied Powers pledged themselves to assist Admiral Kolchak and his associates in establishing the Government of All Russia, agreeing to furnish them food, munitions and supplies to carry on the War, thus virtually putting the Bolsheviks in a position of rebellion against a lawful government. A loan of \$20,000,000 to the Omsk Government was voted and provision made to supply the Russian Allies with all their material needs, including rolling stock for the railroads, seed, clothing, etc.

### Caucasian Provinces Rebel Against Kolchak

Although the Southern Cossacks under Denekine and the North Russians under Yudenitch, had accepted the supreme authority of Kolchak's Government at Omsk, the jealous races in Caucasia still withheld their compliance. In a note addressed to the Peace Conference on June 28th, it was declared that independent Republics had been proclaimed by the peoples of North Caucasia, Azerbaijan, and

Georgia in alliance with similar Republics in the Ukraine, White Russia, Esthonia, and Latvia.

The relations of these Republics with neighboring states were to be determined by their respective Constituent Assemblies, elected by universal suffrage. Russia's decisions, they averred, could not effect them as sovereign states; contrariwise, the relations between them and Russia should be adjusted as between equal states. Construing the recognition of the Kolchak Government by the Council of Four as a negation of their rights as sovereign, independent states, they asked that the Peace Conference recognize their political independence.

Incidentally, charges of forced army levies, large requisitions of money and general arbitrary procedure were preferred by the Siberians against both Kolchak and Denekine. This political schism in the Caucasus was largely promoted by Bolshevik and German propaganda.

### American Troops Move Westward to Chita

Up until the middle of March, the American troops stationed in Eastern Siberia had been engaged in patrol duty chiefly along the Ussuri branch of the Trans-Siberian Railroad and in the city of Vladivostok. Late in March they began taking over control of strategic stations on the Trans-Siberian Railroad as far west as Chita. The Czecho-Slovak troops, at that time, were guarding the line from Irkutsk to Cheliabinsk, and the Japanese troops were policing the Chinese Eastern Railway.

American engineers, under the direction of John F. Stevens, were rapidly reorganizing the whole railroad system, with the assistance of British, French, and Italian contingents.

### Gen. Semenoff's Interference

The Inter-Allied Railway Commission, on July 18th, made formal protest to Gen. Kolchak's Omsk Government against certain violations of the Inter-Allied agreement governing the operation of the Siberian Railways. It was alleged that the station commandants had attempted general supervision of traffic, thereby usurping the prerogatives of the American Railway Commission to Russia, of which John F. Stevens was chairman.

Gen. Semenoff, who commanded a body of independent Siberian troops, was named as a principal disturber and his removal from the zone of operations was requested. A further protest against Gen. Semenoff's interference was made a week later by the American-Allied interests. So serious a situation had arisen that John F. Stevens felt impelled to withdraw all American inspectors from the Japanese-guarded sector, where Gen. Semenoff was especially active, until adequate protection was guaranteed.

### Americans Rout the Bolsheviks

Skirmish warfare between American patrols and the Bolsheviks took place early in July in the Suchan district. In one of these engagements the Reds had taken five American prisoners. A column of American troops, in co-operation with Japanese, thereupon attacked and drove the Bolsheviks into the hills, occupying a number of towns and villages.



## Withdrawal of Our Troops Proposed

The withdrawal of American troops from Eastern Siberia for weeks past had been strongly urged in Congress. In reply to a resolution introduced by Senator Hiram Johnson of California, calling for information on our Siberian adventure, President Wilson on July 23d informed the Senate that the presence of American troops in Siberia was a vital element in the restoration and maintenance of traffic on the Siberian Railroad and that under the agreement with Japan our troops could be withdrawn only when the American railway experts operating the road were withdrawn. The decision to send troops to Siberia had been taken, he said, in conjunction with Japan and in concert of purpose with the other Allied powers, first of all to save the Czecho-Slovak armies which were threatened with destruction by hostile forces largely composed of enemy prisoners of war, and secondly, to steady any efforts of the Russians at self defense or the establishment of law and order in which they might be willing to accept assistance. A force of 10,000 men had been sent under the command of Maj.-Gen. W. S. Graves, and Japan had dispatched a larger force. The net result of their joint operations had been the successful reunion of the separated Czecho-Slovak armies and the substantial elimination in Eastern Siberia of the active efforts of enemy prisoners of war.

### American Protection in Russia

Concerning the Russian Railway Service Corps, headed by John F. Stevens, the President said that, as originally organized, the corps constituted fourteen skeleton division units to serve as practical advisers and assistants to the Russians on fourteen different sections of the Siberian Railway. Due to the Bolshevik uprising and the chaotic conditions generally, neither Mr. Stevens nor the Russian Railway Service Corps had been able to begin work in Siberia until March, 1918. They had been operating effectively only since the railway plan was adopted in February, 1919.

When Mr. Stevens began his work, only six trains a week were running on part of the Chinese Eastern and Trans-Baikal Railway; in July, 1919, he was running six trains each day. In conformity with Mr. Stevens' wishes, the military commanders in Siberia had established troops where it was necessary to maintain order at different parts of the line.

American troops were protecting parts of the line near Vladivostok, around Verchne Udinsk and at Harbin. Partisan bands, under leaders having no settled connection with any organized government, or whose allegiance was transitory at best, were constantly menacing the operation of the railways upon which the populations of Western Russia and the forces of Admiral Kolchak were entirely dependent.

All elements of the population in Siberia looked to the United States for assistance, which could not be given if the railway traffic should cease. Inasmuch as the agreement with Japan expressly provided that Mr. Stevens and all foreign railway experts should be withdrawn when the troops were withdrawn, the continued presence of American troops in Siberia was a vital element in the restoration of Russia's railway traffic.

### Continued Requests for Withdrawal of Troops

Parents of American soldiers serving in Siberia appeared before the Senate Foreign Relations Committee on August 23d, strongly protesting against the continuance of American forces in Siberia and urging President Wilson to recall the drafted men at once. Secretary of War Baker was summoned before the committee to give information on the Government's plans for the soldiers' withdrawal. He said the Siberian troops would be recalled before winter. President Wilson gave assurance that the drafted men would be brought home as soon as possible, and their places filled by volunteers, as the Government had no intention of withdrawing wholly from Siberia at that time.

### Cossack Troops Flog American Soldier

At Iman, Siberia, on September 5th, Cossack troops commanded by Gen. Kalmikoff arrested one American officer and one enlisted American soldier on the pretext of lack of proper identification of papers. The Cossacks afterward flogged the American soldier. Gen. Graves demanded an apology from Gen. Rozanoff, the Russian commander in that province. The strained relations which ensued were finally relieved on October 1st, when Ambassador Bakmeteff informed the State Department that Gen. Rozanoff had formally tendered the desired apology and promised to call for the punishment of the offending troops.

### Russian Newspaper Attacks Americans

The ill will of certain Russian factions toward Americans was shown when a Vladivostok newspaper in September published a series of scurrilous articles bearing upon American intentions in Siberia, the trend of the attack being that the United States were fostering disunion in Russia.

In retaliation both for the newspaper attack, and the hostile acts of Cossack chiefs against Americans, Gen. Graves held up a shipment of 14,000 rifles which had arrived from America consigned to the All-Russian Government at Omsk. The Omsk Government immediately protested this seizure, whereupon the State Department ordered that the delivery of these rifles be made.

### American Rifles Held Up

Gen. Semenov, a bandit of the Villa type, was in bad odor once again with the Americans when, on October 24th, at Chita in Trans-Baikal, he held up a train bearing part of a consignment of 68,000 rifles recently shipped from America to Admiral Kolchak, demanding that 15,000 of the rifles be delivered to him by October 25th. The American lieutenant who was guarding the assignment with a force of 50 soldiers, telegraphed to General Graves for instructions. Being ordered on no account to surrender the guns, he sent a categorical refusal to Gen. Semenov. The bandit general evidently was impressed by the Yankee answer. At any rate he withdrew, and the lieutenant, unmolested, proceeded on his way to Omsk with his consignment.

### Americans Assist Japanese in Amur Province

American troops, in September, 1919, co-operated with the Japanese and other Allied contingents in the



expulsion of a column of Bolshevik troops from the line of the Amur Railway. The American troops, bracketed with the 12th Japanese Division, advanced up the Amur River on captured steamers. After beating down the Bolshevik resistance they took complete possession of the railway on September 22d.

After the collapse of the Kolchak and Denekine Armies, followed by the sweeping victories of the Bolsheviks in Siberia and the Ukraine, the American troops withdrew to Vladivostok, where they were quartered until their withdrawal to America early in 1920.

#### Casualties and Replacements

The casualties reported by the American forces in Siberia up to October 1, 1919, included: Killed in action, 28; died of wounds, 8; died of disease, 41; died of accident and other causes, 27; suicide, 5; total, 109.

During the summer of 1919, an organized effort was made to procure voluntary applications in America for service in Siberia and to return and discharge as fast as possible all men who were enlisted or drafted for the emergency. These replacements had reached a total of 3,315 by October 1st.

PARIS, DECEMBER

## Peace Treaties with Germany, Austria and Hungary Are Signed

American Delegates Withdraw From the Peace Conference at Paris—Germany  
Italy and Roumania Show Their Teeth—America Opposes  
International Army Plan

SECTION 35—1919

THE Peace Delegates at Paris had held the German treaty in abeyance while awaiting some sign that the United States Senate intended to ratify the Covenant, but when news was received that the United States Senate had adjourned without ratification, the delegates decided to put the Treaty into force without further delay. The Supreme Council designated December 1, 1919, as the date for the final ceremonies marking the conclusion of a formal Peace with Germany.

#### Four of the Great Powers Sign the Treaty

The Treaty of Versailles could not become effective until, in addition to Germany, at least three of the principal Allied and Associated Powers had ratified it. King George V of England had given his assent to the Treaty on July 31, 1919, but the ratification by Great Britain was not fully completed until after the several British dominions had so voted. The New Zealand Legislature had ratified the Treaty on September 2d, the Canadian Parliament on September 15th, the Union of South Africa on September 10th, and the Australian Parliament on October 2d. King George completed the British ratification on October 10, 1919.

King Victor Emmanuel of Italy had ratified the German Treaty by royal decree on October 7th. Italy, therefore, was the first of the principal Allied and Associated Powers to complete the task of ratification. Before becoming a national law, however, the Treaty needed the sanction of the Italian Parliament, which was not yet in session.

The Treaty received the approval of the French Chamber on October 10th, and of the French Senate on October 11th. President Raymond Poincaré signed the document on October 13th.

Japan's ratification of the Treaty came on October 30th, following its approval by the Privy Council three days previously. Some dissatisfaction with the terms of the Treaty had been expressed, and the Japanese delegates had been censured for having accepted without protest the waiver of indemnity for the maintenance of prisoners of war. The Japanese chauvinists, on August 26th, made a hostile demonstration against Marquis Saionji and the other peace delegates, on their return to Japan, for their failure

to have incorporated in the Treaty a provision for racial equality.

#### Lesser Nations Accept Treaty

Belgium was the first among the lesser powers to ratify the German Peace Treaty, on August 26th. The Czecho-Slovak National Assembly adopted both the Versailles and St. Germain Treaties on November 7th. Brazil signed the Versailles Treaty on November 11th, after Deputy Joaquin Czorio had eulogized President Wilson as "the world's leader of human progress."

In Denmark all political parties were agreed upon the question of accepting the League of Nations, and in Norway the Parliamentary Committee reported unanimously in favor of adherence.

Chile gave adhesion to the League of Nations on November 4th. Colombia voted its provisional consent to the Covenant on November 10th. The Paraguayan Senate, on November 13th, voted for adhesion to the League and to the International Labor Organization. Holland, on November 15th, announced her intention to enter the League. Switzerland's National Council voted its acceptance on November 19th, after eight days of debate, though 45 votes were cast against adhesion and the decision of the Council was subject to a referendum.

#### Germans Show Defiance

The American Senate's rejection of the Treaty, on November 19th, emboldened the German Socialist Government to withhold its signature from the protocol on which depended the putting in force of the Covenant. The German Socialists made strenuous efforts to save their tyrannic war criminals from punishment and in general they adopted a defiant and unyielding attitude. By mid-December, however, they were more amenable to reason and the Treaty advanced rapidly toward complete ratification. On December 11th, a Supplementary Conference was begun in London between the British, French and Italian representatives, to consider the Fiume controversy, the Turkish question, and the creation of an International Military Force under Marshal Foch's command.



### American Delegates Withdraw from Conference

Meanwhile, the American delegates had withdrawn from the Paris Conference on December 9th, leaving the Allied Powers to deal with the Germans as best they could. The Berlin Government, though it had refused to sign the protocol to the Treaty, yet did not hesitate to demand the speedy repatriation of German prisoners from France and Belgium, but the War Council sternly refused to deviate from the terms of the Peace Treaty in favor of German prisoners employed in reconstruction work in Northern France. Germany was reminded that she had systematically violated the terms of the Armistice, as instanced by her sinking of the warships in Scapa Flow, her delay in the delivery of German ships, her Baltic military policy, and her widespread propaganda.

Germany continued to oppose the extradition of her War Criminals. This defiance drew from Premier Clemenceau the sharp warning that, until such time as "the German conscience understands, as all the rest of the world does, that wrong must be righted and criminals punished, Germany must not expect to enter the communion of nations or to obtain from the Allies forgetfulness of her abominable crimes or modifications of just peace conditions."

### Sinking of German Ships at Scapa Flow

With characteristic hypocrisy, the Germans sought to justify the sinking of interned warships at Scapa Flow. They contended that the Allies themselves, by interning the German ships in an Allied instead of a neutral port, were responsible for the scuttling, inasmuch as Admiral von Reuter, being denied communication with Germany, had been led to believe that the Armistice ended at noon on June 21st, and in accordance with maritime law he had sunk the ships in anticipation of a renewal of war.

The German Government disclaimed all responsibility for Admiral von Reuter's act, at the same time ironically proposing that the question be submitted to the Hague tribunal for arbitration!

The British Admiralty completely refuted the German contention by producing letters written by Admiral von Reuter in June, 1919, giving explicit instructions regarding the sinking of the interned ships, and proving that he was in frequent communication with his government. The Allied Powers therefore insisted that Germany should fully recompense them for the loss of the ships sunk at Scapa Flow.

Baron von Lersnev, head of the German Peace delegation, notified the Supreme Council that Germany refused to sign the protocol unless the Scapa Flow indemnity was eliminated from the document. He declared further that Germany, on no consideration, would surrender the German officers accused of War crimes.

In reply, the War Council agreed to decide the Scapa Flow claims in a spirit of equity, after a hearing by the Reparation Committee, at the same time warning Germany "for the last time" that any further denunciation of the Armistice could precipitate military measures, and counselling the German Government to sign the protocol without delay. Her bluff being called, Germany hastened to comply with the terms. She agreed to accept responsibility for the payment required for the warships sunk, while asserting her inability at that time to surrender the

400,000 tons of shipping and docking materials demanded as reparation.

### Bulgarian Treaty Signed

Meanwhile, the treaty of the Allied and Associated Powers with Bulgaria had been signed on November 27th, at Neuilly, France. Although the United States Government had never officially declared war against Bulgaria, yet our delegate, Mr. Pol, signed the Peace document. By the terms of the Treaty, Bulgaria agrees to pay an indemnity of approximately \$445,000,000 and to surrender all works of art and valuables taken from Allied countries during the War. She is deprived of Thrace and surrenders Strumitza to Serbia. The Bulgarian Army is limited to 20,000 men. The Jugo-Slavs were required, much against their wishes, to first sign the Austrian Treaty before being allowed to sign the Bulgarian Treaty.

### Roumania's Defiance

The Roumanians also had defied the Allied Powers by refusing to sign the Austrian Treaty. Their troops, moreover, had invaded Hungary after the Armistice and refused to withdraw when ordered so to do. On December 3d, the Supreme Council dispatched an ultimatum to Roumania, giving her until December 9th to comply with the Allied demands under penalty of a severance of diplomatic relations.

The Roumanians thereupon receded from their defiance, signing both the Austrian and the Bulgarian Treaties on the day designated, and promising to withdraw from Hungary to the boundary line laid down by the Peace Conference in June, 1919.

### Inter-Allied Army Proposed at London Conference

Several conferences were held at London in December, 1919, between the Premiers of England, France, and Italy, but because of America's withdrawal from the Paris Conference and the United States Senate's refusal to sign the Peace Treaty, no headway was made in solving the many weighty problems confronting the delegates.

One important decision was reached, however, in the agreement to create an Inter-Allied Army under the direction of Marshal Foch as Chief of the General Staff at Versailles. President Wilson consistently opposed the creation of an International Police Force, but the London Conferences held that such an Army was needed to compel Germany to carry out the terms of the Treaty of Versailles.

### Germany Surrenders 275,000 Tons in Shipping

A special German shipping commission arrived in Paris on December 15th to arrange for the transfer of German shipping to the Allies in reparation for the scuttling of the German warships at Scapa Flow. The Allied experts had estimated that Germany possessed some 700,000 tons of docks, dredges and other maritime equipment. The Allies demanded 400,000 tons in payment for the Scapa Flow fleet, leaving 300,000 for Germany's needs. The Germans protested that they possessed only 600,000 tons and needed 400,000. Finally, the Allies consented to accept 275,000 tons and to this concession Germany assented.



### Other Hitches with Germany

The execution of the Versailles Treaty entailed many hitches with the German Government. One serious matter concerned the policing of plebiscites in Upper Silesia, Allenstein, Memel and other territories. Germany had been required to supply six trains daily for the transportation of Allied troops to the plebiscite districts, but upon her pleading lack of material, she was required to furnish four trains only.

Meantime, Marshal Foch had discovered that 80,000 German troops were assembled in Upper Silesia, one of the main plebiscite districts. He thereupon proposed that this Army be withdrawn before the Allies sent the 20,000 troops agreed upon into Upper Silesia to police the plebiscite. Germany reluctantly consented, at the same time asking that the Allied force be reduced one-fourth in order to lower the cost for her. This being done, the incident was closed.

### Peace Terms with Hungary

The Hungarian delegation arrived in Paris on January 7, 1920, to receive the Treaty with Hungary which had been tabled for three months pending the establishment of a stable and representative Hungarian Government. Count Apponyi, head of the delegation, gave notice that if the petition of Hungary was refused, he should ask that the nation be permitted to decide their future through a plebiscite. Alleging that 400,000 Hungarians were at the moment coerced by the Roumanians, "who were laughing at the Entente's orders," he declared the Hungarians would never submit to such tyranny. If the Hungarians were refused a plebiscite, they would ask: "Can one believe the word of a President of the United States in the future?" He demanded to know where America stood with reference to the Hungarian Treaty.

The Treaty was presented to Count Apponyi on January 15th, the Hungarian Government being given 15 days in which to present their reply. By the terms of the Treaty, Hungary waives claim to Fiume and all the former Austro-Hungarian territories awarded to Italy, Roumania, Jugo-Slavia, and Czecho-Slovakia. Hungary consents to the conditions laid down in the treaty with Austria concerning national minorities. The Hungarian Army shall not in future exceed 35,000 men. Its artillery is restricted to guns of not more than 10-centimeter caliber. Hungary agrees to assume a proportional share of the Austro-Hungarian debt. She is to give the Allied Powers an option on the annual delivery of railway coal for the period of five years, the amount to be fixed by the Reparations Committee. The Hungarian Government must guarantee to pay part of the Austrian debt.

The Treaty was denounced in Hungary as a "peace without honor", which condemned the nation to ruin. "We are impotent," declared Premier Huszar, "but never for a moment will we renounce our claims."

The reduction of the Hungarian Army to a maximum of 35,000 troops left the Government impotent either to maintain order in the interior or to safeguard the frontiers against possible attacks by the Bolsheviks. In Budapest, daily demonstrations of disapproval occurred; parades were organized in which the cross of St. Stephen was borne amid the singing of the national anthem.

### Roumanians Loot Hungary

An extension of time to consider the Treaty terms was granted Hungary, the limit being fixed at February 20th. A further extension of eight days was allowed when the Hungarian delegates contended that the Treaty contained such fundamental and grave errors as called for its total rejection. These concessions were made in view of the acknowledged wrong done to Hungary by the Roumanian Army which was even then occupying one-third of Hungary, and looting the country, in defiance of 17 separate ultimatums of the Peace Conference.

The record of Roumania's looting in Hungary was kept by Brigadier General H. H. Bandholtz, an American officer who had been stationed in Budapest for six months as a member of the Inter-Allied Commission of Control. He reported that the Roumanians had taken away every movable thing; included among the various items of pillage were 35,000 freight cars. According to Gen. Bandholtz, Roumania had placed Hungary in a position where she could neither produce nor pay her indemnity.

In the elections held in Hungary on January 25th, 95 per cent of the votes were cast in favor of a monarchical form of government, the Socialist vote being completely dwarfed by that of the Nationalists and the Peasants. Although Premier Huszar predicted that the new king would be chosen immediately after the National Assembly convened, Archduke Joseph declared on January 30th that it would be a dangerous experiment to establish a monarchy in Hungary while the rest of the world was in such a state of revolutionary unrest. The Council of Allied Ambassadors at Paris, on February 2d, made formal announcement that the Allied Governments should not permit the restoration of the Hapsburg dynasty in Hungary.

### Relations with the Russian Bolsheviks

Premier Lloyd George announced, in the British House of Commons on December 18th, that the Allied Governments had agreed on a policy of military neutrality with respect to Russia, though it was intimated that the United States and Japanese Governments had decided upon military measures should the Bolshevik advance progress beyond Lake Baikal.

The lure of Russian business, however, tempted the Allies to enter upon negotiations for the resumption of trade relations with the Bolsheviks.

This sensational reversal of policy was first revealed in an official communication by the Supreme Council on January 16th, wherein it was stated that the Allied Governments, "with a view to remedying the unhappy situation of the population in the interior of Russia, had decided to give facilities to the Russian Co-operative Organizations, which are in direct touch throughout Russia, so that they might arrange for the import into Russia of clothing, medicines, agricultural machinery, and the other necessities of which the Russian people were in sore need, in exchange for grain, flax, etc., of which there was a surplus supply."

These arrangements, it was naively added, "implied no change in the policies of the Allied Governments toward the Soviet Government."

### Lesser Questions Considered

Germany was warned, on December 5th, that her attitude in respect to the plebiscite arranged for the



Eupen-Malmedy districts, on the frontier between Germany and Belgium, conformed neither to the letter nor to the spirit of the Versailles Treaty. At the same time, the impartial attitude of Belgium in administering this plebiscite was defended by the Council's vote. The Supreme Council also arranged to send Allied troops to occupy Schleswig during the period when the plebiscite should be taken. After allotting Eastern Galicia to Poland, the Supreme Council in December approved the draft of a Tripartite Treaty between the principal Allied Powers, Poland, and Czecho-Slovakia, including the settlement of the frontier of the two latter states. The disposition of the Teschen coal fields was referred to a plebiscite.

#### Secession Prevented by Austrian Republic

The Austrian Government, on December 16th, represented to the Supreme Council that several separatist movements were in progress in the new Austrian Republic, mentioning as secedent units the Provinces of Vorarlberg, Salzburg, Tyrol and Western Hungary. The Council assured Premier Renner that the integrity of the Austrian Republic should not be impaired by these secessionist plots.

#### Final Ratification of the Peace Treaty

On January 10, 1920, fourteen months after the Armistice, the Allied and German representatives met in the Foreign Office at Paris and signed the protocol and the proces-verbal, which placed the final seal of ratification upon the German Peace Treaty. Owing to the failure of the United States Senate to sign the Treaty, our Republic was unrepresented at this historic ceremony.

There yet remained to be concluded the Peace Treaties with Hungary and Turkey, the final ratification of the Austrian and Bulgarian Treaties, and various territorial disputes.

A substantial adjustment of the Fiume dispute had been reached in the Allied Conference, whereby the Italian character of Fiume was recognized and the port internationalized under the League of Nations.

Previous to the final ceremony of ratification the representatives of England, France, Italy and Japan had met in secret session with the two German envoys, Baron Kurt von Lersner and Herr von Simson, and the Germans had signed the protocol binding Germany to indemnify the Allies for the sinking of the German fleet at Scapa Flow, and to carry out the unfulfilled terms of the Armistice. Then, adjourning to the Clock Room at the French Foreign Office, the diplomats, each in turn, affixed their signatures to the proces-verbal. The Treaty was signed by Great Britain, France, Italy, Japan, Belgium, Bolivia, Guatemala, Panama, Peru, Poland, Siam, Czecho-Slovakia, and Uruguay.

The United States, China, Greece, and Roumania, not having ratified the Treaty with Germany, did not sign. At the conclusion of the ceremony the delegates dispersed, the Germans departing without any attempt to greet or to hold converse with any of the other delegates. Some German papers denounced the peace as "worse than war."

#### Great Britain Gets Most of the Indemnity

The United States Government, on January 13th, declined to participate in the indemnity exacted from Germany for the destruction of the German fleet at Scapa Flow, having previously objected in principle to the settlement made by the Supreme Council, which gave Great Britain 70 per cent of the whole indemnity, and each of the other nations only 2 per cent.

#### Extradition of the Kaiser Demanded

Resuming its sessions, after the signing of the German Peace Treaty, the Supreme Council reached a decision on the momentous question of demanding the extradition of the German Kaiser and those German officers accused of atrocities in Northern France and Belgium. A note to the Government of Holland, where the former Kaiser had found asylum, was dispatched on January 15th, asking for his extradition. In addition, there was drawn up a list comprising the names of 890 German officers accused of atrocities.

#### Councils of Ambassadors and Premiers

The Peace Conference, having brought to a conclusion the principal issues laid before it, was dissolved on January 21st. There were, however, many minor matters yet to be adjusted, and these were referred to a Council of Ambassadors and a Council of Premiers. The Ambassadors were to control the execution of the German Peace Treaty and decide all routine matters concerning the Peace; the Premiers were to deal with all questions of international policy.

#### Premier Clemenceau Resigns

Premier Clemenceau, who had served as President of the Council for more than a year, resigned all his offices and was succeeded as Minister of War and Premier of France by M. Millerand.

#### The Reparations Commission

The Reparations Commission, with M. Jonnart as president, organized in February a legal committee to aid it with advice. The United States was represented unofficially by Hugh A. Dayne, Col. James A. Logan, Jr., and Albert Rathbone, Assistant Secretary of the United States Treasury. The request of the Reparations Committee for permission to appoint an American as head of the Commission's accountancy division was denied by the Treasury Department.

#### The Polish Boundary Question

The Council of Premiers on January 15th considered the vexed question of the Polish frontiers. In reoccupying their ancient domain, the Poles had trespassed beyond the Eastern frontier as fixed by the Supreme Council. The Council commanded the Polish Government to evacuate all Russian territory, but this the Poles refused to do, insisting upon their right to regain their historical boundaries. The Council also gave its sanction to the peace negotiations already in progress between the Poles and the Russian Soviet Government. See pages ????, 1920.



# WARS OF THE TURKISH PARTITION 1920

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## FOURTEEN NATIONS STILL AT WAR IN EUROPE AND ASIA

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### Summary of Events in the Year 1920

**T**HE sabbatical year of the War, 1920, in lieu of witnessing a "peace of justice and healing," such as the European Premiers professed to promote, saw a recrudescence of warfare in Europe and Asia, with fourteen nations engaged in fratricidal battle and the fires of fanaticism and ancient hate breaking out anew in the Balkans, in Russia, in Poland, in Germany, in Syria, in Anatolia, in Thrace, in Mesopotamia, in Armenia, in Georgia, in Ireland and in France.

It saw the ogre, Imperialism, rearing its repellant head in the Near East, and asserting its right to rule over the entire Eastern Hemisphere, as Kaiserism in 1914 and Bolshevism in 1919 had attempted to do.



It saw forty-one states, great and small, enrolled in a League of Nations whose ears were closed to the pitiful cries of distress uttered by the martyr-states and whose chief concern was the aggrandizement of the greater nations at the expense of the lesser.

It saw the long-deferred treaties of peace with Germany and Turkey brought to apparent completion, only to be altered again and again at the insistent demands of those outlawed states, and finally rejected by the United States and Turkey.

It saw the expulsion of the Turks from Thrace, their last European possession, and the dismemberment of the Turkish Empire, but it also beheld the Sultan restored to his throne in Constantinople by consent of the British Government and against the wishes of every nation of Christendom.

It saw the Turks resisting the partition of their Empire and renewing their massacre of Armenians in the averted face of the Christian Powers of Europe.

It saw Christian Armenia basely betrayed and plundered by her Christian Allies, the Great Powers of Europe, and condemned by them to suffer fresh captivity under the cruel Turks.

It saw the shoeless, half-famished Army of Poland, led by French officers, win a decisive victory over the Bolsheviki at the gates of Warsaw, whilst the English Commissioner at Danzig, in alliance with the German dockmen, was doing his utmost to prevent the forwarding of French ammunition to the Poles.

It saw two futile efforts to overturn the German Republic — the first through a coup d'état engineered by the Junkers in behalf of the Kaiser, and the second a widespread revolution of Communists.

It saw the failure of the attempt of the British Government, by fair means and foul to destroy the Republic of Ireland.

It saw King Constantine of Greece, brother-in-law of the Kaiser, restored to his throne by vote of the Greek Government and notwithstanding the vigorous protests of France and Italy.

It saw many dire results flowing from the fountain source of the several secret treaties ratified by England, France, Russia and Italy during the infancy of the World War.

The rift in the relations between England and France, first observed in 1919 during the Peace maneuvers at Paris, widened perceptibly in 1920, boding ill for the whole Alliance and for the future peace of Christendom. The first rupture had occurred while the revision of the German Peace Treaty was underway. England, being essentially an insular Power, and having but little to fear from a Germany stripped of its Fleet, inclined toward a policy of leniency in her treatment of the fallen foe. England's policy was influenced in part by her desire to placate Germany as a first step toward re-establishing trade relations with her late enemy, and also by her wish to curb the ambitions of her ally France, whom she suspected of a design to attain to the dominating position in Europe.

France, on the other hand, with her eastern border left open to invasion, was chiefly concerned for her national safety. Though the German foe had surrendered, still he was ceaselessly plotting new mischief and looking forward to his hour of revenge.

Knowing that there were one million irregular German troops yet in arms who were liable to attack her at any moment, France insisted upon steps being taken to render Germany forever impotent to disturb the peace of Europe. She properly demanded that the German army be disarmed at once and reduced to the dimensions of a police force in accordance with the terms of the Treaty. As a further precaution against German attacks in the future France asked consent to extend her frontier to the Rhine, the natural boundary



between the two countries. At the same time, she proposed an alliance with Poland, Czecho-Slovakia and the other lesser states on the Eastern and Southern frontiers of Germany, so that in the event of a fresh German outbreak, she would not lack assistance. France likewise called attention to Germany's many derelictions, in particular Germany's failure to deliver to France the full quota of coal to which France was entitled in reparation for the destruction of her coal mines at Lens.

The English, frankly jealous of the rising power of France, looked with disfavor upon any plan which would tend to strengthen that nation at the expense of Germany, whom England appeared to be taking more and more to her bosom. France not only was denied permission to extend her frontiers to the Rhine, but she was cautioned to desist from her purpose to compel Germany's immediate compliance with the Treaty terms. Thus, when the French Government decided to send an army into the Ruhr district, to expel a German armed force which had invaded that district in violation of the armistice terms, England warned France that it were better not to cross the frontier. France, nevertheless, did send her army into the Ruhr district and did expel the German invaders to the great chagrin of England.

The relations between the two nations were still further embittered by reason of England's attitude toward Poland, the new ally of France. Poland naturally had looked forward to her complete restoration, and this was the sure intention of the Commission on Polish Affairs, chosen by the Supreme Council to define the Polish boundaries. England, however, would not consent to the rehabilitation of Poland along the lines indicated. Upon the persuasion of Premier Lloyd George, the Supreme Council set aside the vital recommendations of the Commission, by which it was proposed to dispossess Germany of the lands she had seized from Poland in centuries gone by.

In consonance with a declaration of the Prime Ministers of England, France and Italy, on July 3, 1918, that "the creation of a united and independent Polish state with free access to the sea constitutes one of the conditions of a solid and just peace and of the rule of right in Europe," the Polish Commission had recommended that Poland be given a "corridor to the Baltic," which should include Poland's ancient port and district of Danzig together with the central and eastern zones of the province of West Prussia, and a narrow belt of German-speaking territory around Marienwerder on the east bank of the Vistula. The report further recommended that the larger part of Posen and of Upper Silesia should be transferred to Poland, leaving to Germany the predominantly German-speaking districts of both territories.

The cession of Danzig to Poland was protested by England, chiefly on the ground that the city is predominantly German, as a result of the systematic colonization carried out by Germany during the past 150 years. Objections were also raised to the creation of a Polish Corridor, because its effect would be to separate East Prussia from the rest of Germany. The friends of Poland, on the contrary, urged that the occupation of that port of Danzig by the Germans did not establish their right to hold it forever against Poland, its rightful owner.

In the Polish Corridor controversy the point was stressed that the interests of 25,000,000 Poles, requiring free access to the sea were paramount to the interests of 2,000,000 Germans in East Prussia whose land connection with the Fatherland would indeed be severed if the Corridor were opened, but who still had access to Germany by way of the Baltic.

The British view purporting to rest upon ethnic grounds, at last prevailed and a new plan was drawn up, setting Danzig apart as a "free city," ostensibly under the protection of the League of Nations, but in reality controlled by the Germans under a British High Commission. French public opinion was emphatic in the assertion that England's twofold



motive in depriving Poland of the port of Danzig was first to assure England's control of the Baltic shipping and second to weaken the power of France by crippling her ally, Poland.

Another crisis in the relations between England and France arose over the withdrawal of the cession of Upper Silesia to Poland upon the demand of the English and the Germans. This territory, with its enormous coal deposits, is one of the most highly industrialized regions of the former German Empire. Seized from Poland six centuries ago by the Germans, Upper Silesia has nevertheless remained predominantly Polish, although its manifold industries have been developed and are still largely owned by German capitalists. Pursuant to the urgent demands of the Anglo-German diplomats, the Supreme Council decided to hold a plebiscite in Upper Silesia early in 1921, to enable the inhabitants thereof to choose under which flag they should continue their existence.

Due to the failure of the Peace Conference to fix definitely the boundary between Poland and Russia, war between those nations resulted in 1920. It appears that in the 150 years that have elapsed since the first partition of Poland, the Russians have colonized a part of the territory they seized from Poland. In one zone of the former Polish territory the Russians were thought to possess the "ethnic majority." The Peace Conference, accordingly, deemed it unfair to restore this zone outright to Poland. Instead, a provisional minimum boundary for Poland, on the east, was defined on December 8, 1919, known as the "Curzon line." All territories west of that line passed unconditionally to Poland. At the same time, any claims Poland might have to territories east of this line was expressly reserved by the Conference, subject to future negotiations between Poland and Russia.

While the Poles and Bolsheviki were engaged in war, in the summer of 1920, the British Government, through Lord Curzon, sought to mediate peace on the basis of Poland's acceptance of this fraudulent line as a "definitive, permanent boundary." Spurning the proposal, the Poles resumed their battle with the Bolsheviki, finally winning a decisive victory and by the preliminary peace, signed at Riga on October 12, 1920, they secured a boundary much farther east than the Curzon line, insuring them in the possession of the greater part of their ancient territories.

The territory ceded to Poland by the treaty of Riga included Vilna, the ancient capital of Lithuania, whose population in 1916-17, according to the census taken by the Germans, was in this ethnic proportion: Poles, 54 per cent; Jews, 41 per cent; Lithuanians and other nationalities, 5 per cent. The occupation of Vilna by a Polish army was protested by the Lithuanians.

The dismemberment of the Turkish Empire, besides proving a sorry example of state surgery, was otherwise marred by the scandalous haste of the avaricious Powers to possess themselves of its severed parts. Like so many vagrant dogs fighting over a cache of bones, eight jealous nations became embroiled in war over the division of the Turkish spoils. Among them they have perhaps supplied the tinder for a new conflagration which, when it breaks out, at last, will consume what is left of our much-vaunted civilization. The crafty Turks, ever on the alert to profit by the dissensions of the "Infidel Christian Dogs," demanded and received certain concessions from the Great Powers. Though their rule in Europe is apparently ended, through the cession of Thrace to Greece, still they are not wholly banished from Europe, for the Sultan has been restored to his throne in Constantinople and the Turks are permitted to occupy Anatolia, holding the Christian Armenians in subjection as of yore.

In attempted justification of their Turkish policy, the British statesmen put forth the plea that, if the Sultan were expelled from Constantinople, the 60,000,000 Mohammedan subjects of the British Empire in Northern India "would feel outraged in their religious sentiments and might declare a Holy War." As a matter of fact a delegation of Moslems had so testified before the Supreme Council. Nevertheless, in refutation of the British plea,



it was urged that no such danger existed. The two great divisions of the Mohammedan world, the Shia and the Sunni sects, have never regarded the Sultan of Turkey as the Khalif or spiritual head of Islam.

The real motive which actuated the British statemen, in reinstating the "Sick man of Europe" on his throne in Constantinople was not, however, the fear of a Turkish uprising, but the dread that some other European Power might gain possession of that stronghold. The influence of the Sultan is nil. The actual authority in Constantinople is exerted by the British, who not only dominate the straits, but control the greater part of the shipping in the Black Sea.

FRANCE AND ENGLAND, JAN.—

## League of Nations Is Initiated at Paris, January 16, 1920

Forty-One States are Ultimately Admitted to Membership in the League  
Summary of the Results of the Many Meetings of the Council and the Assembly

SECTION 2—1920

THE League of Nations became a reality when, on Friday, January 16, 1920, the Executive Council of the League opened its first meeting in the Clock Room of the French Foreign Ministry at Paris. Though the call for the meeting had been issued by President Wilson, still our Government did not participate in this historic event. With a hundred diplomats from all nations present as observers, the machinery of the League was set in motion by the following representatives of eight nations: France, Premier Leon Bourgeois, who acted as chairman; England, Lord Curzon and Sir Eric Drummond, the latter being secretary of the League; Japan, Ambassador Matsui; Italy, Signor Ferraris; Greece, Premier Venizelos; Belgium, M. Hymans; Spain, Ambassador Quinones de Leon; Brazil, Ambassador da Cunha.

### Groundwork for the League

The groundwork for the League had previously been laid at the Third Congress of National Associations held at Brussels, Belgium, on December 1, 1919, when four commissions were created, one dealing with labor and international education, a second dealing with international law, a third with disarmament, and the fourth empowered to deal with all questions relative to the composition and powers of the League. On December 31st, decision was reached to invite certain jurists of international reputation to form a managing committee for the elaboration of the details of the Permanent Court of International Justice.

### Problems Already Solved

Prior to the birth of the League of Nations, the Supreme Council had disposed of some of the national problems which had arisen as a result of the War. Thus agreement had been reached with Italy regarding the internationalization of Fiume; the district of East Galicia had been awarded to Poland for a provisional period of twenty-five years; Belgium had assumed control of the plebiscite in the Eupen-Malmedy regions on the German frontier; the Germans had been forced to evacuate the first zone of Slesvig, pending the plebiscite; Allied troops had been sent to Denmark to police the plebiscite there; various

mandates had been assigned—to France in Syria, to Great Britain in Persia, to the Japanese for Shantung, to Great Britain, France, Belgium, Japan, and Australia for the former German colonies in Africa and the South Pacific.

### Membership of Neutral Nations

Of the thirteen neutral nations invited to join the League, acceptances had been received from only five—Spain, Argentina, Uruguay, Chili, and Persia. The remaining eight had indicated their intention to await ratification of the Peace Covenant by the United States.

### America's Participation Desired

At the opening session of the Council of the League of Nations, the hope was expressed by Premier Bourgeois of France, Lord Curzon of England, and Ambassador da Cunha of Brazil that a representative of "the great American Republic will occupy the place which awaits him" at the League table.

After the naming of members of the Sarre Basin Commission, and the selection of London as the next place of meeting, the first session of the Council of the League was declared adjourned.

### Celebration in France

The birth of the League of Nations was signalized in France on January 30, 1920, by the holding of solemn assemblies in college halls and public schools. At the Sarbonne in Paris, high tributes were paid to President Wilson for his share in realizing this compact between free peoples for the safety and independence of all. M. Bourgeois. Paul Appell, honorary dean of the Society of Science, solemnly warned the assembly that only two ways lay open to humanity—establishment of the new conception of right as embodied in the League, or self-destruction in war. Should war break out anew between the great nations, he predicted the annihilation of a hundred million men, with new weapons that could destroy the most powerful cities, blot out life in entire nations, leaving behind only people destitute of moral ideas and relapsing into a state of organized barbarism.



### First Business Session in London

The first business session of the Council of the League of Nations was held in the Picture Gallery of St. James' Palace, London, on February 11, 1920. The nations represented were France, Great Britain, Italy, Japan, Belgium, Spain, Brazil, and Greece. Lord Arthur Balfour, in a brief speech of welcome, voiced regret at America's non-representation. M. Bourgeois, Premier of France, was chosen to preside. He outlined the business of the session, which included the appointment of the Sarre Basin Commission and of the High Commissioner for Danzig, Sir Reginald Tower, together with the consideration of Switzerland's conditions of entry into the League. On his initiative, Lord Balfour was made chairman of the session.

### Plan for a Permanent Court

Premier Bourgeois was instructed to frame a plan for the permanent court of international justice under Article XIV of the League Covenant, and designate a list of international jurists who would be invited to prepare plans for the constitution of the court. To Count de Leon, the Spanish Ambassador to France, was assigned the consideration of the duties of the League pertaining to transit, ports, waterways and railways. Dr. Da Cunha, the Brazilian Ambassador, was intrusted with the constitution of an international body for dealing with health problems. Baron Matsui, the Japanese Ambassador, was authorized to frame a guarantee of the Polish Minorities Treaty. It was announced by Lord Balfour that the actual deliberations of the League of Nations would take place in private.

### Switzerland Admitted

At the third meeting of the League of Nations, held privately in London, on March 13th, it was announced that an international conference would be called to study the financial crisis. A resolution admitting Switzerland to membership, under guarantees recognizing her peculiar international situation, was adopted. It was stipulated that Switzerland should co-operate in commercial and financial measures against covenant-breaking states, besides defending her own territory from invasion, but she was otherwise absolved from taking part in any military action and from the necessity as well of allowing foreign troops to pass through her borders.

Ten eminent jurists, including Elihu Root, were nominated as a commission to consider the establishment of an international court. The Polish Minorities Treaty was placed under the guarantee of the League and a Sarre Basin Commission of five was appointed.

### No Change in Monroe Doctrine Permitted

Meantime, the Republic of Salvador had requested the United States Government to define anew the Monroe Doctrine in the light of Article XXI of the League Covenant. Our Government replied, on February 9th, no new interpretation of the Monroe Doctrine was necessary, and that the request of Salvador would have to be refused.

### Neutrals Wish to Join the League

The Norwegian Cabinet on February 14th voted to ask the consent of Parliament for Norway's participation in the League. A committee of the Holland

Parliament also voted in favor of adhesion to the League. At a conference of the Scandinavian premiers, held at Copenhagen, it was decided to join the League of Nations, but the national assemblies were as yet to give their approval to these recommendations.

Denmark, Norway, Sweden, Switzerland, and Holland were represented at a conference held at The Hague on February 16th to discuss the formation of an international court of justice.

### International Court Proposed

A program for the establishment of a permanent International Court of Justice was drawn up by a conference of the Scandinavian, Swiss, and Netherlands nations represented in the League. According to the program agreed upon, the judges composing the International Court will be elected by the League of Nations after their appointment by the affiliating states who shall act in this matter upon terms of complete equality. Political influences are to be eliminated from the court and its sphere of action. The judges are to be elected for nine years or for life, and will reside at the headquarters of the court. Even those states which are not members of the League are to have the right to plead before the court. The court will deal only with disputes of an international character.

### Commission to Soviet Russia

At the third sitting of the Executive Council, Lord Balfour appeared for Great Britain, Signor Tittoni for Italy, and M. Athos Romanos for Greece. Pursuant to a request made by the Allied Premiers early in March, and upon motion of Lord Balfour, a telegraphic note was addressed to the Russian Soviet Government, inquiring if they would grant safe conduct and facilities for observation to an Allied Commission which it was proposed to send to Russia to investigate conditions in that country. The Soviet Foreign Minister, M. Tchitcherin, informally replied that "The Government of the Soviets cannot permit these gentlemen to come into Russia to act for such a purpose, neither will the Soviet Government wait upon their judgment like a schoolboy." The formal Soviet reply, in substance, accepted the League Commission, but declined to receive as delegates the representatives of any nation or nations aiding or encouraging the Poles and Ukrainians in their joint campaign against Soviet Russia. This exclusion being aimed at France, which had upheld Poland, the League of Nations construed the Soviet note as tantamount to a refusal to receive the commission.

### Mandate for Armenia Refused

A public session of the Executive Council was held in the Luxemburg Palace on April 11th, to consider the proposal, made by the Allied Council of Ministers, that the League accept a mandate for Armenia. It was promised that the mandate should include all Armenian territories with the exception of Cilicia, the province which had been set aside as a "sphere of influence" for France with England's consent. Some fifty attaches of the various Diplomatic Corps were present. Herbert A. L. Fisher, Minister of Education of Great Britain, opposed acceptance of the mandate on the ground that "military measures as well as financial problems" entered into the question, and he would ask the League "What nation



Is likely to accept the responsibility?" Although the offer of a mandate had been made to all the nations, acting as a League, the mandate was refused on the plea that the League possessed neither military nor financial resources to carry out such an undertaking.

Though the Council decided that "the assumption of guardianship of the racial minority in Turkey was within its province," discussion of ways and means was nevertheless deferred until the Turkish Treaty should be drafted. Expressing the League's "sympathy" for the plight of the two million non-Moslems whose lives were endangered by the Turks, the Belgian Ambassador, Baron de Gaiffier d' Hestroy, pledged the League to "co-operate closely in the Allied policy to prevent further massacres pending the completion of the Turkish Treaty at San Remo." Their "co-operation," however, did not avail to prevent the further massacre of Armenians.

#### New Members of the League

The Scandinavian countries had been deterred from joining the League by unjustified fear that membership presupposed a military obligation. When assured to the contrary, they voted in favor of membership—Holland on February 20th, Copenhagen and Sweden on March 4th, Norway on March 5th. Switzerland accepted membership on March 5th. By April 6th, all the neutral countries of South and Central America had joined the League.

An appeal was issued in England on April 6th, by the "League of Nations Union," for a national fund of \$5,000,000 to support the League.

#### Mandate for Sarre Basin

Under mandate from the League of Nations, a Governing Commission late in February had assumed control of the Sarre Mining District, in Germany, whose output is to be diverted to France for fifteen years in part reparation for the damage done to the French industrial regions. The German residents were assured that in future there would be no more officials subject to the Prussian, Bavarian or German governments, but only officials of "a free country under the supervision of the League of Nations."

#### Reduction of Armaments Discussed

Thirty-six nations were represented at the fifth session of the Council of the League, which convened at Rome on May 14th. Signor Titttoni, President of the Italian Senate, was elected President of the League. The principal discussion centered on the question of the reduction of armaments. A board of naval, military and aerial experts was appointed to determine the naval, military and aerial standards to which all member nations, great and small, must ultimately conform. The proposal of Premier Bourgeois, that the League should hold itself responsible for the fulfilment of Article 213 of the Treaty, whereby Germany pledged herself to submit to any investigation of her military conditions ordered by the League Council, was indorsed. All the signatories to the Arms Traffic Convention of September 10, 1919, as well as other members of the League, were requested to set up a central office to prevent unlawful or undesirable traffic in arms and munitions tending to stimulate or protract small wars.

#### Persia's Appeal for Aid

A special session of the Council of the League, the sixth since its organization, was called at London on June 14th, primarily to consider the appeal of Persia for protection against the encroachment of the Russian Bolsheviks on her northern border. The bombardment and occupation of Enzeli on the south coast of the Caspian Sea by the Bolsheviks, was characterized by the Persians as a "gross breach of international law." Inasmuch as England had established a virtual protectorate over Persia, the French delegates made the point that this was a problem for England, not the League, to solve. The French press generally was very hostile to the suggestion that the League should enter upon such an undertaking as the defense of Persia, the view being expressed that "Lloyd George was trying to get the League to recognize the Anglo-Persian Treaty or the Soviet Government, or both", and that the League was being "used for the advancement of British schemes." The Council decided to await the effect of the Soviet promises to withdraw from Enzeli before taking further action in behalf of Persia.

#### More Nations Seek to Join the League

Eight additional states had filed applications for membership in the League of Nations during April and May. They were: Iceland, Georgia, San Marino, Luxembourg, Esthonia, Ukrainia, Finland and Haiti. Their adherence left out of the League only the United States, China, Honduras and Costa Rica, of all the nations eligible for admission. The question of the admission of Germany, Austria and Bulgaria remained in obeyance. A German League of Nations Union had been organized in May and its membership was said to exceed 9,000,000. The conditional entrance of Switzerland into the League was confirmed by the plebiscite held on May 15th and 16th.

#### High Court of International Justice Organized

In accordance with Article 14 of the League of Nations Covenant, the Council of the League in February had resolved to invite ten jurists of international eminence to sit as a Commission of Jurists and prepare plans for the organization of a permanent High Court of International Justice charged with the duty of adjudicating international disputes. Pursuant to this act, the following ten men were named: United States, Elihu Root; England, Lord Phillimore; France, Professor Andre Weiss; Belgium, Baron Descamps; Italy, Professor Ricci Busatti; Spain, Professor Raphael Altamira; Brazil, M. Fernandez; Holland, Dr. Loder; Norway, Dr. Hagerup. The Commission of Jurists opened its sessions on June 16, 1920, at The Hague Peace Palace, under the Presidency of Baron Descamps, Minister of State of Belgium.

A satisfactory plan for the election of permanent judges, worked out by Elihu Root and Lord Phillimore, was adopted on July 6th. Under this plan the Council of the League was authorized to name the panel from which the Assembly of the League would choose the permanent judges. In event of a conflict of opinion, the Assembly of the League could reject the panel in whole or in part and submit a panel of its own nominees. The candidates whose names appeared in both panels would then be chosen



automatically and the others by the Conference Committees from the Council. Upon the suggestion of Lord Phillimore, the Commission agreed that judges should be selected representing "the several distinct types of world law prevailing in America, England, Spain, Japan, etc.," the selection to rest with the Hague Court of Arbitration, already in existence, and whose co-existence with the permanent High Court of International Justice was thus recognized.

On July 3th, tentative decision was reached that the International Court should be composed of eleven judges and four alternate judges, to serve for nine years. It was stipulated, however, that no judge should be permitted to sit in judgment in a case in which the nation he represented was one of the parties in appeal, though he would retain his rights of attendance and consultation. The jurisdiction of the International Court was not exactly defined. Agreement was reached on a plan which prescribed five types of cases in which resort to the court should be made compulsory. These typical cases were the following: Those involving the interpretation of treaties; those regarding the breaking of international agreements; those relating to international law; those involving reparation due after breaking of an agreement; and those involving interpretations of an award of the court.

Upon the difficult question, as to whether definite or general laws should be applied by the International Court, a compromise was effected, whereby the Court will choose as its basis of procedure the plan laid down by The Hague Conference of May, 1907, and the Plan of Neutral States of February, 1920. The terms of the President and Vice-President for the High Court were fixed at three years, with privilege of re-election.

The seat of the permanent Court of International Justice was first at The Hague, Holland.

#### League Council Meets at San Sebastian, Spain

The eighth meeting of the League of Nations Council was held at San Sebastian, Spain, beginning on July 30th. At the opening session a report was received from the Council of Ambassadors, which cited many complaints, including extortionate prices, passport difficulties, confiscation of personal property, detention and even arrest of travelers. It was voted to summon representatives of all countries to a conference at the end of October, at which the different states would be asked to harmonize their regulations. The report of Dr. Fritzof Nansen on the proposed repatriation of Russian war prisoners showed that the whole project had been blocked by the Soviet Government, which refused to guarantee that Russian prisoners repatriated to Vladivostok would be allowed to return to their homes. The Council on August 2d adopted the plan of the Commission of Jurists for the establishment of an International Court of Justice, and the plan was referred to the League Assembly for confirmation. It was voted to recommend to the Assembly of the League that an International Blockade Commission be appointed with power to establish an economic blockade, in case of violation of the Covenant of the League of Nations by member or non-member nations. Resolutions were adopted asking the United States to participate in the organization of an International Hygienic Bureau and in the International

Conference on the Freedom of Transit to be held in Barcelona, Spain, early in 1921.

A permanent advisory committee on Military, Naval and Aerial Affairs was created to study and report on all matters of military character brought before the Council. These matters included the regulation of the armament of the forces of new states admitted to the League and the reduction of armaments by agreement of the Great Powers. The members of the League were asked to contribute their pro rata share of the growing annual expenses of the League, which were estimated at \$2,500,000.

Late in July, a debate on the League of Nations occurred in the British House of Lords, in which the inability of the League to intervene between Soviet Russia and Poland was emphasized. It was also predicted that the League would ultimately take over the functions of the Supreme Council.

#### International Financial Conference

Every important nation of the earth, excepting Turkey and Soviet Russia, was represented at the International Financial Conference held at Brussels, Belgium, September 24-October 8, under authority of the League, for the purpose of organizing an international credit system, an international clearing house, and a permanent body for distributing financial information among the nations. The reports on the financial condition of all the nations, notably the lesser states, were "startling in their revelation of economic breakdown and financial powerlessness." Twelve of the European countries expected a budget deficit for 1920. M. ter Meulen of Holland proposed a plan of international action devised to assist distressed countries in obtaining commercial (not governmental) credits. Briefly, he proposed that borrower nations should issue bonds, secured by collateral and running at interest for five or ten years, the value of the collateral to be passed by a Central Commission of financial experts to be appointed by the League of Nations. The Conference strongly frowned upon the evil of budget deficits, holding that fresh taxation must be resorted to in meeting governmental expenses and borrowing for the purpose must cease. As remedies for the financial ills from which the nations were suffering, it was proposed that "Governments should make their income balance their expenditure; that they should return at the earliest possible moment to the freedom of trade existing before the War; that they should discourage the profuse issue of paper money; that international credit should be established on a sound basis; that Socialist panaceas should be discountenanced; and that national salvation should be sought only in "hard work by the citizens of every country. With half the world producing less than it consumes, and having insufficient exports to pay for its imports, credits alone can bridge the gulf between seller and buyer, and the granting of credits is rendered difficult by the very courses which make them necessary."

#### Permanent Home of Council at Geneva

At the ninth meeting of the League Council, held at Paris on September 16-19, approval was voted of the purchase of the Hotel National and adjacent land, in Geneva, Switzerland, at a cost of 6,000,000 Swiss francs, for a permanent home for the League of Nations. Entirely remodeled, the building is to be



known henceforth as the Palace des Nations. The entire secretarial force of the League, hitherto domiciled at the Sutherland House in London, was transferred to Geneva late in October.

#### Territorial Disputes Considered

The League Council, at the meeting in Paris, was urged to act as mediator in the dispute between the Finns and the Swedes, over ownership of the Aland Islands, and that between the Poles and Lithuanians over the seizure of the Lithuanian town of Vilna by the Polish General Beligowski. Commissions were appointed to investigate and report on both disputes.

#### Council Meets at Brussels

At the tenth meeting of the League Council, held at Brussels on October 22d, the question of an Armenian mandate was referred to the Assembly of the League. The definite transfer of the districts of Eupen and Malmedy to the sovereignty of Belgium was recognized. Approval was voted of the plan for the establishment of an International Court of Justice, as adopted by the Commission of Jurists at The Hague, with the exception of the provision for obligatory jurisdiction. This provision was excluded as transcending the scope of the League Covenant, which provides that both parties to a dispute must give their consent in order to validate the League's jurisdiction. At the suggestion of Elihu Root, the question of obligatory jurisdiction was referred to various international legal bodies. Other subjects discussed at this meeting were: The League's guarantee of the minority clauses of the Austrian and Bulgarian Peace Treaties; Constitution of the Permanent Mandates Commissions; and the Brussels Financial Conference; the Constitution of Danzig.

The International Labor Congress of the League met at Brussels on October 7th. The Congress decided to create an international office of statistics, prices and quantities.

#### International Court of Justice Set Up

The Assembly of the League of Nations held its first session at Geneva, Switzerland, on November 15th, M. Hymans presiding. There were 41 nations represented in the Assembly. The most important result of the conference was the adoption of a plan for the establishment of a Permanent Court of International Justice. The debate hinged on the question whether, in the event of a dispute arising between nations which could not be settled by ordinary methods, the Court should be given compulsory jurisdiction. Thirty-five of the nations represented in the Assembly favored compulsory jurisdiction; the four "Big Powers", on the contrary, warned the

lesser nations that they would not agree to compulsion in any degree; instead, they would reserve the privilege of relying, as heretofore, upon the persuasive powers of their armies and fleets in the settlement of international disputes. Awed by the threatening attitude of the big nations, the 34 lesser states meekly submitted to their dictations. So, instead of vesting the Court with mandatory powers, as was just and proper, the Assembly granted permissive powers only to that tribunal. By thus yielding to the demands of the Big Powers, the Assembly denuded the Court of its essential authority, for it is apparent that in any dispute between one of the Big Powers and its oppressed subject peoples—as for instance between England and Ireland, or England and India—the Court will not be given jurisdiction if the Big Power objects. Hence the authority of the Court is practically nil.

#### Plebiscites Under the League

The report of the League on the eight plebiscites provided for under the treaties of Versailles and St. Germain was as follows: Slesvig—First zone on February 10th voted its allegiance to Denmark; second zone on March 14th voted its allegiance to Germany. Sarre Valley—The plebiscite will not be taken till 1934; meanwhile the area is administered by an Inter-allied Commission. East and West Prussia—Both voted allegiance to Germany. Eupen and Malmedy—Although no plebiscite was taken, the inhabitants on July 23, 1920, were allowed to register their protests against the allocation of their districts to Belgium. In Eupen, out of 13,975 possible signatures, only 208 protested in favor of Germany. In Malmedy, out of 19,751 possible signatures, 58 protested in favor of Germany. On September 20, 1920, the Council of the League recognized the transfer of these districts to Belgium. Teschen—Owing to the troubled state of the district, the plebiscite was abandoned in June, 1920. At the Spa Conference, in July, 1920, the representatives of Poland and Czecho-Slovakia signed a declaration requesting the Supreme Council to delimit the frontier between their two states. This was done by the Council of Ambassadors on July 27, 1920. By this decision, the Karwin coal field and the Kosice-Bohumin Railway were awarded to Czecho-Slovakia. Upper Silesia—The date for this plebiscite was fixed for March 31, 1921. Meantime, both the Germans and the Poles were reported as "armed to the teeth." Klagenfurt—Southern zone voted, on October 10, 1920, its allegiance to Austria. In conformity with the treaty of St. Germain, the Austrian victory rendered a plebiscite in the northern zone unnecessary, and the whole district therefore was awarded to Austria. Vilna—Date for plebiscite not yet fixed.



UNITED STATES, JAN.—FEB.

## United States Senate Rejects the German Peace Treaty

### Peace Conference at Paris Closes Its Sessions After Transferring Its Functions to a Council of Ambassadors and a Council of Premiers

SECTION 3—1920

THE deadlock on ratification of the German Peace Treaty by the United States Senate still remained unbroken when 1920 dawned. Late in January, there was held a series of bipartisan conferences in which four Democratic and three Republican Senators sought to effect a compromise on the questions in dispute. A compromise on a modified preamble was reached, in which it was premised that the reservations as adopted would not require specific acceptance by the participating powers, their silent acquiescence being deemed sufficient. The Democratic conferees had accepted the Lodge reservations on mandates, reparations, the treatment of nationals of covenant-breaking states, as well as the reservations concerning the settlement of domestic questions. Some progress had also been made toward an agreement on the new assertion of the Monroe Doctrine. Tentatively, a substitute for the reservation on the appointment of American representatives to the League had been adopted. A substitute had been agreed to regarding disarmament.

On the more vital questions, however, the conferees had failed to agree. Thus there was no compromise reached on Article X, which requires the American army and navy to fight the battles of Europe, Asia and Africa without consent of the United States Congress. Unfruitful also were the efforts made to guarantee to the United States equal voting power with England and her dominions in the League Assembly. No agreement was reached on the question of compelling Japan to withdraw from Shantung, and no modification of the labor reservation was reached.

#### Senator Lodge Defends the Monroe Doctrine

Senator Lodge, in a public announcement on January 30th, while admitting the failure of the bipartisan conferences, at the same time most emphatically declared that the reservations dealing with Article X and the Monroe Doctrine could not possibly permit of change.

Recalling that Great Britain had asserted the right of the League of Nations to interpret the Monroe Doctrine, Senator Lodge said: "The United States has always interpreted the Monroe Doctrine alone. It is our policy. No one else has ever attempted to interpret it, and it is something which, in my judgment, ought never to be permitted even by the most remote implication. The right to interpret the Monroe Doctrine pertaining to the United States shall assume no obligation of any kind under Article X, except that of respecting the boundaries of other nations, and cannot possibly permit of change."

#### Debate on Article X

The Peace Treaty was again brought forward in the Senate on February 9th, when Senator Lodge moved reconsideration. Nine of the 14 "irreconcilable" Senators who opposed the ratification in any

form, voted in the negative. They were Senators Brandegee, Borah, Knox, Poindexter, Gronna, France, Sherman, Norris and McCormick, all Republicans. Five other irreconcilables, Senators Johnson, La Follette, and Fall, Republicans, and Senators Reed and Gore, Democrats, were absent.

A lively debate at once ensued over Senator Lodge's modified reservation to Article X. The original reservation provided that the United States should assume no obligation to preserve the territorial integrity and political independence of nations by the employment "of its military or naval forces, or the economic boycott" without the consent of the Congress of the United States. Senator Lodge had amended and strengthened this reservation by adding the words "or by any other means" after the word "boycott."

In other words, Senator Lodge's modifying clause was intended to prevent any group of traitors, whether in or out of office, from committing this nation to the support of any European power which had become embroiled in war, without first securing the express sanction of the Congress of the United States.

#### Democratic Sophistries

The Administration Democrats, in their efforts to remove this safeguarding clause, resorted to sophistry. They suggested that long delays might ensue before Congress would give its consent to wasting good American blood in fighting the battles of selfish imperialism in Europe, Asia and Africa, thereby preventing the enforcement of any decrees of the League of Nations aiming to prevent war.

The Republican Senators, in reply, made it clear, once and for all, that this nation is opposed to any action whatsoever involving America in the affairs of other nations, either by military, naval, financial or moral measures, unless the Congress first gives its sanction. Upon this issue they declared there could be no compromise.

#### English Ambassador Upholds the Reservations

President Wilson and the Administration Senators, in opposing all the efforts of the Republican Senators to safeguard the sovereignty of this republic by means of reservations to the Treaty, had repeatedly urged that these reservations were unacceptable to Europe and were as a knife-thrust in the heart of the League of Nations. Great was their chagrin, therefore, when, on January 31st, Viscount Grey of Falloden, special Ambassador of Great Britain to the United States, announced in a letter to the press that the United States Senate was entirely justified in its action.

With keen understanding, Lord Grey analyzed the historical American policy of abstention from foreign entanglements; commended the national caution in forming European alliances; indicated how it would



be possible, as the League of Nations then stood, for an American President in some future years to commit the United States through the American representative on the Council of the League of Nations to a policy of which the Legislature at that time might disapprove.

Lord Grey applauded the wisdom of the Senate in making such reservations to the Peace Treaty as would serve to protect the nation against all possible contingencies that might arise from that treaty; declared that without the participation of the United States the League of Nations may become little better than a League of the Allies for armed self-defense against a revival of Prussian militarism or against a sinister sequel to Bolshevism.

He declared that the voting privileges of the self-governing dominion of the British Empire constitute a special status and that there can be no derogation from it. He fully realized the feeling created by the statement that the United States, with several million more English-speaking citizens than there are in the whole of the British Empire, has only one vote to six.

It was, he continued, no concern of his to discuss at that time how the problem of equality of voting may be adjusted in practice; he was simply moved to observe that the reservation of the United States does not in any way challenge the right of the self-governing dominions to exercise their votes, nor does it state that the United States will necessarily reject the decision to which these votes have been cast.

It is therefore possible, he concluded, that in practice, no dispute will ever arise. Great Britain's object is to maintain the status of the self-governing dominions, not to secure a greater British than American vote, and the British Government has no objection in principle to increase of the American vote.

This letter received the sanction of the British Government. It was indorsed by the British and French press with practical unanimity. Although no specific statement emanated from the White House, there was criticism of Lord Grey for having published his views before communicating them to President Wilson. Lord Grey, indeed, had been sent to America to confer with President Wilson, but owing to the latter's illness he had never had an opportunity to present his credentials. Upon his return to England, he had prepared his statement for the enlightenment of the British public, and his views had been cabled to America. The effect of their publication was to stimulate action on the treaty and greatly to disconcert the Democratic Senators.

#### President Wilson's Concessions

President Wilson, in a letter addressed to Senator Hitchcock on January 26th, five days before Lord Grey's letter appeared, had expressed his willingness to accept certain minor reservations. But he would not consent to the modification as phrased in the reservation on Article X, holding that the language used would surely "chill our relationship with the nations with which we expect to be associated in the great enterprise of maintaining the world's peace."

The President added that he had never seen the slightest reason to doubt the good faith of our associates in the War, nor ever had the slightest reason

to fear that any nation would seek to enlarge our obligations under the covenant of the League of Nations, or seek to commit us to lines of action which under our constitution only the Congress of the United States can in the last analysis decide. He suggested that any resolution giving notice of withdrawal from the League of Nations should be a joint rather than a concurrent resolution. Finally, the President could see no objection to a frank statement in the Treaty that the United States can accept a mandate only by the direct authority and action of the Congress of the United States.

The Senate, on February 9th, after reconsidering the vote by which ratification had been defeated, referred the treaty to the Foreign Relations Committee. On this occasion, President Wilson again expressed both his strong objection to any reservations which would alter the provisions of the treaty, and his desire that the whole question should be passed upon by the people in the Presidential election in November. The treaty was reported back to the Senate on February 10th with the same reservations which had failed of ratification in November. The Senate debates were resumed on February 16th, continuing almost daily for a month.

The President, on March 8th, in a second letter to Senator Hitchcock, eulogized Article X, "as the essence of Americanism." The Senate, refusing to accept this view, adopted a new reservation on March 15th, giving stronger force to the declaration that without the consent of Congress the United States shall assume no obligation to employ its military or naval forces, to preserve the territorial integrity or political independence of any country.

#### Resolution of Sympathy for Ireland

The Senate, on March 15th, adopted a fifteenth reservation, expressing sympathy with the aspirations of the Irish people for a Government of their own choice and declaring that "when such Government is attained by Ireland, a consummation which it is hoped is at hand," it should promptly be admitted as a member of the League of Nations. This reservation was passed by a vote of 38 to 36.

#### Equalizing Votes of America and Britain

Still another reservation was adopted by the Senate, proposing that the Covenant of the League of Nations shall be so amended as to provide that the United States shall be entitled to cast a number of votes equal to that which any member of the League and its self-governing dominions, colonies or parts of Empire, in the aggregate, shall be entitled to cast, and that the United States assumes no obligation to be bound, except in cases where Congress has previously given its consent, by any election, division, report or finding of the Council or Assembly in which any member of the League and its self-governing dominions, colonies or parts of empire, in the aggregate, have cast more than one vote. The United States, under this reservation, "assumes no obligation to be bound by any decision, report or finding of the Council or Assembly arising out of any dispute between the United States and any member of the League if such member or any self-governing dominion, colony, empire, or part of empire united with it politically has voted.

This reservation was passed by a vote of 57 to 20. The vote for a specific reservation regarding the



Monroe Doctrine was 58 to 22; that on excluding domestic questions from the League, 56 to 27; that on refusing to accept any mandate without express authority of Congress, 64 to 4; that recognizing the sole jurisdiction of Congress on the question of withdrawal from the League, whether or not the United States has fulfilled its obligations, 45 to 20; that on withholding America's assent to the treaty clauses requiring Shantung to be given to Japan, 48 to 21.

## Peace Conference Closes Its Session

The Supreme Council of the Peace Conference ended its historic session at Paris on January 21, 1920, after transferring its functions to a Council of Ambassadors and a Council of Premiers. By agreement, the Ambassadors were authorized to deal with all routine matters concerning peace and the execution of the Peace Treaty; the Premiers were to deal with all large issues of international policy.

### Blockade of Soviet Russia is Raised

Before its dissolution, the Peace Conference on January 16th had voted to raise the blockade of Soviet Russia with a view to establishing trade

### Senate Rejects the Peace Treaty

The United States Senate, on March 19, 1920, definitely rejected the Peace Treaty with Germany. The vote on ratification lacked the necessary two-thirds majority by seven, as follows: For ratification, 57; against ratification, 37. Of the 57 Senators voting for ratification, counting pairs, 34 were Republicans and 23 Democrats; of the 37 voting against ratification, 15 were Republicans and 24 Democrats. By vote of the Senate, the Peace Treaty was returned to the President.

relations between Russia and the Allied nations. The Conference also made a demand upon Holland for the extradition of the Kaiser for trial, at the same time submitting to the German Government a list of 890 Germans accused of war crimes.

### Reparations Commission Organizes

The Reparations Commission, under its new President, M. Jonnart of France, organized in February a legal committee to aid it with advice in interpretation of the Treaty of Versailles. A request for permission to appoint an American as the expert head of the Commissions accountancy division was denied by the U. S. Treasury Department on January 24th.

GERMANY, JAN.—DEC.

## Attempted Overthrow of the German Republic by Junkers Fails

French Troops Invade Germany Following a Communist Outbreak in Ruhr District

Peace Treaty Signed—Holland Refuses to Surrender Kaiser

Trial of German War Criminals

SECTION 4—1920

**P**EACE between Germany and her conquerors—America alone excepted—at length became effective fourteen months after the armistice, with the final exchange of ratifications of the Treaty of Versailles at Paris, on January 10, 1920. Due to the refusal of the United States Senate to ratify the Treaty, a state of war continued to exist between Germany and the United States throughout the year, but in a technical sense only, as actual hostilities long since had ceased, and our Government held that the armistice of November 11, 1918, continued in full force and effect between the two nations.

Except in London, where the bells pealed in celebration of the conclusion of peace, the event passed without public demonstrations in the capitals of Europe. The tone of the German press comments, however, was distinctly pessimistic, the prevailing view being summed up in the declaration of the Lokal-Anzeiger that "this peace is worse than war."

### Holland Refuses to Extradite the Kaiser

The Allied Powers decided to put into execution, without delay, Article 227 of the Treaty of Versailles, which provides for the punishment of German war criminals. Accordingly on January 15th, 25 of the Allied and Associated Powers addressed an official demand to the Government of the Netherlands, to deliver into their hands William of Hohenzollern,

former Emperor of Germany, in order that he might be judged. Individual war criminals residing in Germany, against whom the Allied and Associated Powers have brought charges, were to be delivered to them under Article 228 of the Peace Treaty.

In their demand upon the Dutch Government the Allied Powers, after recalling the high crimes with which the former Emperor is charged, solemnly declared: "It is to the highest interest of the Dutch people not to appear to protect the principal author of this catastrophe by allowing him shelter on her territory, and also to facilitate his trial, which is claimed by the voices of millions of victims."

The Dutch Government, notwithstanding, refused to surrender the Kaiser, upon the specious plea that "obligations which for Germany could have resulted from Article 228 of the treaty of peace cannot serve to determine the duty of Holland, which is not a party to the treaty." Moreover, the Dutch Government held that it "could not recognize an international duty to associate itself with this act of high international policy of the Powers." However, "if in the future, there should be instituted by the society of nations an international jurisdiction, competent to judge in case of war deeds, qualified as crimes and submitted to its jurisdiction by statute antedating the acts committed, it would be fit for Holland to associate herself with the new regime."



### Allies' Reply to Holland's Refusal

The Council of Premiers, on February 14th, forwarded its reply to Holland's note of refusal. Holland was warned that "it is impossible to disregard the collective force of the request of 25 signatories to the peace treaty and of a majority of the civilized nations of the world, which is the expression not only of the feeling of indignation of the victims, but of the demand for justice made by the conscience of humanity as a whole." Recalling that the policy and personal actions of the Kaiser have cost the lives of approximately 10,000,000 men, and the mutilation or shattered health of three times as many, besides the destruction of millions of square miles of territory in countries formerly industrious, peaceable and happy, and the piling up of war debts running into billions, the Allies "cannot conceal their surprise at finding in the Dutch reply no single word of disapproval of the crimes committed by the Emperor, crimes which outrage the most elementary sentiments of humanity and civilization." In view of the fact that "the permanent presence of the ex-Emperor, under ineffectual supervision, a few kilometers distance from the German frontier, where he continues the center of active and increasing intrigues, constitutes for the Powers a menace which they cannot be called upon to accept," the Powers "cannot conceal the painful impression made upon them by the refusal of the Dutch Government to hand over the ex-Emperor to them without any consideration of the possibility of reconciling the scruples of Holland with some effectual precautionary measures to be taken either on the spot or by holding the ex-Emperor at a distance from the scene of his crimes, making it impossible for him to exert his disastrous influence in Germany in the future." Finally, the Powers "urge upon the Dutch Government in the most solemn and pressing manner the importance attaching to fresh consideration of the question put before her. They desire that it may be clearly understood how grave the situation might become if the Netherlands Government were not in a position to give those assurances which the safety of Europe so imperatively demands."

### Prussia's Gift to the Ex-Kaiser

That Prussia remained faithful to the ex-Kaiser was shown on February 4th, when a bill was drawn up in due form for the settlement of claims between William of Hohenzollern and the Government of Prussia. Under the terms of the bill, the ex-Kaiser would receive \$25,000,000 from the German nation, free from the proposed capital tax; his civil list of \$400,000 a month would also be paid for seventeen months from the day of his flight into Holland; to this would be added \$44,000,000 worth of industrial shares, mortgages and other investments. Although the Kaiser had consented to relinquish all castles and lands belonging to the state, still he was permitted to retain eight castles, 83 villas and many houses in Berlin, Potsdam, Kiel and elsewhere, together with much forest land. In addition the Kaiser was allowed

to retain the Prussian royal jewels and he was given three more residences rent-free on life tenures.

### Extradition of 890 War Criminals Demanded

The demand of the Allies that Germany should sanction the extradition of 890 war criminals was delivered to Baron Kurt von Lersner, head of the German Peace delegation, in Paris on February 3d. von Lersner returned the note to Premier Millerand of France with the curt explanation that "no German functionary would be disposed to be in any way instrumental in the realization of their extradition." Von Lersner at once telegraphed his resignation to the German Government; it was accepted and he left for Germany. The extradition list contained 334 indictments from France, 334 from Belgium, 97 from England, 51 from Poland, 41 from Roumania, 29 from Italy and 4 from Jugo-Slavia. The United States asked no extraditions; neither did Japan. Among the many high officials whose extradition was desired were: Von Hindenberg and Ludendorff, Admiral von Tirpits, Admiral von Capelle, Gen. von der Lancken, who had ordered the shooting of Edith Cavell, Crown Prince Frederick William, Prince Eitel Friedrich, Prince August, Generals von Moltke, von der Marwitz, von Kluck and Falkenhayn, Marshal von Mackensen and Prince Rupprecht of Bavaria. The list included twelve Admirals, 30 U-boat commanders, a great number of army generals and the former German Chancellor, von Bethmann Hollwegg. The Council of Ambassadors, on February 5th, decided to send the list to Germany by courier, with a covering note, in which was incorporated the a priori principle that the German Government must accept the list of accused Germans and thus recognize concretely that they offended against the laws of war. The note was presented to Premier Bauer of the German Republic on February 7th, together with a demand that access to the German war archives be granted the Allies in order to facilitate prosecution. Two days later, Premier Bauer issued a statement to the effect that "the German Government will stand or fall with the contention that the extradition of these blacklisted for trial by an Entente court is a physical and moral impossibility," but expressing the hope that the Entente "will judiciously devise some plan making the punishment of the real culprits possible in a manner that will not outrage all feelings of decency and tend only to create sympathy among the people for even those blacklisted people who really deserve ruthless prosecution."

Prince Frederick William, in a note to the President of the United States, on February 9th, offered himself as a vicarious victim in the place of the "900 Germans who have committed no offense other than that of serving country during the war."

Meantime, the Allied Powers had accepted the counter-proposal of the German Government that a court sit at Leipsic and open penal proceedings without delay to determine the guilt of the indicted war criminals.



## Royalist Revolution in Germany Fails

### German Republican Forces, 75,000

Gustav Noske, Minister of Defense  
Gen. Marker, Field Commander  
Admiral von Trotha  
Baden, Gen. von Damans

### Royalist Forces, 75,000

Gen. Ludendorff, Chief Strategist  
Major-Gen. von Luttwitz, Commander  
(succeeded by Gen. von Seeckt)  
Breslau Forces, Gen. Schmeckow  
East Prussia Forces, Gen. von Estorff  
Hamburg Forces, Gen. von Wangenheim

An abortive revolution, aiming at the complete overthrow of the German Republic and the restoration of the Hohenzollern to his throne, was begun on March 13, 1920, and before its final suppression a week later, much German blood was spilled. The attempted coup d'état was followed by an uprising of the German radicals which for a time bade fair to plunge the whole nation in civil war, but this outbreak also was quelled.

The Junkers had been secretly plotting the overthrow of the Republic ever since its establishment. In the forefront of the conspiracy was Gen. Ludendorff, the former Quartermaster General of the Imperial Army and perhaps the foremost strategist in Germany. Their hands were forced by the arrest on March 6th of Prince Joachim Albrecht of Prussia, a cousin of the former Emperor, for an outrageous assault committed upon members of the French Military Commission in the Hotel Adlon, Berlin. Because the French officers had refused to rise when the hotel orchestra played "Deutschland uber Alles," the Prince and his colleague began to hurl bottles, plates and other missiles at them. The occurrence of similar assaults on French officers at Breslau and at Bremen impelled the Government to issue a proclamation threatening punishment for "such militaristic excesses." At the same time orders were issued for the arrest of Dr. Wolfgang Kapp, President of the Fatherland Party, and Captain Pabst, a cavalry officer, charged with attempting a reactionary revolution. Before the order could be executed, Kapp and Pabst, together with Major-Gen. von Luttwitz, fled to Doberitz, where the former Baltic Army was garrisoned, and persuaded the Army to engage in a revolt.

From Doberitz the conspirators sent an ultimatum to President Ebert, demanding a new Government and new elections. Admiral von Trotha was sent to Doberitz to arrange a truce, but without avail. Instead of complying, the Junker rebels issued a new ultimatum, demanding the resignation of the entire German Government by 7 o'clock the next morning, failing which they threatened to advance and occupy Berlin. The German Cabinet met before daybreak on the 13th, and on the pretence that it lacked a sufficiently strong army to defend the capital, ordered the transfer of the troops eastward. President Ebert and his colleagues left at 5 a. m. for Dresden in Saxony, when they set up their government.

### Rebels Enter Berlin

Meantime, the rebel Baltic Army, augmented by two naval brigades, had started from Doberitz on their march to Berlin. Arrived at the German capital, the troops proceeded to occupy the city without resistance, the Imperial Guards stationed there fraternizing with the rebels.

As an effective answer to the militaristic plot, President Ebert, from Dresden, issued a manifesto

for a general strike throughout Germany "to prevent the reorganization of the Imperial Government." The strike call was signed also by the Majority Socialist Party, the Social Democratic members of the Government and the Executive Committee of the German Social Democratic Party.

Dr. Wolfgang von Kapp, from his new throne seat, proclaimed himself "Imperial Chancellor and Prime Minister of Prussia" and immediately appointed Major-Gen. Baron von Luttwitz to be Commander-in-Chief of the Army. He issued a proclamation reciting that "the overthrow of the Government must not be taken as reactionary," but rather as "an overdue attempt to lay the foundations for the economic resuscitation of Germany, enabling her to fulfill those conditions of the Peace Treaty which are reasonable and not self destructive." It also charged the Socialist Government with overburdening the people with taxation, failing to create conditions for the restoration of industries, interference with personal liberty and refusal to issue writs for new elections. A second proclamation dissolved the National Assembly and promised that elections to the Reichstag would be held as soon as quiet was restored. Gen. von Luttwitz, the new Commander-in-Chief, issued an order declaring a state of martial law and raising the state of siege hitherto existing in the free state of Saxony. A subsequent proclamation, made by the Imperial Office for Citizen Guards, declared that the National Assembly, which continued to govern without a mandate, was "a tyrannous party government," which would deprive the people of the important fundamental right of electing a President. It promised to restore finance, taxation and the sovereignty of the Federated States on a constitutional federative basis, to safeguard war loans and shortly begin their payment, to tax rural and town landed property for purposes of reconstruction. It promised that the new Government "will not be a Government of one-sided capitalism; it will rather shield the German worker against the fate of international servitude to large capitalists."

The Berlin municipal government was dissolved on the 14th, and a royalist mayor appointed.

The States of South Germany declared at once against the new Government. President Ebert, from Dresden, denounced the Kapp-Luttwitz insurrection as the work of Baltic adventurers and predicted its collapse in a few days. He declared that all orders and decrees of the new Government were illegal and would not be recognized. The Governments of Bavaria, Baden and Wurttemberg issued proclamations expressing their opposition to the "unconstitutional machinery of reactionaries."

### General Strike Sweeps Germany

The general strike proclaimed by President Ebert became effective in Berlin on the 14th, with the suspension of street car, cafe and other forms of public



service. At Cologne, Essen, Dusseldorf, Osnabruck and Hanover resolutions were adopted calling for a 24-hour strike as a protest against the reactionary coup. At Baden, Gen. von Damans declared his allegiance to the Ebert Government.

Other cities, however, pledged their adherence to the new Government. Thus at Altona, Gen. von Wangenheim openly rejoiced in the advent of the "Imperial Government." In Breslau, Lieut.-Gen. Schmectow assumed the military command, arresting members of the old municipal government. Hamburg voted to "follow Berlin." East Prussia, with Gen. von Estorff in control of the troops, telegraphed allegiance to Dr. Kapp's government. At Coblenz, on the contrary, Major-Gen. Allen, commander of American troops of occupation on the Rhine, informed the Socialist leaders that no general strike interfering with the functions of the Allied forces of occupation would be permitted.

By the 15th, the general strike had swept Germany from end to end. Railroad and other transportation had come to a complete standstill. All business in Berlin was paralyzed. The water supply was cut off, and food could not be obtained even in the hotels.

#### Kapp and Luttwitz Flee From Berlin

"Chancellor" Kapp at last became aware that his authority was nil. His demand upon the Imperial Finance Minister for funds with which to meet the expenses of his army of occupation was curtly refused. His attempt to open negotiations with the

Ebert Government, now sitting at Stuttgart, was met with the response that Kapp and Luttwitz must at once withdraw from Berlin with their troops. His coup d'etat had ended in failure; it was time to retire. On March 17th, the fifth day of their attempted usurpation of power, Chancellor Kapp and Gen. von Luttwitz both resigned, intrusting the provisional conduct of affairs to Major-Gen. von Seeckt as Commander-in-Chief. In the dead of night, and in a pelting rain, Kapp left Berlin by motor car, and a few days later he fled from Germany by airplane to Sweden, where he was interned. The Baltic troops left Berlin the same night, firing upon the crowds which had assembled to witness their departure in Wilhelmstrasse, Unter den Linden and after passing through the Brandenburg Gate.

#### President Ebert Returns to Berlin

On behalf of President Ebert, Gustav Noske, Minister of Defense, entered Berlin on the night of March 17th to take charge of the Government. Loyal troops guarded the streets and removed the many barricades which the rebel soldiers had erected. On the same day, the Council of the Empire met in the Castle of Stuttgart and unanimously approved the Government's attitude. President Ebert and the Bauer Cabinet returned to Berlin on March 21st to find themselves confronted with a serious revolt of the radical or Communist element among the workmen of the Empire.

## The Bloody Communist Revolt in Germany

The uprising of the German Communists was the bloody sequel to the license permitted the workmen during the general strike which President Ebert had ordered as the most effective weapon at his command for the defeat of the Royalists. Unfortunately the Spartacans had been waiting for just such an opportunity to resume their attempt at the overthrow of all Government in Germany.

#### Six Days' Battle in Berlin

On March 15th, while Chancellor Kapp and Gen. von Luttwitz still held nominal sway in Berlin, a general Spartan uprising occurred throughout Germany. In Berlin, the Reds seized the arsenal, killing six officers and a number of soldiers. The Imperial troops a few hours later retook the arsenal, in turn killing 200 of the rioters. For six days the strife continued in Berlin, the casualties exceeding 800 on both sides. One gruesome incident of the savage warfare was the massacre of military officers at Johannistal flying grounds. Serious rioting also took place in the Charlottenberg and Steglitz suburbs of Berlin.

#### 3000 Killed in Leipsic

All Saxony was in a fierce ferment of radical revolt. The intensest fighting occurred in Halle and Leipsic. For four days, a pitched battle between Government troops and Reds took place in the streets of Leipsic, resulting in the death of 3000 persons and injury to as many more. So destructive was the artillery fire that scarcely a building remained undamaged or a window escaped the shattering of machine-gun fire. The arrival of an army of

Reichswehr troops under command of Gen. Merker, when the Reds were running short of ammunition, brought the Saxon revolt to a close on March 27th. At Halle and Ohligs, where the Spartacans had deposed the Mayors, and hoisted the Red flag, British troops restored order and reinstated the Mayors.

#### The Battles Around Essen

The Communist uprising spread throughout the industrial region of Westphalia, especially in the Ruhr district, where the workers possessed at the outset an organized but poorly armed force of 50,000 men which was later increased to 100,000. The entire district was practically in possession of the Communists from March 19th to 23d, workers' councils being set up in all the cities. Armed laborers sped from town to town to assist their comrades while Government troops vigorously used their artillery. At Munster, 8000 armed workmen disarmed two battalions of troops and directed heavy machine-gun fire upon airmen sent to observe them.

In and about Essen, the home of the great Krupp works, 15,000 organized workers gave resolute battle for four days to 6000 Reichswehr troops, but, with the arrival, on March 27th of fresh Government troops supported with machine guns, the Red line suddenly crumpled up. The retreat of the Red forces from their headquarters at Wesel was described as a panic-stricken rout. The Government now proposed an armistice to the labor leaders, and on April 1st the Central Committee and 200 delegates assembled at Essen unanimously accepted the Government terms, which required the workmen to surrender their arms by the 10th.



Though the organized revolt was thus brought to an end, there yet remained to be overcome many marauding bands of Communists in the territory about Essen, Dortmund, Dursburg and Mulheim. The last stand of the Communists was in Essen, but it was of short duration. Attacked on both flanks by

the Reichswehr, the Communists broke and fled in wild disorder, leaving 170 killed and 346 wounded in the streets. On the following day the rebels surrendered their arms to the Government and by the 10th comparative tranquility was restored throughout the region.

## French Invasion of Germany

French Forces, 85,000  
Gen. Degouette, Commander  
Gen. Demets

German Forces, 40,000

In sending 40,000 Reichswehr (Regular Army) troops into the Ruhr Valley, to suppress the Communist insurrection, the German Government had deliberately infringed upon the imperative stipulations of the Versailles treaty, whereby the Rhine valley had been set apart as a neutral zone. The Berlin Government, on March 23d, had asked authorization from the Allied Powers to enter the Ruhr Valley for twenty days. England and Italy were willing, but the French Government refused its consent, on the ground that German military intervention in this district "would be useless and dangerous." Premier Millerand emphasized the danger which France was facing from German militarism, and he exposed the German intention to evade fulfillment of the terms of the Versailles treaty. Not only had Germany failed to surrender war material to the Committee of Control, but she had declined to disarm. Furthermore, Germany had withheld the delivery of coal to France as she was required to do under the terms of the treaty.

The German Government, after reiterating its purpose to withdraw its troops from the Rhine Valley within twenty days, proposed that the French should occupy the towns of Frankfort, Darmstadt, Hamburg and Hanau, if the German forces were not evacuated within the specified period.

France still withholding her consent to the entry of German Troops into the prohibited zone, the German Government on April 4th defiantly sent 40,000 troops into the Rhine district, although entitled under the treaty to maintain not more than 17,000 soldiers in the Ruhr Valley. On the same day a note was dispatched to the French Government, asserting Germany's right to suppress the Ruhr disorders, declaring the French fears of a recrudescence of German militarism to be groundless, and protesting that France could take no military action regarding infractions of the treaty except in concurrence with the other Allied Powers. Germany, in fact, expected to receive the moral support of England and Italy, who had taken the German viper to their bosoms once again and were bending their efforts to a revision of the Versailles treaty favorable to German and detrimental to French interests.

### French Troops Occupy Five Cities

France, however, was in no mood to be trifled with, either by her enemies or by her allies. Determined to compel Germany's fulfillment of the terms of the Versailles treaty, regardless of any secret understandings between the Germans and the English, the French Government made rapid preparations for an invasion of the Rhineland. A French army of occupation, 85,000 strong, under command of Gen. Degouette, entered Germany early on the morning

of April 6th, occupying the cities of Frankfort, Darmstadt, Hamburg, Hanau, Dieburg and the surrounding territory before noon of that day. Upon the arrival of the French troops, the German Reichswehr forces prudently withdrew. General Degouette issued a proclamation, to the effect that the French forces would be withdrawn as soon as the German troops evacuated the neutral zone. Martial law was proclaimed in the occupied territory. On April 7th, in the wake of a rumor that England and Italy together had demanded the immediate withdrawal of the French Army of Occupation, a German mob in Frankfort jeered the French soldiers and insulted the officers. Upon their refusal to disperse, the French soldiers fired upon the mob, killing seven civilians.

### A Rift in Anglo-French Relations

The German Government, on April 8th, appealed to the League of Nations to intervene in their behalf. As before, the English and Italian Premiers upheld the cause of Germany, while Belgium approved the French action, generously offering her troops to aid the occupation. After a conference, between the British Premier and the French Ambassador, at London, the British Government issued a statement, disavowing the invasion of the Rhineland by French troops and declaring that France had acted entirely on her own initiative; that the occupation of the Ruhr district had been in effect an action of last resort reserved for joint action by the Allies. France was notified that, if she persisted in her solitary attempt to enforce the treaty, Great Britain would withdraw her representative from the Committee of Ambassadors who were officially charged with the enforcement of the treaty. Premier Millerand of France, replying to the British vote, defended the course which the French Government had followed. This controversy caused a decided rift in Anglo-French relations. Happily, the two governments reached an agreement on April 14th. The British Government gave France full assurance of its intention to compel Germany to disarm and fulfill strictly the provisions of the Versailles treaty. France, on her part, pledged herself, to take no further military action without the full consent of her allies, and to evacuate the occupied German cities after the German troops had withdrawn from the neutral zone. The German troops were given until May 10th to complete their evacuation.

The withdrawal of the German troops was duly carried out and the recall of the French troops followed on May 29th. Charges were made that the black Senegalese troops in the French army had committed assaults upon women and girls in the Rhineland, but these were vigorously denied by the French authorities.



### New German Parliament Chosen

A new German Parliament, or Reichstag, the first to be chosen since the fall of the Empire on November 9, 1918, was elected on June 6, 1920. In this republican Parliament, the Majority Socialists secured 112 seats, the Independent Socialists, 81, the Centrists, 68, the Nationalists, 66, the People's Party, 62, the Democrats, 45, the Christian Federalists, 21, the Guelphists, 5, the Bavarian Peasants, 4 and the Communists, 2. Thirty women gained seats in the Parliament. There was no election in East Prussia, in Upper Silesia or in Slesvig-Holstein, as the political destiny of these districts was subject to settlement through plebiscites. The 38 members of the old National Assembly from these districts were permitted to sit in the new Reichstag. The last session of the National Assembly was held on May 21st.

President Ebert, on May 22d, proclaimed the ending of the state of siege throughout Germany, except in the Dusseldorf district, of East Prussia, and in Silesia and Saxony, where the military authorities were put under the control of civilian Commissioners and the powers of the courts-martial were limited.

### German Junkers Plotting a "Come Back"

The first Reichstag of the German Republic was opened on June 24th. The old coalition Cabinet was replaced by a conservative Cabinet, dominated by the leading capitalists of Germany, with Konstantin Fehrenbach as Chancellor.

Dr. Walter Simons, new German Foreign Minister of Germany, declared in the Reichstag on August 4th that East Prussia was filled with reactionary troops "ready at any moment to take advantage of any opportunity to attempt re-establishment of Junkertum."

### Germany Opposes Poland

During the Russian drive on Warsaw in August, the two principal political factions in Germany insisted upon strict neutrality between Soviet Russia and Poland. Foreign Minister Simons stated that Germany would resist, by force if necessary, attempts by the Allies to send troops or munitions to Poland across German territory. The Socialists issued a call to German workers urging them to refuse to transport military supplies to Poland. Gen. Ludendorff, on the contrary, uttered several warnings as to the terrible fate menacing the whole civilized world if the Bolsheviks should destroy Poland. He proposed that Germany erect a military dam against the spread of the Red flood, but his advice went unheeded, for France had come to the rescue of Poland. When, late in July, the Bolshevik forces arrived close to Allenstein on the German border in their pursuit of the Poles, the German government asked permission of the Allied Powers to rush extra troops to the border "to enforce neutrality." Without waiting for permission, the Germans early in August did send troops into that region, though not with the intention of assisting poor Poland.

### Plebiscites in East and West Prussia

The result of the plebiscites taken in the East and West Prussian districts, surrounding Allenstein and Marienwerder, were favorable to Germany for two reasons: First, the Germans herded at least 150,000 "voters" into the districts just before the election,

and secondly, the advance of the Russian Soviet armies called the Poles to the battle front, preventing a fair test of the normal political preferences of the voters in those districts. The vote in West Prussia was said to be as follows: For Germany, 96,889, for Poland, 7271; in East Prussia, 353,655 for Germany and 7408 for Poland. The sending of German troops into these districts, without Allied permission, ostensibly "to preserve neutrality" in the war between Russia and Poland, perhaps had its influence on these elections.

### German-Poland Clash in Upper Silesia

The destruction on August 26th of the French and Polish Consulates in Breslau by a mob of German Nationalists, inflamed by rumors of outrages perpetrated upon the German inhabitants of Upper Silesia, nearly caused a diplomatic break between France and Germany. The payment of 100,000 francs to France, as indemnity for losses sustained, closed the incident.

Clashes occurred in August between the Poles and Germans in Upper Silesia, and along the German-Polish frontier, due to the attempts of German workers to prevent the transportation of military supplies to the Poles for their war with Russia. In a skirmish between French troops and German at Kattowitz, on August 17th, 10 were killed and 26 wounded.

### Nationalization of Coal Mines Proposed

As a result of these troubles in the Silesian mining districts, the output of coal was greatly reduced, and Germany professed her inability to comply with the terms of the Spa agreement and deliver 2,000,000 tons a month to the Allies. Meantime, the miners' union continued to urge the nationalization of the mines. The special Government Commission to whom was referred the question of the feasibility of socializing the coal mines, recommended in favor of nationalization. Data compiled by the director of the Statistical Bureau of the Schoenberg district of Greater Berlin showed that the mine owners' profits had risen from 1½ marks per ton before the war to 39 marks, the ratio of profits to wages now being 3 to 5 instead of 1 to 5. In the Ruhr district the price of a ton of coal is 210 marks as compared with 12 marks in pre-war days.

### Disarmament of German Civilians

The general disarmament of the German civilian population was decreed by the Reichstag over the opposition of both the Junker, Nationalists and the Independent Socialists. President Ebert, in an appeal issued August 24th, warned the nation that failure to co-operate in this work would endanger the fulfillment of the Peace Treaty. The people's weapons were not confiscated outright, a premium of 100 marks being paid for each rifle delivered up to October 10th, and of 50 marks until October 20th. After the latter date no premiums were to be paid, and the last day for voluntary delivery was fixed for November 1st. In despite of the lure of these premiums the Germans surrendered only a part of the 1,500,000 or more army rifles and machine guns still in the hands of civilians. These weapons, as collected, were destroyed in the presence of the Allied Commission of Control in Germany.

### Dissolution of the "Orgesch" Decreed

The disbanded units of the Home Defense Guards, especially in Bavaria, during the summer of 1920,



were reorganized as a semi-military body under the name of the "Orgesch." They had some connection with the German Army Intelligence Service. Their organizer, Herr Escherich, stated that the object of the "Orgesch" was to support the Government in event of trouble with the Reds. The Socialists, on the other hand, described them as "reactionary bour-

geoisie" who were plotting the overthrow of the Government. The outcry against the "Orgesch" was so strong, chiefly because its members had not been disarmed as were the hoi polloi, that the Prussian Minister of the Interior, on August 17th, decreed its dissolution in all Prussia; but in Bavaria the "Orgesch" continued to thrive.

RUSSIA, JAN. — MAY

## Armies of Kolchak, Denekine and Yudenitch Utterly Destroyed

Kolchak, Betrayed by the Czechs, Is Put To Death—Denekine Becomes a Fugitive—Yudenitch Placed Under Arrest

SECTION 5—1920

### Russian National Forces, 700,000

Siberian Army, Gen. Kolchak  
South Russian Army, Gen. Denekine  
North Russian Army, Gen. Yudenitch  
Czecho-Slovak Army, Gen. Janin  
Eastern Army, Gen. Semenov  
Japanese Forces, Gen. Otani

### Bolshevik Forces, 1,000,000

Gen. Brusiloff, Chief of Staff

**A**LL four of the Russian National Armies which in the closing weeks of 1919, had recoiled under the impact of the Bolshevik blows, were either destroyed or dispersed by the spring of 1920. Militant Bolshevism at length had triumphed over all its national foes and its writ carried from end to end of Russia.

Yudenitch's army, in the Northwest, was the first to be eliminated as a military factor. After the flight of this army across the Esthonian border, fully half the troops had deserted to the enemy. The remnant, ravaged by epidemic and on the verge of starvation, were disbanded. Gen. Yudenitch himself was subsequently arrested on a false charge of embezzlement, preferred by Gen. Belakhovitch, but on the peremptory order of the Allied Supreme Council he was released from prison.

Kolchak's Siberian Armies, after their headlong retreat eastward, were dissolved like the mists before the sun. Kolchak, himself, betrayed into the hands of the Bolsheviks by the Czecho-Slovaks, was cruelly put to death in Irkutsk.

The North Russian Army was similarly overcome and Archangel reoccupied by the Red forces on February 20th. Three days later the Soviet forces took possession of Murmansk.

Denekine's South Russian Army was the last to succumb. Contesting every rod of ground, the Cossacks were gradually forced back to the Crimea and only a small remnant survived the slaughter that ensued. Denekine himself escaped by boat, first to Constantinople and finally to England. Subsequently, the survivors of this ill-fated army, rallying to the standard of Gen. Peter Wrangel, struck a last hopeful blow in defense of Russian freedom, but they in turn were also destroyed as a militant force.

Vladivostok was seized by a group of revolutionists and a Soviet republic was set up in Kamchatka peninsula. In Turkestan and Transcaspia the Reds were equally successful, overcoming the resistance of the Cossack tribesmen who fought under independent leadership.

The Allies, though loath to extend formal recognition to the Soviet Government, still were constrained to make some concessions in behalf of the

impoverished Russian people themselves. Accordingly announcement was made in January that the Allied Governments were prepared to raise the blockade and resume trade relations with Russia through the media of the Co-operative Securities. These overtures, however, were spurned by the Bolshevik Government, upon the logical ground that recognition of Soviet Russia was a condition precedent to the resumption of trade relations.

We shall now sketch in broad outline the history of the military operations which marked the final elimination of the armies of Kolchak and Denekine.

### The Betrayal and Death of Kolchak

During the headlong retreat of his armies, in November, 1919, Gen. Kolchak, against the better judgment of his generals, had made hasty preparations for the defense of the capital city, Omsk. The plan was wholly impracticable. Not only was the city indefensible, but it held half a million refugees, and for these wretched people there was but little shelter and less food. Suddenly changing his plans, Kolchak decided to evacuate Omsk, and the rear-guard of his army at once poured into the city, adding to the chaos that prevailed. To evacuate the entire population was a task impossible of execution. The trains by which they might have been transported eastward were standing hopelessly blocked in a continuous line ninety miles long, with the water in most of the engines frozen. Unable to protect the refugees, Kolchak took steps to insure his own safety.

With the roar of the Bolshevik guns sounding in their ears, Kolchak and his staff on November 12th escaped from Omsk on six passenger trains, taking with them the All-Russian Government's gold reserve of over \$200,000,000. Arrived at Novo-Nikolaievsk, Kolchak encountered a new obstacle. The Czecho-Slovak troops, who had been as a thorn in his side for many months, insisted on right of way for their trains, and they selfishly held back the trains assigned to the Commander-in-Chief to assure their own safety. Kolchak left Novo-Nikolaievsk on December 4th, arriving at Nijini-Udinsk on December 28th. With him were 48 officers and civilians. Kolchak



was held virtually a prisoner by the Czecho-Slovaks until the arrival on January 1st of the Social Revolutionaries from Irkutsk, who at once took over the authority.

Upon the demand of Gen. Jules Janin, the French commander of the Czecho-Slovak forces, Kolchak dismissed his bodyguard and with a few members of his government took up his residence in a freight car, while the Czechs and the Social Revolutionaries together seized his treasure of \$200,000,000 and took possession of the trains assigned to his entourage. Under strict guard, Kolchak and his party on January 7th left Nijini-Udinsk for Irkutsk. At Chermenkovo, eighty miles northwest of Irkutsk, a number of grimy coal miners boarded the train and demanded Kolchak's surrender, threatening, in case of refusal, to cut off all coal supplies from trains on the Trans-Siberian Railway. Kolchak generously offered to surrender if the miners would guarantee the safety of his 48 colleagues, but the latter united in refusing to take advantage of their leader's sacrifice in their behalf. The train then proceeded to Irkutsk. Upon its arrival there, the Czechs delivered Kolchak into custody of the Socialist Revolutionaries. Although there were 5000 Czech soldiers and a battalion of Japanese soldiers at Irkutsk, no hand was raised to rescue Kolchak from his savage captors.

By orders of the "Irkutsk Military Revolutionary Committee," composed of Socialist assassins, Kolchak and Pepelaiev were shot to death at 2 a. m. on February 7th, facing the firing squad bravely. In an attempt to palliate this double murder, the Socialist assassins published a "defense," which recites that Kolchak's imprisonment was due to his "high crimes" as a reactionary military leader and that the "execution" was hastened because of the discovery of a military plot to effect his release from prison. The Czecho-Slovaks, for their part in the betrayal and murder of Kolchak, offered the poor defense that the Bolsheviks had threatened them with extermination if they did not surrender their supreme Commander to the assassins.

With Kolchak's death his army melted away, many of the young soldiers being slaughtered and others accepting service with the Bolsheviks. Early in March, some 35,000 survivors of the ill-fated army, after a terrible march, reached Chita, where they were given much needed medical attention.

#### Denekine's Downfall

Early in January Denekine's Cossack Army in South Russia was so hard pressed that he found it

necessary to evacuate both the military headquarters at Tangarog, on the sea of Azov and the seat of government at Rostov on the Don. The Bolsheviks entered Rostov on January 9th, taking 10,000 prisoners and great stores of booty. Denekine's army had fallen back on a new line, based on Nikopol and Melitopol, north of the Crimea, but this line proved no more stable than the old. Budenny's Red cavalry broke through the line at will, forcing a further retreat toward Odessa. On the eastern flank, in Transcaspia, the Reds were equally successful, driving Denekine's Cossacks out of first Tsaritsin and then Krasnovodsk on the Caspian Sea.

In February, Denekine was able for a time to stay the Bolshevik advance; he even recovered Rostov on February 20th, only to be expelled a few days later.

The virtual collapse of Denekine's army came in March. Disheartened and demoralized by a series of uninterrupted defeats, the remnants of the army were driven successively from Novorossisk and Ekaterinodar, losing 30,000 prisoners. Fleeing pell mell through the Crimean peninsula, the survivors reached the seaport of Theodosia, where they embarked on ships for Constantinople, the Allied warships standing by to protect them. Abandoning the hopeless struggle, Denekine himself took passage for Constantinople, from where he sailed on a British warship for England.

#### Bolsheviks Seize Kamchatka and Sakhalin

In concurrence with the battles in European Russia, the Bolsheviks carried the flaming sword to the very shore of the Pacific ocean. Early in February Red troops took possession of the peninsula of Kamchatka and of the island of Sakhalin, which had been ceded in part to Japan after the Russo-Japanese war. With the occupation of Sakhalin, Japan became more clearly conscious of the Bolshevik peril. Until this occupation, the Japanese had agreed to evacuate their troops out of Siberia, but now, in a note to the Allies, they explained that "it is unthinkable that Japan would withdraw her forces from Siberia and thus abandon to the Reds country contiguous to her own territory."

On April 29th, a protocol was signed between the Japanese, then in control of Vladivostok, and the Russian officials in that city, whereby the Russians agreed to withdraw their forces for a distance of 30 kilometers from the Japanese zone.



POLAND AND RUSSIA, JAN.—OCT.

## Bolshevik Armies Meet Their Waterloo at the Gates of Warsaw

Led by French Officers, Poles Decisively Defeat the Red Hordes—Russians  
Make Peace Overtures to Poland and to the Baltic States

SECTION 6—1920

### Army of Poland, 300,000

Marshal Pilsudski, Commander  
Gen. Haller, Chief of Staff  
Gen. Rydzmigli  
Gen. Listowski  
Gen. Zeligowski

### French Commanders

Gen. Weygand, Chief of Staff  
Gen. Henrys  
Gen. Billelte

### Ukrainian Allies

Gen. Petlura  
Gen. Pavlenko  
Gen. Belakhovitch  
Gen. Makhno

### South Russian Army

Gen. Wrangel

### Bolshevist Forces, 600,000

Gen. Brusiloff, Commander  
Gen. Budenny  
Gen. Tuchachevsky  
Col. Avalov-Bermond

### Lithuanian Forces

Gen. Mannerheim

**W**HILST the great or ingrate nations of Europe held aloof, wishing rather to deter than to assist her, Poland took upon her bleeding self, in the spring of 1920, the sole defense of Christendom from the assaults of the Bolshevik barbarians, using her half-famished army as a dike in stemming the Red flood that threatened momentarily to overflow all Europe. Only when the living dike had begun to give way under the terrific pressure of the flood, and the roar of the torrent had affrighted the ears of Europe, was there any aid vouchsafed Poland. Then France came to her assistance; the flood was checked at the very gates of Warsaw, and Europe was afforded yet another hour for reflection and repentance.

Poland was at once the despair and the dependence of Europe during those critical months of 1920. As a resuscitated state in rebellion against the decrees of the Allied Supreme Council, she had been censured for her contumacy. Refusing to abide by the tentative boundaries, within which the map-makers of Versailles had sought to confine her, and which she regarded as wholly fraudulent, Poland had burst her fetters and gone forth as a righteous rebel to recover by the sword her ancient kingdom in its whole extent. In so doing, she not only had incurred the displeasure of England, the chief topographer of new Europe, but her armies had been brought into immediate conflict with those hoary usurpers of the Polish domains, the Russian Bolsheviks in the East, the Lithuanians in the North, the Ruthenians in the South and the Germans in the West, for it was one of the curious anomalies of the year 1920 that German armies, 15 months after the Armistice, should be permitted to march forth at will to coerce the neighboring states.

The Versailles map-makers, in reconstituting Poland, had despoiled her of nearly one-third of her ancient patrimony, the principal beneficiary under the Treaty being Soviet Russia. In 1919, when it pleased the Allied Powers to wage war by proxy against the Bolsheviks, and the armies of Kolchak, Denekine and Yudenitch had gone forth confident of an early victory over the common enemy of mankind, the Poles had improved the opportunity to cross

the tentative boundary lines fixed by the Versailles Treaty and reconquer their "Lost Provinces." After the collapse of the anti-Bolshevik war, both England and America warned the Poles that they were violating the terms of the Treaty and must retire within their boundaries as fixed at Versailles. The Poles demurred against yielding up the reconquered provinces to the Bolsheviks and they were upheld by the government of France. The Bolsheviks, after the German fashion, thereupon made hypocritical overtures for peace, both with Poland and with the Baltic States, at the same time preparing to launch a new attack against the Poles. Before the new Soviet army could be mobilized the Poles struck hard at the Bolsheviks and for months thereafter the Poles were masters of the situation. But later, when the Bolsheviks had mustered their full strength on the Polish front, the Poles were driven back in headlong retreat to the gates of Warsaw. All Europe was now filled with alarm, fearing the Bolshevik conquest of the Continent. It was at this critical juncture that France came to Poland's rescue. Though England held aloof, and her Commissioner attempted to prevent the delivery of French ammunition to the Poles at the port of Danzig, still the Alliance of France and Poland was sufficient to overcome the Bolshevik peril. The Red hordes were first stopped at the gates of Warsaw and then driven back in wild retreat across their frontier. It was a decisive defeat from which the Bolsheviks have never fully recovered. Concurrently with the Franco-Polish offensive, the Bolsheviks were also assailed from the South by an army of Russians commanded by Gen. Wrangel and largely composed of the survivors of Denekine's ill-fated army. The movements of this army are elsewhere described.

We shall now review the successive stages of the military and diplomatic campaigns waged by the Bolsheviks in the Baltic states.

### Baltic Conference Comes to Naught

Representatives of four of the Baltic states—Poland, Esthonia, Latvia, and Lithuania—met at Helsingfors on January 15th to consider a proposal for joint military action against Soviet Russia. Instead of



advancing the cause of unity the Lithuanians sought to induce the Estonians and Latvians to form an alliance against Poland. This intrigue failing, the Lithuanians withdrew from the conference, declaring they could not sit in council with the Poles, for one reason, because of the Polish "encroachments" on certain territory claimed by both nations, and for the further reason that Estonia would not be dissuaded against making a separate peace with the Bolsheviks. The Estonian delegates, on their part, stoutly upheld the right of their government to conclude a separate peace with Soviet Russia.

#### Estonia Signs a Peace with the Bolsheviks

Peace between Soviet Russia and Estonia was finally ratified at Dorpat on January 29th, on terms not unfavorable to the Baltic State. In consideration of a loan of 16,000,000 roubles and concessions granted for the construction of a railway from Reval to Moscow, Estonia relinquished to Soviet Russia all rights to use the Narova River waterfalls, and also agreed to exempt from taxation or duties all goods in transit to Russia through the Estonian ports. A commercial treaty, on the basis of the most-favored-nation clause, was drawn up, enabling Soviet Russia to resume commercial relations with the outside world for the first time since the Allied blockade had been established.

#### Russia Makes Peace Overtures to Poland

Early in February, Soviet Russia proposed to the Polish government a cessation of hostilities pending a discussion of peace terms. Yet, notwithstanding the conciliatory nature of the peace note, the Bolsheviks even then were strengthening their forces in preparation for a new attack on Poland in the event that the peace offer should be rejected. On February 24th, the Polish Diet notified the Soviet government that a peace might be arranged if the Bolshevik regime would agree to five principal Polish demands. These were (1) that the Polish frontier as it existed in 1772 be recognized by Russia; (2) Russia must also recognize the independence of the Baltic countries and leave them free to conclude with Poland such treaties as they might decide upon; (3) that if a stable government should be organized in the Ukraine, Poland would not concern herself further with Ukrainian affairs; (4) that Bolshevik propaganda in Poland must cease; (5) that Russia must pay Poland a war indemnity for devastations committed by the Russian Army in Poland, as well as for damages done to Polish citizens in Russia under the Bolshevik regime.

The first of these conditions, wherein Poland had demanded the restitution of her ancient eastern frontier, elicited from the Committee of Ambassadors at Paris a note of veiled warning recalling the fact that the Polish armies had already advanced far beyond the provisional eastern frontier of Poland, as laid down by the Supreme Council on November 25, 1919, and protesting against the proposed holding of elections for members of the Warsaw Diet in that portion of Poland's ancient domain which the Supreme Council had allowed the Russians to retain. The ambassadorial note, on the other hand, omitted all mention of the vital fact that Poland, by the terms of the Treaty of Versailles, had been assured that her rights to reacquire her ancient possessions should never be annulled.

#### Bolsheviks Attack Poles Without Warning

Following the peace overture made to Poland, a general conference of delegates representing the Baltic States was called to meet at Warsaw on March 8th for joint consideration of the various peace offers made by the Soviet government. Pursuant to this call, delegates were chosen to represent Latvia, Finland and Roumania. Two days before the time set for the conference, and without previous warning, the Bolsheviks launched a new offensive in the Baltic region, Finland being the object of their first attack. At the same time the Bolsheviks concentrated large forces on the Polish front. Poland took immediate measures to protect her border from Bolshevik invasion. Meantime, a conference of the four Baltic States had been called, according to schedule, and a complete agreement reached with reference to the principles which should govern the proposed negotiations with Soviet Russia.

#### War Is Again Resumed

Notwithstanding the many overtures of peace, war between Poland and Russia was resumed when, on March 7th, a Polish division, led by Col. Sikorski, attacked a body of Bolshevik troops southeast of Minsk, capturing the important railway junctions at Mozhir and Kolenkovitz, together with 1000 prisoners and much war material, including several armored boats on the Pripiet River. In cutting the Mozhir-Kolenkovitz line, the Poles had effectually separated White Ruthenia from Moscow, dealing the Reds a decisive blow. Three days later the Polish troops repelled a series of Bolshevik attacks north of Mozhir, capturing eight guns, an artillery park and a great number of prisoners, and compelling the Red Army to retreat in disorder beyond the Dnieper River.

#### Poland's New Peace Terms

Emboldened by this victory, the Polish Diet, on March 26th, made a formal reply to the Bolshevik peace proposal. The new terms laid down by Poland were more exacting than those which Gen. Pilsudski had been willing to concede in February. Russia was required to renounce sovereignty over all the territories she had obtained in the first partition of Poland in 1772, and Poland was authorized to assume a protectorate over the restored province until such time as the peoples residing therein should decide their future political status by general vote. The independence of all those border states which had established de facto governments was to be recognized by Russia. All Bolshevik propaganda in Poland was to be prohibited. Russia was required to indemnify Poland for the devastation of lands and industries caused by the overrunning of Poland by Russian armies since 1914. Russia must return to Poland all locomotives and rolling stock seized since the beginning of the World War, and must indemnify all those Poles inhabiting Russian territory whose properties had been destroyed. There was to be an immediate exchange of war prisoners. All the archives, works of art, libraries and collections taken from Poland by Russians must be returned. As a guarantee that Soviet Russia would fulfil these conditions, the Polish Army meantime should occupy the Government of Smolensk.

The Russian Soviet Government proposed that all negotiations should be conducted in Estonia, then



under Bolshevik dominance, and that pending a settlement all hostilities should cease along the entire front, but both of these suggestions were rejected by the Poles. Instead, the Poles proposed Borysov as a meeting place, but the Russians in turn rejected this proposal on the ground that in selecting Borysov, the center of the fighting front, the Poles had some hidden object in view. So the peace overtures came to naught and the two nations resumed warfare.

#### Poland and Ukraine in Alliance

The Ukrainians, who had been waging war against

the Poles in East Galicia ever since the Armistice, but who now needed assistance in fighting the Bolsheviks, signed a treaty of alliance with Poland late in April. By the terms of the treaty, the Ukrainians resigned to Poland their claims on Eastern Galicia, in consideration of a pledge of military assistance in behalf of Ukraine against the Bolsheviks, who had overrun all Ukraine after the collapse of Denekine's army and were now in possession of Kiev and Odessa.

### Poles and Ukrainians Capture Kiev

In accordance with their pledge to the Ukrainians, the Poles on April 28th launched a whirlwind campaign against the Bolsheviks on a 250-mile front, extending from the Pripet River southward to the Dniester. The Russians, wholly unprepared for so vigorous an assault, gave ground everywhere. Advancing rapidly into the Ukraine, the Poles in 48 hours captured 15,000 Russian prisoners and much rolling stock. Mohilev capitulated on April 30th, and the Polish cavalry reached the outskirts of Kiev, the Ukrainian capital, on May 1st. In this crisis, a

new mobilization of Soviet troops was ordered to defend the southern and western fronts.

As the Poles closed in on Kiev, the Red resistance stiffened. Furious fighting occurred on May 5th on a wide front around the Kiev bridgehead. Three days later the Poles gained the hills commanding Kiev and drove the Red Army pell mell across the Dnieper River. The capital was occupied by the victorious Poles on May 6th. They found the city in an indescribable condition of filth and desolation after the long Bolshevik occupation.

### Bolsheviks Advance Almost to the Gates of Warsaw

After the liberation of Kiev, the Polish and Ukrainian troops turned southward with Odessa as their objective. There they expected to form a liaison with the remnant of Denekine's army which Gen. Wrangel was reassembling in the Crimea. While the Poles were advancing southward, with victory apparently in sight, a sudden and sensational transformation had taken place in the military situation. In response to the Soviet government's appeal for nation-wide support in resisting the Polish invasion, 500,000 Russians had rallied to the Red standard. These troops were being variously disposed over a battle front 800 miles in length, extending from Vilna in the north to Odessa in the south.

#### The Battle of the Beresina

With the arrival of these additional troops on the battle front, the Bolsheviks launched two powerful drives on widely separated parts of the Polish battle line. The first, a mass offensive, was directed against the Polish Army of the North, then holding a front along the Beresina River, east and west of Borysov. Aided by airplanes, tanks, artillery and armored trains, the Russians, on May 18th, hurled 200,000 men against the slimly defended Polish line. Under cover of a violent artillery attack, many Red troops succeeded in crossing the Beresina, south of Borysov, but almost immediately they were thrown back across the river with heavy losses, losing thousands of prisoners. As the battle proceeded, the two hostile armies swayed back and forth, single positions being captured and lost times without number. East of Vilna, the Soviet troops penetrated into the Lake Novotch district, some 60 miles, but eventually they were driven back by a combined force of Poles and Ruthenians.

Reinforced on June 2d, the Poles began a counter-offensive. In their first attack the Poles ruptured

the Soviet line on a 20-mile front, routing the Bolsheviks on every side. By June 9th they had broken the desperate Red resistance, destroyed the Soviet divisions, and captured several towns. They had, for the present, successfully defended the whole Kovno-Vilna-Minsk line, which guarded the direct routes to East Prussia and Lithuania. But, as the sequel will show, the Poles indulged in premature rejoicing over their victory.

#### Bolsheviks Recapture Kiev

While the battle of the Beresina was progressing in the North, a new Bolshevik offensive was developing in the South, with two Red armies gradually closing in upon Kiev. Daily, for two weeks, no less than 36 divisions of Soviet troops were hurled against the Kiev bridgehead lines, only to fall back battered and defeated. Early in June, the Poles launched a counter-offensive, compelling the temporary withdrawal of the Soviet forces southward.

Determined at all costs to recover Kiev, the Soviet high command had summoned Gen. Budenny, the same idolized cavalry commander who had destroyed Denekine's army the previous winter, to take over the supreme command on the Southern front. When the call issued, Budenny was resting in far-away Caucasasia. With a corps of 50,000 mounted Cossacks, all splendidly equipped from the immense stores of British arms and uniforms they had seized at Novorissk after Denekine's retreat, Budenny set forth on his long journey from the Caucasus, riding day and night. From every side reinforcements flocked to his colors. Thousands of peasants, urged on by the prospect of booty, unhitched their horses from their plows and joined the daring leader. Before the end of his journey Budenny found himself in command of a mounted army of 100,000 men.



Budenny and his Cossack riders arrived in the new battle zone on the night of June 9th. Without pause, the Cossack cavalry drove through a wide gap in the center of the Polish lines southwest of Kiev, and before the Polish General Staff became aware of what had happened, the Reds had cut all the communications with Kiev at Jitomir, Fastova and Berdichev, ripping up all the railroad tracks east, south and west.

Now wholly isolated, the fall of Kiev was seen to be inevitable. Still, its brave defender, Gen. Rydzmigli, and his army of 50,000 Poles, resolved to stand their ground though all should perish. This was not to be, however. By order of Marshal Pilsudski, the Polish army on June 13th evacuated Kiev, taking up a strong position west of Jitomir. Two days later the new Polish battle lines were again consolidated from the Dvina southward.

## Poles Retreat Toward Warsaw

The mobilization of the new Bolshevik Armies was completed early in June, with the concentration of 600,000 troops on the Polish front, which extended from Vilna 800 miles southward to Odessa. Against this formidable force, the Poles were able to oppose fewer than 250,000 first line troops. These were divided into two armies, one defending the Lithuanian corridor at Vilna in the north, the other covering the approaches to Lemberg in the south. The Russians, in addition to their two-fold superiority in numbers, were splendidly equipped with those perfected instruments of war which had been supplied by the Allies to the armies of Denekine, Kolchak and Yudenitch, and which were seized by the Bolsheviks during the respective retreats of these armies. Included in this panoply of warfare were many armored automobiles, tanks, machine guns, airplanes, heavy artillery, and an unlimited supply of ammunition. In addition to their infantry forces, the Bolsheviks had also mobilized an imposing mass of cavalry, no less than 120,000 mounted men, all expert riders and well equipped. The Poles, on the contrary, were woefully lacking in heavy artillery, rifles, ammunition, clothing and food; they had no armored cars and tanks, and their cavalry force was small.

### Vilna Captured by the Reds

The new Soviet offensive opened on June 18th with a powerful attack, in mass formation, by 300,000 Bolshevik troops on a section of the Pripet-Beresina front in the North, which Gen. Haller was desperately defending with a half-famished army of 120,000 Poles. The chief objective of the Russians was the fortified city of Vilna, guarding the corridor leading into Lithuania, that seceded Russian state which Poles and Bolsheviks alike were thirsting to acquire. With Vilna once again in their possession, the Red troops might easily overrun the province and seize the enormous stores of grain which filled the Lithuanian warehouses. Or else they might pass into East Prussia, seize the port of Danzig and flank Warsaw on the North.

Under the impact of the Bolshevik attack, the center of the Polish line immediately gave way, Haller's army retreating westward. Of no avail was the subsequent desperate resistance of the Poles; nothing could stem the onrushing Bolshevik current. Scores of villages and towns were hurriedly evacuated, the populations fleeing westward in panic flight. With the fall of Mozir on July 1st the whole Polish line was compelled to fall back.

Disaster followed disaster in rapid succession. The fortified city of Minsk was evacuated on July 9th and Vilna on July 14th. For days before the evacuation of Vilna, the Bolshevik element among the population were in control of the city, starting incendiary fires, looting houses, sacking stores and openly preaching sedition. After 60,000 civilians had fled the city, the approaches to Vilna were heroically defended by a battalion of 1,000 Polish women—the famous "Battalion of Death"—who held back the enemy for five days until overpowered. Not until July 14th were the Bolsheviks suffered to occupy the city in force.

Pushing northward, a column of Red troops advanced on Dvinsk. Here the Polish garrison was reinforced by a small body of Lettish troops, but their combined efforts did not avail to halt the onrush of the Reds. The town was finally evacuated, the Poles fleeing southward. Many other towns in Lithuanian territory occupied by Polish troops also were hurriedly evacuated. Then the advance on Warsaw was begun.

### Rovno Capitulates to the Reds

Similar disaster had meantime befallen the Polish army in the Southern sector, west of Kiev. Budenny's mounted army, after their capture of Kiev, had moved westward and invested the strong fortress of Rovno, which finally capitulated on July 7th. With Rovno in his possession, Budenny led his army toward Lemberg, the ancient capital of Galicia, as the first step in his advance on Warsaw from the Southeast.

## Allied Proposal for an Armistice Is Refused

With her armies everywhere in disorderly retreat, and her capital threatened from three directions, Poland appealed to the Allies for assistance, "military where possible, and the moral and diplomatic support of all."

At Spa, on July 11th, the Allied Supreme Council announced that a proposal for an armistice between

Poland and Russia had been dispatched to Russia, subject to the condition that the Polish troops retire behind Poland's "legitimate boundaries", the armistice to be followed by a meeting of all border states to fix boundaries. Should the Soviets refuse an armistice and attack the Poles within their "proper boundaries" the Allies would give Poland "full assistance."



### England's Separate Proposal

A separate proposal for an armistice between Poland and Russia was drawn up by the British Government. It differed from the Spa proposal in two of its principal stipulations, namely: That the armies of Soviet Russia should stand at a distance of fifty kilometers east of the line marking the provisional Eastern boundary of Poland, and that in Eastern Galicia each army should stand on the line it occupied at the date of the signature of the armistice. While granting that the British Government had bound itself "to give no assistance to Poland for any purpose hostile to Russia and to take no action itself hostile to Russia," still, the British Government "was bound under the covenant of the League of Nations to defend the integrity of Poland within its legitimate ethnological frontiers", and if, therefore, Soviet Russia should take action hostile to Poland in Poland's own territory, the British Government and its allies would "feel bound to assist the Polish Nation to defend its existence with all means at their disposal." This note had been sent with the approval of the Allies.

### Poles Themselves Ask for Armistice

Both the British and the Spa proposals for an armistice were scornfully rejected by the Soviet Government in a note radiographed to the world on July 20th, which accused the Allied governments of "hostile mediation" in behalf of a nation which had commenced a "robber war" against Soviet Russia. At the same time the Soviet Government declared its readiness to enter upon peace parleys with Poland, and to give the Poles an even more favorable frontier than that laid down by the Allied Powers, provided the Poles themselves should ask Russia to sign an armistice.

### Armistice Date Thrice Postponed

Upon the advice of the Allied governments, the Polish Diet applied directly to the Bolshevik authorities for an immediate armistice. In pretended compliance, the Moscow authorities set July 22d as the date and Baranovitchi as the place for the beginning of negotiations. This date was successively postponed by the Soviet Government, first until July 22d, then until the 26th, and finally until July 31st. Additional proof of Bolshevik chicanery was soon

forthcoming. On August 1st, when the Polish delegation presented their credentials to the Soviet representatives at Baranovitchi, they were informed that negotiations could not be opened until the Poles had received a mandate from their government to sign the full terms of peace. Assurance was given that the peace would be concluded at Minsk on August 10th.

### Allies Lay Down New Conditions of Peace

Meantime, on July 27th, the British and French Premiers had met in conference at Boulogne and drawn up a new note to the Bolshevik government, in which it was set forth that the Allied Powers would not permit Poland to accept armistice demands involving the four following principles: (1) Whole or partial disarmament of Poland. (2) A change in the Polish system of government dictated or brought about by the Soviets. (3) Acceptance by Poland of a boundary line less favorable than that originally drawn by the Peace Conference. (4) The use of Poland as a "bridge" in any sense between Russia and Germany.

### Bolsheviks Refuse to Grant a Truce

On August 6th, the Bolshevik trade envoys at London presented to Premier Lloyd George a note from Moscow, casting the blame for the armistice delay upon the Poles. The British Premier at once notified the Moscow authorities that they must agree to a ten days' truce with Poland, demanding an immediate reply which could be considered by the French and British premiers at a meeting arranged to take place at Hythe, England, on August 8th. The British House of Commons, on the same day, warned Russia that the Allied governments would bring force to bear if all other measures should fail. The Soviet government, in reply, sent a succession of notes. In the first note the request for a ten days' truce was definitely refused; the second note consented to a withdrawal of the Soviet troops from the provisional Polish boundary line, contingent upon Poland's acceptance of the armistice terms; the third note was a pledge to send Russian delegates to meet the Allied premiers at Hythe on August 8th. The Soviet government's refusal to grant a truce left the Allied governments no other alternative than to fulfil their pledges to extend military assistance to Poland.

## Russians Advance Close to Warsaw

While the negotiations for an armistice were pending, the Bolshevik armies had continued their advance on Warsaw, the capital of Poland. The Polish armies had fallen back in great confusion to the Bug River, where they expected to make their final stand behind a chain of fortresses defending the approaches to Warsaw. Of these fortresses the principal ones were Grodno and Bialstok at the North, Brest-Litovsk due east from Warsaw, and Lemberg at the South. The Grodno fortress was captured on July 22d, Brest-Litovsk fell on July 31st, and Bialstok a day later. With the subsequent capture of Lomza the Red army had almost completed the investment of Warsaw from the north and east. A further advance to Mlawa, only 36 miles from the Polish capital, would give them possession of the railroad con-

necting Danzig with Warsaw, and deprive the Poles of the supplies of arms and munitions arriving daily on French and British ships. In the south, Budenny's army was making heavy massed attacks upon the great Lemberg fortress.

The capture of Warsaw seemed imminent on August 13th. The Soviet forces, then within 20 miles of its northern gates, were encircling the city from three directions. General Haller's Polish army, now reduced to 100,000 men, was falling back upon the capital. Munitions unloaded at Danzig by the British were being rushed to the front and preparations to defend the capital were being pushed. New defenses were hastily constructed on the east bank of the Vistula. Fresh drafts of Polish conscripts and volunteers, including girls and boys of 14 years



of age, were advancing to the battle line. The roads in all directions were blocked with panic-stricken refugees, seeking to outstrip the Bolshevik pursuers. Within the city, a great procession of 100,000 men, women and children, headed by bishops and priests bearing banners and relics, marched through the main streets singing hymns.

#### French Generals in Command

Poland's dire plight brought many proffers of aid from friendly nations. Overtures of assistance were received from France, Finland, Latvia, Roumania, and, curiously, from Hungary. The Hungarians, in fact, volunteered to put a large army in the field

against the Russians, but this and other offers were held in abeyance. Scores of eminent officers from the various Allied armies arrived in Poland to organize the Polish defences. Among these was Gen. Maxime Weygand, the brilliant strategist and efficient Chief of Staff of the French Army, under Marshal Foch. Too long the Poles neglected to engage the services of Gen. Weygand, but at last, when the spectre of Bolshevism appeared at their very gates, they asked Gen. Weygand to assume command of their armies. With Gen. Weygand were associated two other eminent French strategists, Gen. Henrys and Gen. Billette and 400 lesser French officers.

## Soviet Armies Are Driven Out of Poland

With the accession of Gen. Weygand to the supreme command of the Polish armies, the tide of battle abruptly turned. The onrushing Bolshevik hordes, after arriving at the very environs of Warsaw, were stopped dead in their tracks, then forced to give ground and finally to retreat in great disorder and with heavy losses across the Polish and Russian frontiers.

The rejuvenated Polish army on August 15th counter-attacked in three directions. The left wing, under command of the French Generals Henrys and Billette, first drove the Reds out of Mlawa, north of Warsaw, thus reopening the railroad line to Danzig and permitting the transport of Allied munitions and supplies to Warsaw. Within a week the entire Danzig corridor had been cleared of the enemy, and thousands of Bolshevik troops driven across the East Prussian frontier, there to be disarmed and interned by the German Government. Other thousands of Red and ragged prisoners had fallen into the Polish net. Around Grodno, there was a stronger concentration of Soviet troops which it required a longer time to disperse, but these, too, were finally sent scampering eastward.

The Polish attack in the center, due east of Warsaw, was equally successful. Led in person by Marshal Pilsudski, the Poles drove the Bolshevik forces back 50 miles, across the Bug River, liberating many towns and taking 35,000 prisoners. On August 20th, the Central army re-entered Brest-Litovsk and there rested.

On the southern flank, in co-operation with a Ukrainian army under command of Gen. Pavlenko, the Poles cleared the region between the Dniester and Bug Rivers, thwarting all the attempts of Budenny's Cossack cavalry to encircle Lemberg, in Galicia. Some weeks were to elapse before the danger in this quarter was entirely overcome, for in addition to 100,000 horsemen under Budenny's command, there were two Bolshevik armies of infantry operating in this theater of war. But by September 17th, the valiant Poles had expelled the enemy from East Galicia and recaptured the fortress cities of Lutsk, Dubno and Rovno.

In the northern sector, the pursuit of the Bolsheviks continued through the month of September. Lida was captured by a Polish cavalry force on September 29th and the Fourth Bolshevik Army destroyed. Early in October, Marshal Pilsudski was able to report that the Soviet defeat on the whole northern front was virtually complete, 16 Bolshevik

divisions had been dispersed, 42,000 prisoners taken and large quantities of armored cars, machine guns, ammunition and other war material captured.

#### German Workmen Show Their Bias

The Soviet government had striven hard to avert the disaster. Some reinforcements had been sent to the front and the munition factories were kept going day and night to supply ammunition, but on the other hand Trotzky's efforts at conscription had failed among peasants and workmen. The German dockworkers in Danzig also had attempted to defeat the Polish offensive by refusing to unload the supplies of ammunition sent by the Allies to Poland. But with the arrival in Danzig of French and British warships, the German workmen were compelled to unload the vessels and the flow of ammunition toward the battle front continued without interruption.

#### Allies Hold Back the Poles

The further pursuit of the Bolsheviks beyond the provisional eastern frontier of Poland was strictly forbidden by order of the Supreme War Council. Protesting against this decision, Marshal Pilsudski declared on August 31st that it was impossible for the Polish armies to halt abruptly on the eastern front and there maintain a solely defensive attitude, as the Allies desired, since to stop at this line "would be to affirm by deed that this illusory eastern frontier corresponds to our aspirations." Now, he urged, was the time to deal Bolshevism its death blow, since the Soviet armies already had lost 100,000 men and their recuperation would be slow. The Allies nevertheless stayed the hand of Poland, giving Bolshevism a new lease of life, even as the politicians at Paris in November, 1918, had held back Marshal Foch in that moment of Allied victory when just retribution might soon have been visited upon Germany.

#### The Russo-Polish Armistice

The peace parleys between Poland and Russia, at Minsk, were interrupted in August upon Poland's insistence that the seat of negotiations be transferred to Riga in Latvia. Russia consenting, the negotiations were resumed at Riga on September 21st. In view of the changed military situation, Poland no longer would consent to make peace on the basis of a conquered nation.



The Polish delegates at Riga reiterated their refusal to accept the original terms imposed upon Poland at Minsk. These terms embraced three objectionable demands, viz: The reduction of the Polish army to 50,000 men, the demobilization of Polish war industries with the surrender of arms, and the return of the Volkovisk-Grajevo Railroad to Soviet Russia.

Russia humbly withdrew all these demands; instead, she consented to self-determination for White Russia, Lithuania and Ukraine; agreed to a plebiscite in East Galicia; proposed an extension of the eastern Polish frontier far beyond the provisional bounds fixed by the Allied Supreme Council, and including Eastern Galicia; at the same time warning the Polish delegates that if a satisfactory armistice were not accepted within ten days, or by October 5th, Soviet Russia would start a winter campaign.

The Polish preliminary terms, embodying eleven provisions, were then presented. Poland demanded: Recognition by Russia of the sovereignty of Poland and no interference by Russia in Poland's domestic affairs; the determination of boundaries, not in a spirit of historical revenge, but on a basis of just conciliation of vital interests; the right of free cultural, linguistic and religious development; ample time in which to formulate treaty terms; exemption from indemnities based upon the Polish-Soviet war; exchange of war prisoners and a refund of expenses

for their maintenance; release of civilian prisoners and hostages; mutual amnesty for Russian and Polish citizens; immediate negotiations for the conclusion of a treaty; resumption of diplomatic, commercial and economic relations between Russia and Poland; exemption from all obligations or duties that might attach to Poland as a former part of the Russian Empire; also, reciprocal renouncement of rights to government property.

These terms being acceptable to Russia, an armistice agreement was signed at Riga on October 12th. It was understood that the final peace treaty would be ratified within a few weeks. Although the Soviet concessions were not wholly satisfactory to Polish aspirations, in that millions of Poles were left outside the new frontiers, still the new boundaries were much more acceptable than those laid down by the Allies. The ground yielded to Poland east of the line drawn by the Allied Powers represents an area of 57,785 square miles, an increase equivalent to one-third of Poland's whole domain. Poland's total area was therefore increased to 160,000 square miles, and her population to 35,000,000, a larger area than the whole of Italy or the whole of the British Isles, and only 30,000 square miles less than the total area of Germany.

The negotiations for a permanent peace between Russia and Poland were progressing at the close of 1920.

TURKEY, MAY—SEPT.

## Turkish Treaty Signed at Sevres Conference But Not Ratified

Moslem Rule Ends in Europe, Though the Sultan Retains His Capital at Constantinople—Armenia Sentenced to Fresh Captivity by Her European Allies Who Seize On Her Ancient Provinces

SECTION 7—1920

THE first draft of the Turkish peace treaty, completed eighteen months after the Armistice, was duly presented to the Moslem delegates at Paris on May 11, 1920, with the demand that an answer be formulated within one month. Four months were destined to elapse, however, before the Turks would consent to sign the pact, and even then they withheld their signatures until the European Powers had agreed to grant them many important concessions. As amended, the treaty was at length signed by the Turkish delegates at a conference of Premiers held at Sevres, France, on August 12th. Still, the treaty did not become effective, since the Sultan's Government at Constantinople refused to ratify it, basing their refusal on the plea that the Turkish Nationalists, then engaged in widespread revolt, would never consent to the dismemberment of the Empire. Because of this refusal, a technical state of war continued to exist between the states of Europe and Turkey throughout the year, and an actual state of war existed between two of these states and the Turkish Nationalists. The United States, having never been at war with Turkey, was not a party to the peace proceedings.

With the publication in May of the original draft of the Treaty, disclosure was made for the first time of its essentially reprobate character. A wave of indignation overswept all Christendom at the discovery that the Premiers of Europe had so far capit-

ulated to the Turks as to permit the Sultan to retain his capital in Constantinople, "and there pontificate over the Moslem world as Khalif or successor to Mahomet." Indignation grew when it was learned that Christian Armenia, her heart seared by centuries of savage persecution, had been not only despoiled of her best provinces by her covetous European Allies, but condemned to fresh captivity under the Turks by agreement of those very nations she had assisted to save during the Great War. The world was indeed elated to learn that, by the cession of Thrace to Greece the end of Turkish rule in Europe had been decreed, but the opinion was generally held that Greece had been too generously rewarded for her slight contribution to the Allied cause.

### Turkish Treaty Summarized

Though her capital was permitted to remain in Europe, Turkey was stripped nevertheless almost bare of her most important territories. She was required to cede to Greece all of Thessaly, Saloniki, Western Thrace, Eastern Thrace up to the outer ramparts of Constantinople, a zone on the Sea of Marmora and a Greek protectorate over Smyrna in Asia Minor and its hinterland. The Greek coast of the Sea of Marmora had been declared neutral to a depth of about nine miles, and the Turkish coast neutralized to a depth of 62 miles. Turkey had been forced to renounce her claims to the islands



of Lemnos, Samos, Nikaria, Mitylene and Chios, which had been ceded to Greece by the London Conference of 1913. The islands of Imbros and Tenedos were annexed to Greece. All the islands in the Dodecanese group assigned to Italy by the Treaty, excepting Castellorizo alone, were transferred to Greece.

Turkey was to recognize the independence of Armenia, Mesopotamia and Hedjaz and confer autonomy upon Kurdistan. The boundary between Armenia and Turkey, was to be fixed in detail by President Wilson.

Control over the waters of the Dardanelles, the Sea of Marmora and the Bosphorus was vested in a "Commission of the Straits." It was agreed that these waters should not be subject to blockade, and that navigation of the Straits should be open in future, both in peace and war, to every vessel of commerce or of war without distinction of flag.

Turkey accepted in advance a scheme of local autonomy for the so-called Kurdish areas in Turkish Armenia, to be drafted by a commission composed of British, French and Italian representatives sitting at Constantinople.

The treaty sanctioned the British protectorate in Egypt and the Sudan, the French protectorate in Tunis and French Morocco, and Italian sovereignty in Libya.

Turkey was required to assure full and complete protection of life and liberty to all inhabitants of Turkey without distinction of birth, nationality, language, race or religion. Special provision was made for the annulment of forcible conversions to Islam during the war and for the search and delivery of all persons carried off or placed in captivity during the War.

The civil and political rights of minorities living in Turkey, including the free use of their language, their schools and churches, were safeguarded by certain "capitulations" or privileges extended to them.

The military terms of the treaty provide for the demobilization of the Turkish Armies and the naval clauses provide for the surrender of all Turkish warships with the exception of a few small armed vessels for police and fishery duties. Warships under construction, including submarines, are to be broken up. Turkey will be allowed to maintain an armed land force, for the maintenance of internal order and the control of Turkish frontiers, comprising not more than 50,000 men, with not more than 2500 officers. The armament, munitions and material of war at the disposal of Turkey are limited to a schedule based on the amount necessary for the new armed force. No tanks, armored cars, poison gases or flame throwers are to be manufactured or imported.

For the purpose of guaranteeing the freedom of the Straits, all fortifications and batteries are to be demolished within a zone extending 20 kilometers inland from the coasts of the Sea of Marmora and of the Straits. France, Great Britain and Italy reserve the right to prepare for demolition any roads or railways constructed by Turkey for the rapid transport of mobile batteries. Finally, no military or naval air forces are to be maintained by Turkey, and the manufacture, importation and exportation of aircraft in Turkish territory during six months following the coming into force of the treaty is forbidden.

### Turkish Nationalist Uprising

The Treaty was bitterly assailed by all the Turkish factions. Government officials denounced the partition of Thrace as "unendurable", since it brought the Greeks to the very gates of Constantinople; they also resented the extension of capitulatory rights to include those Christian people who still wear the Ottoman yoke but had not previously enjoyed such protection; and they condemned the grant of absolute administrative powers to the International Straits Commission, on the ground that it would reduce Turkish Sovereignty at Constantinople to a mere fiction.

The Nationalist press seethed with manifestos of an inflammable character, calling upon the returned soldiers and the youth of Turkey to renounce the authority of the Grand Vizier, Damad Ferid Pasha, and rally to the standard of revolt at Angora and Adrianople.

Mustapha Kemal Pasha of Saloniki, ex-Inspector General of the Third Turkish Army, became the recognized head of the Nationalist movement and the leader of the military revolt. Supported by a former Grand Vizier, Salih Pasha, and a number of Deputies of the dissolved Turkish Chamber at Stamboul, Mustapha Kemal on May 17th proclaimed a Nationalist Government at Angora. This Assembly declined to be bound by any treaty negotiated by the Sultan's Government and refused to recognize any peace treaty unless negotiated by persons delegated by itself. Within a week, 40,000 Turkish soldiers rallied to the Nationalist colors, all sworn to oppose Greek occupation to the death.

On May 22d, Tayar Pasha convened a meeting of Turkish notables at Adrianople, when it was decided, by a vote of 118 to 82, to resist the Greek occupation of Thrace. Tayar Pasha at once enrolled a force of 8,000 soldiers to give battle to 50,000 Greeks already in the field.

### Nationalists at War with Greeks

When the Greeks, under the sanction of the Turkish Treaty, prepared to send forth their armies to occupy Thrace and Smyrna, the Sultan's troops peaceably withdrew. Upon the withdrawal of the Sultan's troops, the Turkish Nationalist forces, commanded by Tayar Pasha in Thrace and by Mustapha Kemal in Anatolia, went forth to give battle to the Greek "invaders." Tayar Pasha, whose campaign in Thrace is elsewhere described in detail, was quickly disposed of. The Greeks easily drove his rebel army out of Thrace and into Bulgaria, where it was disbanded. With the occupation of Adrianople by the Greeks, the conquest of Thrace was complete.

### Ratification of Treaty Postponed

The Turkish Treaty, though signed by authorized delegates, still awaited ratification by the Turkish Government, which was then dominated by Damad Ferid, the Grand Vizier. Unable to agree upon the ratification of the Treaty, Damad Ferid's Cabinet resigned on October 18th, and Tewfik Pasha as Grand Vizier then undertook to form a provisional Ministry which should be more responsible to Allied pressure. On October 26th, Tewfik Pasha gave notice that he should convoke the Turkish parliament "as soon as efforts to bring about national union shall have succeeded." Pursuant to this pur-



pose, a Prince of the Royal House was sent to Angora to treat with Mustapha Kemal, but before his arrival there, Kemal had summoned a convention of Nationalist leaders at Erzerum, which definitely repudiated the Sevres treaty and declared in favor of war.

The Nationalist forces carried the war into Armenia, advancing from Kars on November 7th, and threatening Erivan, the Armenian capital. When news of this fresh invasion reached Constantinople, the Turkish Government notified the Allied Powers that "the present time was inopportune for the ratification of the Treaty of Sevres."

RUSSIA, AUG.—NOV.

## Final Bolshevik Victory Over Russian Nationals in the Crimea

Gen. Wrangel's Army Surprised in the Isthmus of Perekop  
and Almost Wholly Destroyed

SECTION 8—1920

### Russian National Forces, 60,000

Gen. Baron Wrangel, Commander-in-Chief

Divisional Commanders:

Gen. Belakhovitch

Gen. Kutieпов

Gen. Ulagha

Gen. Makhno

Gen. Petlura

Gen. Lokhvitzky

### Bolshevik Forces

Sixth Soviet Army

Ninth Soviet Army

WHILE the Polish armies were rallying, under French auspices, for the grand offensive which was destined to result in the complete rout of all the Bolshevik forces on the Baltic front, the peasants of South Russia and the Ukraine were also uniting in a final effort to overthrow the Bolshevik regime. The seat of this Russian uprising was the Crimean peninsula, where 60,000 survivors of Denekine's ill-fated army had found refuge after the disastrous retreat. There, in August, 1920, "The Government of South Russia" was proclaimed by Gen. Peter Wrangel, a dashing young cavalry leader who had served under Denekine.

Avoiding the fatal errors of Denekine and Kolchak, who had alienated the people by their Czaristic methods and particularly by their threats to deprive the peasants of their newly acquired lands, Wrangel publicly announced that his government should be based upon democratic principles, insuring equality of civil and political rights; protection of the interests of the working classes and of their trade organizations; distribution of the land with full rights of ownership to those who actually cultivate it; formal acknowledgment of international engagements contracted toward foreign powers by previous governments of Russia; payment of Russian debts, and a union of Russia into one large federation voluntarily formed.

The Soviet Government insolently demanded that the Allies secure the immediate surrender of Gen. Wrangel, "under guarantee of personal safety." Instead of complying with this demand, the French Cabinet on August 11th voted to recognize Wrangel's Government and extend to him military and financial aid. The Cossack tribesmen thereupon flocked to Wrangel's standard in large numbers and several of the independent army leaders also proffered him their support. Chief among these were Gen. Petlura, commander of the Ukrainian Peasant Army; Gen. Makhno, the former bandit; Gen. Kutieпов, commander in the Taurida district; Gen. Belakhovitch and Gen. Lokhvitzky. The Cossacks of the Kuban, Astrakhan and Terek districts also pledged their allegiance to Wrangel.

### Wrangel's Early Victories

Success at first attended the military operations of Gen. Wrangel. Advancing quickly out of the Crimea in September, with a force of 100,000 men, he had but little difficulty in defeating and dispersing the relatively weak Soviet forces that confronted him, for at that time the main strength of the Bolshevik forces was hotly engaged on the Polish front.

Wrangel's first notable victory was the capture on September 20th of the railway junction at Petropavlovsk, followed by the seizure of other important strategic points. Two days later the city of Alexandrovsk on the Dnieper River was taken with large numbers of prisoners and munitions, the Bolshevik falling back in disorderly retreat along the railroad east of Alexandrovsk, losing many prisoners daily during the ensuing week. The capture of several towns on the shores of the Sea of Azov followed.

Early in October, Wrangel effected a junction with Gen. Makhno's cavalry who had taken the important city of Kharkov in a flying raid. The plight of the Bolshevik forces along the Dnieper River was becoming increasingly critical; insurgent bands were harassing their flanks and large numbers of the Reds were surrendering daily.

With his northern front established along the railway from Mariopol to Ekaterinoslav, Gen. Wrangel now carried out a pincers movement against the Sixth Soviet Army sheltered behind the Dnieper River. By the capture of 6,000 Bolshevik sailors at Mariopol who were about to descend on the grain port of Grutschezk, Wrangel assured his control of the Sea of Azov. At the same time, he made himself master of the Donetz Basin, with its network of railways. Everywhere the Red armies were in retreat. The Poles on the Western front were driving them pell mell across the Russian and Lithuanian borders; the Cossacks had compelled their withdrawal beyond the Dnieper River. The collapse of the Bolshevik regime seemed imminent.

### Wrangel's Sudden Defeat

Suddenly the situation was reversed. Acknowledging defeat on the Baltic front, the Soviet Govern-



ment arranged a hurried truce with the Poles, which enabled them to transfer several army corps from the Baltic front to the Crimea.

With the arrival of these reinforcements, the Red forces in the South resumed the initiative. Mariupol and Berdiansk on the Sea of Azov were recaptured on October 12th and the army of Gen. Wrangel fell back in disorderly retreat, first to Taurida and finally to the Isthmus of Perekop, which forms the neck of the Crimean peninsula. In this narrow space they hoped to hold the enemy at bay, but the fates conspired against them. Ordinarily their flanks would be protected by the flowing waters of the Black Sea, but it so happened that the arms of the Sea which inclosed this Isthmus suddenly froze

over night, enabling the Bolshevik hordes to cross on the ice and assault Wrangel's army on both flanks. The trenches were at once stormed and thousands of the heroic Cossacks were either cut down or suffocated by the fumes of poison gas. The survivors were driven in headlong flight through the peninsula, and barely a quarter of the army made good their escape. By November 14th, the Red forces had arrived at the gates of Sebastopol, which was filled with terror-stricken refugees clamoring for passage to Constantinople. Gen. Wrangel made his escape by boat, first to Constantinople and finally to Paris. Only a small remnant of his army escaped destruction. Thus ended the last effort of the South Russians to emancipate themselves from the Bolshevik yoke.

SYRIA, JAN.—DEC.

## French at War With Arabs for Possession of Syria

Arabs Set Up a Rival Government at Bagdad, But Are Expelled—Prince Feisal, Deposed King of Syria, Fails to Gain the Ear of Europe

SECTION 9—1920

French Army of the Levant, 60,000

Gen. Gouraud, Commander

Division Commanders:

Gen. Goybet  
Gen. Querette  
Gen. Normand

Turkish Nationalist Army, 50,000

Mustapha Kemal, Commander

Arab Volunteer Army, 50,000

Emir Feisal, Commander  
Gen. Buchidi Bey  
Namik Effendi  
Hassan Bey

THE dissection of the Turkish Empire, and the equitable apportionment of its severed parts among the clamant nations had progressed but little beyond the theoretical stage of state surgery at the dawn of 1920. In truth, the surgeons had been baffled, and the operation consequently delayed, by the inability of the jealous European nations to agree upon a fair division of the mutilated carcass of the Turkish Empire. Their disagreement had its origin in the secret treaties drawn up in 1915 and 1916, between England and the Arab King of the Hedjaz on the one hand, and England and France on the other, after the entrance of Turkey into the World War as an ally of Germany. Fearing for the safety of Egypt and India, and prepared to pay any price for their preservation, the English statesmen were most prodigal in promises of reward to whomsoever would assist them in the Near East. In March, 1915, a secret treaty had been signed by England and France, assuring the latter nation of a predominant position in Syria in event of the dismemberment of the Turkish Empire.

Seven months later, in October, 1915, when the Allies were preparing to build a military railroad extending across the head of the Sinai peninsula into Syria, the British Government, in return for Arab assistance, pledged itself by treaty to recognize the independence of the Arabs of the Ottoman Empire "South of latitude 37 degrees", except in the provinces of Bagdad and Basra, and in certain other areas "where Great Britain is not free to act without detriment to the interests of France." Unaware of the prior secret treaty with France, Sherif Hussein Ibn Ali, the foremost Arab chieftain, affected to believe that England had given him assurance of full support in his plan of setting up an

Arab Empire or Federation of Arab states to include all of Arabia, Syria and Mesopotamia. Tempted by what he assumed to be a dazzling promise, Hussein on November 16, 1916, declared the independence of the Hedjaz with himself as King, and was accorded recognition as such by the Allied Supreme Council. At the head of 50,000 Bedouins, Hussein declared war against the Turks and till the close of hostilities he continued to render powerful aid to the British in their campaigns in Syria and Mesopotamia.

### The Sykes-Picot Treaty

Meantime a third secret pact, known as the Sykes-Picot Treaty, had been concluded by England and France, in May, 1916, whereby a provisional disposition was made of the Arab provinces of the Ottoman Empire in event of Allied victory. By the terms of this treaty the Arab provinces were to be divided into five zones. Mesopotamia, from Tekrit to the gulf, together with the seaport of Haifa, was claimed by England. Palestine, from the Jordan to the Mediterranean, was to be "internationalized." The Syrian coast, from Tyre to Alexandretta, and all Turkish Armenia, were to be administered by France. The interior provinces of Damascus, Aleppo, Urfa, Deir and Mosul were to be regarded as "independent Arab states," yet at the same time as "spheres of influence" for England and France, each of the latter nations claiming economic and political priority over a half of the Syrian interior, and the right to "supply such advices as the Arabs desire."

In June, 1917, when the military support of the Arabs was most urgently desired, the British Government signed another treaty with seven Syrian



notabilities, assuring the independence of the pre-War Arab states and of all Arab areas that might be freed by military action of their inhabitants during the War. Since the Arabs were chiefly instrumental in freeing Syria, they considered it as their own possession.

Subsequently, the British Government decided that Palestine should be considered apart from Syria, and placed in possession of some agents subject to British influence and control. Accordingly, on November 2, 1917, Lord Balfour issued his historic declaration announcing the establishment in Palestine of a "national home for the Jewish people," it being clearly understood that nothing should be done which might prejudice the civil and religious rights of existing non-Jewish communities in Palestine of the rights and political status enjoyed by Jews in any other country. It was made plainly evident, however, that the overwhelming mass of the population in Palestine opposed the separation of that province from the rest of Syria, and the erection in it of a Jewish Commonwealth. Out of a population of 700,000 550,000 were Moslem Arabs, 70,000 Christian Arabs, and only 80,000 Jews. So bitterly did the Arabs, Christians and Moslems resent the attitude of the Jews that but for the presence of the British troops they would assuredly have exterminated them.

#### Arabs Proclaim Government in Syria

After the surrender of the Turkish armies, in October, 1918, Arab armed forces, under command of Prince Feisal, a son of King Hussein, had hoisted their flag in Beirut and proclaimed a national government over Syria. The French Government at once protested that the Arab occupation was in violation of the terms of the Sykes-Picot Treaty, giving France the predominant position in Syria. Although the prejudices of the English statesmen undoubtedly coincided with the Arab ambitions, still they did not dare openly to affront France, and as all the Allied troops in Syria were then under the command of Gen. Allenby it was decided to order the Arab troops out of the west coastal region. As the Arab troops moved out the French troops moved in. The French press then began a vigorous campaign to compel the complete withdrawal of all English troops out of Syria, and this campaign continued all through 1919.

#### Declaration of Allied Policy in the East.

After the signing of the Armistice between Turkey and the Allies, an official declaration of Allied policy in the East was made at Paris on November 8, 1918. This declaration stated that the aim of both France and Great Britain was "to insure the complete emancipation of all those peoples, so long oppressed by the Turks, and to establish governments and administrations which shall derive their authority from the initiative and free will of the peoples themselves. To realize this aim, France and Great Britain are in agreement to encourage and assist the establishment of native governments in Syria and Mesopotamia, now liberated by the Allies, as also in those territories for whose liberation they are striving, and to recognize these governments immediately after they are effectively established."

With the publication of the first draft of the Covenant of the League of Nations, the liberated peoples of the former Turkish Empire drew new en-

couragement from a perusal of Article 22, which provides that "Certain communities formerly belonging to the Turkish Empire have reached a stage of development where their existence as independent nations can be provisionally recognized, subject to the rendering of administrative advice and assistance by a mandatory until such time as they are able to stand alone. The wishes of these communities must be a principal consideration in the selection of the mandatory."

#### Prince Feisal at the Peace Conference

Prince Feisal, son of the King of the Hedjaz, appeared before the Peace Congress in 1919, asking that a "unified Syria" be made a mandatory of the League of Nations. He would prefer that the United States be vested with the mandatory power, and failing that, Great Britain. This proposal was resented in France, where it was frequently alleged that the British Government was using Feisal as a cat'spaw in an effort to nullify the terms of the Sykes-Picot Treaty.

#### English and French Relations Strained

The relations between England and France were strained almost to the breaking point during the summer of 1919, because of the retention of British troops in Syria, contrary to the terms of the Sykes-Picot Treaty, but the tense situation was at length relieved by an agreement reached in September, according to which the British troops were wholly withdrawn from Syria and Cilicia and replaced by French troops, except in that part of the Near East which was to continue under Prince Feisal's administration so long as he should maintain order in that region. While there, the Arabs were to look to France and not to Great Britain for advice and support. It was agreed that Gen. Gouraud should replace Gen. Allenby as head of the Allied Administration in Syria and Cilicia, and that he should act also as French High Commissioner.

#### Arabs Attack the French

Gen. Gouraud, with a force of 20,000 Moroccan and Senegalese troops, moved at once into the French zone of administration. Arab bands obstinately opposed the advance of the French, especially in the Damascus district, where the Arab commander of the Third Aleppo Division incited his troops to violence, with this command: "Since we cannot formally declare war on the French, let us flood the country with bands, which will destroy them little by little. These bands will be commanded by our officers and if any of these are killed, the families of such martyrs will be cared for at the expense of the state."

On December 3, 1919, the French post at Tel Kalaa was attacked by Arab troops under the Sherif of Homs. Late in December, 400 Bedouins, commanded by Mahmond Faour, using machine guns, massacred the Christians of Merdj-Ayoun. On January 5, 1920, the French troops at Kirik Khan were attacked by Arab Regulars. On January 25th, an Arab detachment under Captain Fouad Selim, attacked the French post at Litani bridge. Antioch and Harim were similarly attacked, and there were many Arab assaults on Christian populations in nearby towns. In every case the champions of disorder were said to be partisans of Prince Feisal.



### Prince Feisal Proclaimed King of Syria

At a Pan-Syrian Congress convened at Damascus on March 8th Syria was formally declared to be an independent state. Palestine, Lebanon and Northern Mesopotamia were included in the new Syria. Three days later, Prince Feisal, third son of King Hussein of the Hedjaz, was proclaimed King of Syria.

At the same time Feisal's brother, Prince Zeid, was proclaimed Regent of Mesopotamia by an Assembly of 29 Mesopotamian notables sitting at Damascus.

Protests rained in upon the Supreme Council against the recognition of "King Feisal." Among these was one from the Council of Lebanon; another came from the Palestinian Jews, and still another was sent by Chekri Ganem, President of the Central Committee. They all agreed that the establishment of an Arab or Sherifian Government would be tantamount to intrusting the destinies of Syria to "an incompetent, archaic and retrograde power, far worse than that from which the Allied victory had delivered her."

The Allied Supreme Council, in view of these protests, felt justified in refusing to treat with the envoy of "King" Feisal, demanding that the Prince appear before them in person, not as a king, but in his capacity of delegate representing his father, King Hussein of Hedjaz. Nevertheless, and with the tacit consent of Generals Allenby and Gouraud, "King Feisal of Syria" was permitted to name a Ministry for his Kingdom, and a corp of Arab lawyers was directed to draft a Syrian code.

### French Ultimatum to the Arabs

Gen. Gouraud, on July 15th, served on Prince Feisal an ultimatum embodying the following terms: Acceptance of the French mandate over Syria; acceptance of French and Syrian currency; French control of the railway from Risk to Aleppo; French occupation of the Homs and Hama Railway stations and the town of Aleppo; the punishment of revolutionary criminals, and acceptance of the foregoing conditions within four days.

Gen. Gouraud variously justified his ultimatum to the Syrian prince, but chiefly because of several marks of official hostility shown him by the Arabs, their co-operation with the Turkish Nationalists, their aggressions and preparations for war. In support of his charges he alleged that Gen. Buchidi Bey, who succeeded Djaffar Pasha as Governor of Aleppo, had in January closed the railway necessary to France for the transport of military reinforcements to Cilicia; that since January the Arab agents had worked in concert with the Turkish Nationalists; that the Syrian authorities had sought to prevent the French from sending reinforcements and provisions to Cilicia; that the Syrian post at El Rammam had been attacked by a band commanded by Sherifian officers and both Barun and Antioch attacked by Arab bands in March; that Arab preparations for war were evidenced when, in December, Prince Feisal had instituted conscription, compelling the unwilling population to serve in his army, and subsequently had broken off economic and financial relations with the French zone of the littoral, rendering more difficult the task of feeding Syria.

### French Troops Occupy Damascus

Prince Feisal having ignored the ultimatum, Gen. Gouraud on July 19th set his army of 60,000 French troops in motion toward Damascus, the Syrian capital. His professed intention was to free the railways running north and south from Beirut to Cilicia, rather than to occupy Damascus. He hoped to accomplish this result by concentrating at Aleppo, Hama, Homs and Ryak.

The French troops had been three days on the march when a message was received from Prince Feisal accepting the terms of the ultimatum and asking Gen. Gouraud to stop his advance on Damascus. Gen. Gouraud acceded to the request, but unfortunately, on the same day, a small column of French troops, guarding the pass between Homs and Tripolis, was attacked by a body of Syrian regulars. The French southern column, commanded by Gen. Goybet, after a prolonged fight, put the Syrians to flight. Thereupon the Syrian authorities of Damascus sent messages to the French general, inviting him to occupy the city and promising to provision his troops until such time as the railway could be restored. Accepting the offer, the French troops entered Damascus on July 25th, and Gen. Goybet at once issued a proclamation dethroning "King" Feisal.

### Damascus Army Disarmed

Meantime the Syrian Congress had overthrown the Feisal Ministry and reorganized the government. Gen. Goybet, in receiving the new Syrian Ministry, gave notice that a war contribution of ten million francs should be exacted as reparation for the damage caused by the Syrian guerilla warfare in the western zone. Immediate disarmament of the Damascus Army was begun and war material was handed over to the French military authorities.

Prince Feisal, in his note to the Allied Powers, protesting the French aggressions, accused Gen. Goybet with the "grave betrayal" of the Arab nation and demanded "justice, protection and succour" for his people. In the British House of Commons, on July 19th, the Government was severely arraigned for permitting France to take such "high handed" a course in Syria, as tended to jeopardize the friendly relations between Great Britain and Hedjaz, whose political and territorial integrity had been solemnly guaranteed. Andrew Bonar Law, replying for the British Government, explained that the French Government had given assurances that French troops would be withdrawn from Syria as soon as the mandate had been accepted and order restored. To cast aspersions on the action of the French Government, was in his opinion a regrettable course to take, involving possibilities of serious danger.

King Hussein of Hedjaz, on July 25th, recalled his representative at the Peace Conference, at the same time addressing to Premier Lloyd George a note of protest against the continued occupation of Damascus by French troops.

With the seizure of Damascus by the French, order was quickly restored in Syria. Native leaders on all sides voluntarily surrendered their arms and the populations of Aleppo, Homs and Hamaha received the French troops with great joy.

### Lebanon Pacified

After dethroning "King" Feisal of Syria and establishing a new government at Damascus, Gen.



Gouraud proceeded on to Zaleh, where he delivered an address outlining the French policy to be pursued. As a reward for Lebanon's unswerving loyalty to France, he declared the four gazas of Baalbeck, Bekaa, Hasbeiya and Rasheiya to be annexed

to the Greater Lebanon. In order to conserve defensive and labor power, he forbade all emigration.

Prince Feisal, after his dethronement, went to Rome, where he posed as a martyr to Syrian liberty, but without gaining the ear of Europe.

ARMENIA, JAN.—DEC.

## Armenia Plundered and Betrayed by Her European Allies

After Being Spoliated of Her Richest Provinces, Armenia is Abandoned to Her Enemies  
Turks Renew Their Massacres of the Disarmed Armenians at Marash, Aintab,  
Adana and Hadjin

SECTION 10—1920

### Armenian Forces, 30,000

Cilician Army, Gen. Antranik  
Caucasian Army, Gen. Nazarbakian

### French Army of the Levant, 60,000

Gen. Gouraud, Commander  
Gen. Querette  
Gen. Normand

### Turkish Nationalist Forces, 30,000

Mustapha Kemal, Commander  
Mustapha Bey (Marash)

**A**RMENIA, oldest of all Christian nations and saddest of all martyr-states, instead of being delivered from her cruel Islamic captivity and reinstated wholly in her ancient seat, was fated in the year 1920 to be plundered, repartitioned and cynically betrayed by agreement of her most excellent friends and former allies, the Christian Powers of Europe, in defense of whose liberties a quarter of the entire Armenian race—one million souls at the least—had offered up their lives during the Great War.

Too covetous to be humane, and too callous of heart to heed the piteous cry of this oppressed Christian race, whose captive fate they themselves might have shared had not America in 1918 rescued them in the very nick of time from the tightening grasp of Germany, the Great Powers proceeded first of all to strip Armenia bare of her richest possessions, then to disarm the Armenian troops in the face of the armed Turkish foe, and at last, as a crowning act of perfidy toward a loyal ally engaged in a life-or-death struggle with the common enemy, suddenly to withdraw the protection of their troops from the danger zone in Cilicia, permitting the abominable Turks to fall upon and butcher the Christian inhabitants of six towns and villages.

The Turkish massacres were renewed in the averted face of Europe and in close proximity to the base of the French Army of Occupation (an army of black Mohammedan troops out of Senegal who fraternized betimes with their co-religionists the Turks), with no Allied hand to stay or Allied voice to protest the horrid butchery. Before the Turkish thirst for Christian blood was fully sated, the inhabitants of several Armenian towns and villages had either been slaughtered outright or driven into exile, some to perish miserably amid the blizzard-swept wastes of the Taurus Mountains, others to endure the pangs of starvation in the famine districts of Caucasia. Were it not for the food, clothing and medical supplies sent to the starving remnant of the Armenian race from America, the entire race might have been exterminated.

While America was thus alleviating the woes of the Armenians, the Great Powers of Europe were

plotting their further degradation. By consent of those superlords of Europe, the Premiers of England, France and Italy, the Armenian nationals in Anatolia were condemned to a fresh captivity under the Turks under the amended terms of the Turkish Treaty, which restored the Sultan to his seat in Constantinople and to the greater part of his possessions in Anatolia and Turkish Armenia.

### Armenia Refuses the Turkish Bribe

Armenia might have escaped this new affliction had she not, in 1914, subordinated her own best interests to the welfare of ingrate Europe. In that year, after deciding to enter the War on the side of the German alliance, the Turks had sought to enlist the support of the Armenians, promising to restore them in possession of three of their lost provinces if they should join the Germanic alliance. Though well aware that refusal would spell their doom, still the noble Armenians did not hesitate. Spurning the proffered Turkish bribe they avowed their sympathy with the Allied cause, at the same time promising to remain neutral. Infuriated by the refusal of the Armenians to do their bidding, and resolved upon their utter extermination, the dastard Turks at once inaugurated those appalling massacres which did not cease until one million Armenians had been butchered. Such was the staggering price which the oldest of all Christian nations was forced to pay for her loyal adherence to the cause of human liberty.

### • Armenians Declare War Against Turks

In consequence of the massacres, Armenia declared war against Turkey, putting two armies in the field. The Armenian Legion of the East, composed entirely of volunteers, assisted the British and French in winning the decisive battle of Asara in Palestine which not only broke the backbone of Turkish resistance but made Gen. Allenby's victory possible. More than 10,000 Armenian Volunteers went from the United States to fight the battles of France. The heroic exploits of these Armenian Volunteers at Verdun were publicly cited by Premier Clemenceau. After the dissolution of the Russian Empire and the



withdrawal of the Russian Army of the Caucasus in 1917, the defense of the entire Caucasian front was left to the Armenian Army of the North. Unaided, this army held the Caucasian line against the repeated attacks of Turks, Tartars, Kurds and Bolsheviks, until the cessation of hostilities in 1918. By reason, therefore, of Armenia's historic rights in the lands of which she had been dispossessed by the Turks, and her unswerving loyalty to the Allied cause during the entire period of the War, she was by every rule of justice entitled to be fully restored in her ancient possessions upon the dissolution of the Turkish Empire. The Allied Powers in 1916 had promised the liberation of Cilicia and the three western provinces from the Turkish yoke. Yet in the same year those selfish powers secretly planned otherwise. While Armenia was fighting their battles, they were plotting to betray and defraud her!

#### Four Secret Treaties Signed

The betrayal of Armenia, by agreement of the Great Powers, was one of many iniquitous results flowing from the fountain source of the several treaties secretly ratified, while yet the World War was in its infancy, by the new Machiavellis of Europe. Having foreseen the final triumph of the Allied cause and the consequent dissolution of the Turkish Empire, the Great Powers, even in the hour of their gravest peril, were feverishly concerned over the ultimate division of the spoils of war among themselves. Four secret treaties were devised by them, all treating on the prospective partition of the Turkish Empire. In none of these treaties, however, was due consideration given to the prior and paramount rights of the original proprietors of the Turkish lands, Armenia in particular.

The first of these secret treaties, known as the Sazonof-Paleologue Agreement, and signed at London on March 4, 1915, was in the nature of a concession to Russia, who for 70 years or more had been baffled in her efforts to secure an outlet on the Mediterranean Sea by the concerted action of her jealous rivals, England, France and Germany. Now, by virtue of her enormous contribution to the Allied cause, Russia demanded and received assurance that she should be allowed to hold Constantinople and the Straits as her very own in event of Turkey's defeat.

#### Italy Names Her Price

A few weeks later, on April 25, 1915, after Italy had named her price for entering the war on the side of the Allies, there was ratified a second secret pact, known as the Treaty of London, whereby a pledge was given to Italy that she should be restored in possession of all the lands which Austria had seized from her, and should receive in addition a bit of the fringe of the Turkish Empire, including the Dodecanese group of islands in the Eastern Mediterranean, and "a just share" of the Mediterranean coastal region in Asia Minor.

#### England and France Take Lion's Share

England and France, meantime, had tacitly agreed to apportion between themselves certain "spheres of influence" within and embracing the greater part of the Turkish Empire. England claimed as her portion practically the whole of Mesopotamia, an

Empire in itself stretching from the Persian Gulf to the Black Sea, and potentially rich in oil, copper and cotton. England's control over Mesopotamia was declared essential to the "proper protection of the frontiers of India against possible attack from the West," but her real thought was to gain possession of the rich oil wells at Baku. France desired for her sphere of influence the greater part of Syria, whose Christian populations she had indeed protected for upward of a century, and in addition all of Cilicia, Armenia's richest possession in Asia Minor. As yet, however, there was no written agreement to this effect between England and France.

#### How Russia Forced Their Hands

The hands of these two Powers were suddenly forced when, in the spring of 1916, a Russian army under command of Grand Duke Nicholas, moving southward across the Caucasian Mountains, invaded Turkish Armenia, easily dispersing the Turks from the four northern provinces and proceeding southward toward Constantinople. In alarm lest Russia, single-handed, might complete the conquest of the whole Turkish Empire, where they had failed, and perhaps assert a more justifiable claim than theirs to the vast domains which they had secretly allocated to themselves, England and France in June, 1916, devised a new secret pact, known as the Sykes-Picot treaty, in which the contemplated partition of the Ottoman Empire was definitely set forth and Russia's participation therein carefully restricted. Unwilling to concede to Russia any part of their own allotments in Mesopotamia, Syria or Cilicia, the two Powers then and there cynically agreed to despoil Armenia of her four rich vilayets of Trebizond, Erzerum, Van and Bitlis and transfer them "in full sovereignty" to Russia. Although Russia consented to this confiscation of the provinces of a loyal Christian ally, who was giving her life's blood in defense of Europe's liberties, still she was destined never to gain possession of those Armenian vilayets, for a few months later the Czar's government was overthrown and Imperial Russia's dreams of conquest abruptly ceased.

#### Arabs Want Empire of Their Own

There were, however, other claims to be satisfied before full agreement could be reached on the tentative partition of the Turkish Empire. It appears that certain pledges had been made, to the Arabs and the Jews, those Semitic half-brothers who alike had sprung from the loins of Abraham and had been subject to Turkish rule for centuries. Back in the spring of 1915, when the Turks were projecting their advance into Egypt and England was willing to pay any price for assistance rendered, the military aid of the Arabs of the Hedjaz had been invoked by British agents. The leader of the Hedjaz tribe, Sherif Hussein Ibn Ali, a descendant of Mohammed, withheld his consent for a year or more until England expressed her willingness to accept his rather exorbitant terms. The precise nature of those preliminary terms is yet a moot question. Old Hussein, a close bargainer, still avers that the British agents solemnly agreed, as a reward for any assistance his tribe might render the Allied cause, to invest him with authority to establish a vast Arab Empire which should embrace all of Arabia, Syria and Mesopotamia



—a rather ambitious program to be assigned to a single semi-civilized nomadic tribe of Arabs!

The English on the other hand, avow that they agreed only to set up a small Arab Kingdom of the Hedjaz, along the Red Sea coast, with old Hussein as King. The boundaries of this Arab Kingdom were actually defined in the Sykes-Picot treaty.

Whatever the terms, Sherif Hussein finally led his 50,000 Arab horsemen against the Turks, loyally assisting the British Mesopotamian Army during the campaigns of 1917 and 1918. After the surrender of the Turks, the Kingdom of the Hedjaz was duly proclaimed with Hussein as King, but later, when the son of King Hussein, Prince Feisal, attempted to set up an Arab Empire in Syria, that Kingdom was overthrown by Gen. Gouraud's French Army as in violation of the pact whereby France was granted a "sphere of influence" over all Syria.

By the terms of the Sykes-Picot treaty, provision had also been made for a "homeland" for the Jews in Palestine, which is a part of Syria. The Jews, however, comprise only a very small minority of the Palestinian population, the Arabs being in vast majority.

#### Italy Gets a Strip of Asia Minor.

Italy, in 1916, demanded and obtained a definition of the concession promised her in Asia Minor, which had been left undefined in the London Pact of 1915. At a conference of Allied premiers, held at Saint Jean de Maurienne in France, it was agreed to assign to Italy the entire southwestern strip of Asia Minor, lying between the Mediterranean Sea and Smyrna. The remainder of the coastal region, comprising most of Cilicia, a land which had been Armenia's for 900 years, had been previously assigned to France. Thus was Armenia prospectively plundered by her honest European allies whilst engaged in fighting their battles!

## Massacres Begin with the French Occupation of Cilicia

The renewal of Armenia's martyrdom coincided with the advance of the French Senegalese Army into Cilicia, in January, 1920, to assert the suzerainty of France over the whole country in accordance with the secret pact signed by France and England in 1916. Cilicia is the name given to that part of Asia Minor, bordering upon the Mediterranean Sea, and lying south of Anatolia, the original home of the Turks, from which it is separated by the Taurus Mountains. A country of great potential wealth, Cilicia has formed a part of Greater Armenia for nine hundred years, and for four centuries prior to the Turkish conquest it had been the seat of the last Armenian Kingdom. It is divided into two parts, forming the provinces of Adana and Aleppo. In 1914, before the Great War had begun, there were 380,000 Armenians resident in Cilicia, as compared with 211,534 so-called Ottomans or Turks, but during the war the Armenian population was greatly depleted by massacre or by deportation. Still, in despite of the enormous emigration of Armenians in 1919, following the Adana massacre, it is conjectured there were in Cilicia at the time of the French occupation in 1920, approximately 200,000 Armenians as compared with 78,000 Turks, 60,000 Kurds and Turkomans, 20,000 Syrians and 15,000 Arabs. Upon

#### Armenia Recognized By the U. S.

Armenia in 1920 existed as two distinct entities—the Armenian Republic of the Caucasus, formerly a part of the Russian Empire, and Turkish Armenia, formerly a part of the Ottoman Empire. The Republic of the Caucasus, which has its seat of government at Erivan, was formally recognized by the United States Government on January 26, 1920. Turkish Armenia, ravaged by the war, was still in the formative stage. It was hoped eventually to merge the two governments in a Greater Armenia. Although Armenia had no written constitution, and no President, it had a Ministry and intended to have a constitution when both portions of the ancient Kingdom should have been united in one state. Pending that event, the Armenian Republic was operating under democratic methods through an elected Parliament and an Executive Cabinet, the powers of the President being exercised in part by each of these bodies. The Armenian Caucasian Army numbered 18,000 troops, the Commander in Chief being Lieutenant-General F. Nazarbakian, a former brilliant officer in the Russian Army. The General Staff and the commanders of the line were all disciplined officers, many of whom had received high military decorations from the Government of Russia. The Turkish Armenian Army numbered 10,000 troops, commanded by General Antranik.

On January 8, 1920, the British Armenia Committee, through Viscount Bryce, presented to the British Government a memorandum asking that the whole of Turkish Armenia be finally and completely separated from the Ottoman Empire, and that, failing an American mandate over the entire country, the Armenian provinces which border on the Erivan Republic be united with that republic, and be assured of a port of the Black Sea. This request was denied by the British Government.

invitation of the Allied Powers, guaranteeing them French protection, many thousands of Armenian refugees had returned to Cilicia from their exile in Mesopotamia and Syria. In general, they were without arms, while the Turks and the still more savage Kurds had been supplied with arms from some mysterious sources. Moreover, the Turks, though in the minority, could draw forces from all Asia Minor to assist them in their work of slaughter.

As the French occupation of Cilicia proceeded, the hostility of Mustapha Kemal's Nationalist bands was encountered on every side. These Turkish zealots, with an aggregate strength of 40,000 men, chiefly recruited from the ranks of the Sultan's disbanded armies, were sworn to resist to death all attempts to dismember the Turkish Empire. Failing to halt the advance of the French Army of Occupation, the cowardly Turks visited their rage upon the defenseless inhabitants of the Armenian towns.

#### French Troops Attacked at Marash

These Turkish attacks culminated in the massacre at Marash, Cilicia, of 10,000 Armenians, beginning on March 20th and continuing for three weeks. On that fateful day, some 2000 French (Senegalese)



troops had arrived in Marash, taking up their quarters in and adjacent to the American Mission Compound. Before the French had settled down in their new quarters, the Turks opened fire upon them, from the vantage points of houses, mosques and minarets. In retaliation the French Senegalese troops set fire to several Moslem houses, hoping to dislodge the snipers. The Turks responded by setting fire to many Christian dwellings, butchering their occupants as they attempted to escape. Several hundred Armenians succeeded in making their way to the American Mission Compound, but a great majority sought refuge in their churches. Word was sent to French headquarters at Hadjin of Marash's danger, but more than two weeks were permitted to elapse before French assistance was vouchsafed. On February 6th, a column of 4000 French Senegalese troops under command of Gen. Normand appeared on the plain outside Marash. The bombardment of the Turkish quarters in Marash was at once begun, and at the same time the French began to encircle the city with trenches. During the next two days the Turkish Nationalist troops attempted to escape to the hills and many of them were killed while so escaping.

On February 8th, under a flag of truce, Turkish leaders entered the American Mission Compound, beseeching the Americans to arrange a conference to conclude terms of peace. Before these terms could be arranged, orders came from Adana on February 9th that the French troops should withdraw from Marash by midnight of that day. The Armenians and Americans, fearing for the safety of the Christian inhabitants, begged a delay, and the French commander agreed to postpone his departure twenty-four hours, until the evening of February 10th. The French consented to take with them the few hundred Armenians who were in the American Compound, but it appears that the French intention to withdraw was not known to the thousands of Armenians who had taken refuge in their several churches throughout the city, nor was any effort made to protect them.

#### Assassination of Turkish Commander

The intended withdrawal of the French troops seems to have been concealed from the Turks also, for on the evening of February 10th, Mustapha Bey, the Nationalist leader at Marash, entered the French lines under a flag of truce, meeting the French staff and arranging terms of peace. It was stipulated that all parties should lay down their arms and that massacring should cease at 10.30 p. m. Returning from this conference, Mustapha Bey was escorted through a trench to the American Hospital en route to the Turkish quarters. As he stepped within the hospital Mustapha and his flag-bearer both were shot dead by an Armenian who mistook their errand there. This assassination proved to be the prelude to the general massacre.

#### 10,000 Armenians Massacred at Marash

Early the next morning, the Turkish flag was raised on the barracks, as a signal of the withdrawal of the French troops. Fearing for their lives, two thousand of the abandoned Armenians, who had taken refuge in the Protestant church, decided to leave the church in a body and attempt to join the departing French troops. Only 25 of

these Armenians reached the goal; all the rest were butchered by the Turks.

That night Marash and all the villages thereabout were set on fire and the massacre of the Armenians proceeded. The number of the slain is variously estimated at 5000 to 15,000. Only 2500 Armenians succeeded in escaping from the doomed city. These refugees joined the 6000 French troops who were retreating across the mountains to the East. On the 13th, a terrible blizzard overtook the refugees; 1,000 Armenians and 100 French soldiers perished from exposure during that dreadful march. The column finally reached Islabie on the Bagdad road, 75 miles from Marash.

#### The Massacre at Aintab

Aintab in Cilicia, or rather the villages of the vicinage, was the scene of the second massacre, which began on February 4th and continued for two weeks. Learning that a column of French troops was advancing to the relief of that city, with supplies for the Armenians, the Turkish Nationalists began their work of extermination by killing all the Christians in the villages between Aintab and Killis. Among the victims were two American Y. M. C. A. Secretaries, James Perry and Frank Johnson, who were shot by the Turks while riding in their automobiles near Aintab. In Aintab itself there was stationed a small French force, but soldiers and civilians alike appear to have been insufficiently supplied with arms. The resourceful Armenians, lacking suitable weapons with which to defend themselves from Turkish attacks, are said to have improvised weapons in this wise: "They picked up the 15th Century cannon balls left from the Crusades and with cannon made from American laundry mangles (?) defended themselves from the Turks. Besides their ancient cannon and handmade bombs, they made spears of the old medieval model. Then they mobilized and the women also were organized ready to do their part. They had to depend on these pitiful makeshift arms because of the inadequacy of the French arms which were supposed to protect them." In the ensuing attacks by the Turks many Armenians were killed, but "the Armenians successfully defended the Christian quarters of the city and the American hospitals and orphanages. Finally, as the food supply was just beginning to give out, French reinforcements arrived with two armored cars and a battery of 75s." The Turks were soon routed.

#### Franco-Turkish Truce in Cilicia

Gen. Gouraud, the Allied High Commissioner in Cilicia, and Commander-in-Chief of the French Army of Occupation, on March 21st concluded an armistice with the Turkish Nationalists and for three months thereafter a state of comparative tranquility prevailed in Cilicia. Not so in Turkish Armenia.

#### Tartars Attack Armenians in the Caucasus

While the Armenians in Cilicia were being massacred by the Turks, their brethren in the Caucasus region of the north were facing extermination at the hands of the Tartar hordes out of Azerbaijan. The Tartars, it seems, with British sanction, were bent on despoiling the Armenians of their ancient district of Zangezur-Karabagh. Though it



is the cradle of the Armenian race, and peopled chiefly by Armenians, the upland parts of the Karabagh district have been used for centuries by the Tartar shepherds as a grazing ground for their flocks of sheep. At the beginning of the British occupation of Transcaucasia, in 1919, Karabagh was "detached" from Armenia by edict of the British and made a part of Azerbaijan, under Tartar government. A state of warfare between Armenians and Tartars resulted, with massacres of Armenians by the savage Tartars. It was estimated that 17,000 rural Armenians had been slaughtered by the Tartars during the first three months of 1920, and that 25,000 Armenian refugees from Baku alone had sought refuge in Georgia.

Early in April, a new Armenian army was raised by conscription, all men between the ages of 15 and

40 years being called to the colors. Some 34,000 soldiers were so enlisted. This new army succeeded in dispersing two Tartar battalions that were attempting to disarm the populations of Armenian villages in the district.

#### League of Nations Refuses Mandate

The Allied Supreme Council, on March 20th, proposed that the League of Nations accept a mandate for an independent Armenia, to include that part of the former Ottoman Empire extending from the Black Sea littoral in a southwesterly direction to the vilayet of Aleppo, and embracing the Armenian Republic of the Caucasus. On the plea that it "lacked the machinery for administering the region", the League of Nations on April 11th declined to accept the mandate.

### United States Mission Visits Armenia

Upon the initiative of President Wilson, the United States Government sent a mission to the Near East to investigate the conditions existing in Armenia, Turkey, Anatolia, Roumelia and Transcaucasia. This Mission, of which Major-Gen James G. Harbord was the head, rendered its report on April 3, 1920. Without recommendations of any kind, the report set forth the facts and conclusions reached after six weeks' travel and study of conditions in the countries visited. Consideration was given in the report to the arguments adduced both for and against America's acceptance of a mandate over Armenia.

In advocacy of the mandate, the following reasons were advanced: America, as one of the chief contributors to the formation of a League of Nations, is morally bound to accept the obligation and responsibilities of a mandatory, which would insure world peace at the world's crossways, the focus of war infection since the beginning of history. "Better millions for a mandate than billions for future wars." The Near East presents the greatest humanitarian opportunity of the age, a duty for which the United States is better fitted than any other. America is practically the unanimous choice and fervent hope of all the people's involved. America is already spending millions to save starving people in Turkey and Transcaucasia, and could do this with much more efficiency if in control. Whoever becomes mandatory for these regions, America shall still be expected to finance their relief and will probably eventually furnish the capital for material development. America is the only hope of the Armenians. The Armenians fear Great Britain would sacrifice their interests to Moslem public opinion as long as she controls hundreds of millions of that faith. Others fear Great Britain's imperialistic policy and habit of staying where she hoists her flag. The mandatory would be self-supporting after an initial period of not to exceed five years. It would stop further massacres of Armenians and other Christians, besides giving justice to Turks, Kurds, Greeks and other people. If the United States does not take the responsibility in Armenia, it is likely that international jealousies will result in a continuance of the unspeakable misrule of the Turks.

The reasons adduced in opposition to America's

acceptance of a mandate may be summarized as follows: The United States has prior and nearer foreign obligations and ample responsibilities with domestic problems growing out of the war. The taking of a mandate in this region would involve the United States in the politics of the Old World, contrary to our traditional policy of keeping free of affairs in the Eastern Hemisphere, would weaken our position relative to the Monroe Doctrine and probably eventually involve us with a reconstituted Russia. Humanitarianism should begin at home. The United States is not responsible for the conditions, political, social, or economic, that prevail in this region. The mandate over Armenia might commit us to a policy of meddling or draw upon our philanthropy to the point of exhaustion. Great Britain is fitted by experience and government to undertake the mandate, and though she might not be as sympathetic to Armenian aspirations, her rule would guarantee security and justice. The United States is not capable of sustaining a continuity of foreign policy; one Congress cannot bind another; even treaties can be nullified by cutting off appropriations. Our country would be put to great expense, involving probably an increase of the army and navy. Large numbers of Americans would serve in a country of loathsome and dangerous diseases. Capital for railroads would not go there except on Government guarantees. The effort and money spent would not get us more trade in nearer lands than we can get in Russia and Roumania. Proximity and competition would increase the possibility of our becoming involved in conflict with the policies and ambitions of States which, now our friends, would be made our rivals. Peace and justice would be equally assured under any other of the great powers. Intervention in the Near East would rob us of the strategic advantage of the Atlantic Ocean; our line of communication to Constantinople would be at the mercy of other naval powers, and especially of Great Britain. The Peace Conference has definitely informed the Turkish Government that it may expect to go under a mandate; it is not conceivable that the League of Nations would permit further uncontrolled rule by that thoroughly discredited Government. The first duty of America is to its own people and its nearest neighbors. Our country would



be involved in this adventure for at least a generation, and in counting the cost, Congress must be prepared to advance in five years the grand total of \$756,014,000.

Estimates of the number of mandatory troops needed to police the land varied all the way from 23,000 to 200,000. Under conditions as they exist today a total force of at least 59,000 would perhaps be ample. This force could be substantially reduced at the end of two years, and by 50 per cent at the end of the third year. The annual cost for the force of the army for the first year would be \$88,500,000, at the end of two years perhaps \$59,000,000, at the end of three years \$44,250,000. To offset our expenditures there would be available at least a part of the naval and military budget hitherto used for the support of the disbanded armies in the region. In Turkey before the War, this totaled about \$61,000,000 annually for the army, including \$5,000,000 for the navy. Finally, it was argued that "a power which should undertake a mandate for Armenia and Transcaucasia without control of the contiguous territory of Asia Minor, Anatolia and of Constantinople, with its hinterland of Roumelia, would undertake it under most unfavorable and trying conditions, so difficult as to make the cost almost prohibitive, the maintenance of law and order and the security of life and property uncertain, and ultimate success extremely doubtful. With the Turkish Empire still freely controlling Constantinople, such a power would be practically emasculated as far as real power is concerned."

#### Armenia Sentenced to Fresh Captivity

The betrayal of Armenia, already agreed upon by the European Powers in their secret pact of 1916, was amplified and accentuated when, in April, 1920, the plotting Premiers of England, France and Italy met at San Remo, Italy, to complete the revision of the Turkish peace treaty. There at San Remo was consummated a pact so monstrously wicked that it must cry reproach to European statecraft forever. There the Turkish foe was exalted and the Christian friend laid low. There Armenia was sentenced to fresh captivity under the Turks. There the Turk was restored to his seat in Constantinople and permitted to share with England, France and Italy in the division of the spoil of a part of the ancient Armenian Kingdom. There Armenia was denuded of the greater part of her ancient lands and condemned to a national existence within the limits of four small vilayets. There, too, it was basely proposed to disarm Armenia lest perhaps her small army might prevent the carrying out of this evil pact with the Turks. Thus was Christian Armenia betrayed in the year 1920 by the responsible premiers of three supposedly Christian nations.

#### America Asked to Accept Armenian Mandate

After the Premiers of England, France and Italy had plotted the spoliation of Armenia to their full satisfaction at San Remo, they bethought them that the approval of their joint action by the United States Government was desirable. They accordingly proposed that our government should accept a mandate for what was left of Armenia. President Wilson urgently advised that the Congress grant him power to accept a mandate; he further explained

that the San Remo Conference had specifically requested him to undertake to arbitrate "the difficult question of the boundary between Turkey and Armenia in the vilayets of Erzerum, Trebizond, Van and Bitlis", and had agreed to accept his decision thereon, as well as any stipulation he might subscribe as to access to the Black Sea for the independent state of Armenia.

#### American Friends of Armenia Protest

Following the publication of the President's message, the American Committee for Armenian Independence issued a statement in which they vigorously protested the San Remo proposal to confine the Armenian Republic to the four vilayets named therein, saying that acceptance of this plan would result in despoiling Armenia of her most fertile provinces of Harpoot, Diarbekr, Sivas and Cilicia, and alleging that "a certain power is ready to sell its soul to the devil and the Turk in order to get possession of the richest province, not only of Armenia but of the entire world."

The American protestants further insisted that England and France should forthwith restore to the Armenians those portions of ancient Armenia which they had allocated to themselves by the secret Sykes-Picot pact. Armenia, they declared, had helped win the war to make the world safe for democracy. "It is not democracy, however, that Great Britain and France wanted to save in Armenia, but the cotton fields of Cilicia and the rich wheat lands, the mineral wealth, gold, silver, copper, iron, lead, coal, petroleum, marble, saltpetre, quicksilver, sulphur and salt of Harpoot, Diarbekr and the other southwestern provinces. It is these richest provinces—really the heart and backbone of Armenia—that the Allies are hypocritically representing as poor and barren lands. If the full rights of Armenia are not recognized, an American mandate will simply mean that American soldiers will join the French and their proteges, the Turks, the British and their proteges, the Kurds, to prevent Armenians from coming into their own heritage."

Declaring that the massacres in Cilicia would not have occurred had not the Armenians been previously disarmed by the French, the Armenians assured the American Government of their ability to defend themselves if the Turkish soldiery were compelled to evacuate Armenia.

#### U. S. Senate Declines the Mandate

The United States Senate, on May 31st, by a vote of 52 to 23, rejected the President's recommendation for the mandate over Armenia. The Senate also rejected, by a vote of 28 to 46, the substitute resolution by Senator King of Utah, authorizing international negotiations with a view to "proper protection" of Armenia by the Allied Powers. Another resolution, empowering the President to extend "administrative advice" to Armenia without emplacement of armed force, was voted down without a roll call. Although the Senators were opposed in principle to the mandate over Armenia, still they were not unmindful of Armenia's need of succour. Senator Lodge gave expression to the prevailing Senatorial view when he said: "I do not desire to have this country give the world the impression that it does not sympathize with the Armenian people. They are a gallant peo-



ple. I think they deserve aid, but there are many ways to give them aid without involving the United States."

The Committee on Foreign Affairs of the House of Representatives voted to recommend the adoption

of the Senate resolution rejecting the President's request for mandatory powers. A minority report, signed by three Southern Senators, was submitted, urging that no action be taken pending the final adoption of the Peace Treaty and at the same time defending the President's request for a mandate.

## Warfare Is Again Resumed Throughout Armenia

A new Armenian Republic was proclaimed on June 6, in the Armanus region of Cilicia, by the Armenian soldiers of the Legion of the East and the Armenian Volunteers, under the presidency of Capt. Shishmanian. Eight days later, the armistice between the Turks and the French was abruptly ended, the Turks renewing their attacks upon the Armenian villages. They also seized the Eregli coal fields, levying taxes upon the owners and expelling the French concessionaires. On June 16th the French garrison at Bozano was forced to surrender to superior forces.

The French pacification of Cilicia grew increasingly difficult; under the spell of Kemal Pasha's eloquence, the Turks were growing desperate. Still, on July 29th, a column of French troops won a signal victory over a large body of Turks at Yenidje. In this battle, six successive bayonet attacks were made by the French. Besides losing 250 prisoners, the

Turks left 400 dead upon the field. Two days later the French column reached Mersina.

Repeated attempts were made by the Turkish Nationalists to destroy that part of the Bagdad Railway which runs through Cilicia. While so engaged, a column of Turkish troops was surprised by the French on August 19th, and signally defeated, the Turks losing 2,000 and the French 160 men.

### Treaty of Sevres Denounced in America

The Turkish Peace Treaty was signed on August 12th at Sevres, France. It was immediately denounced by the friends of Armenia throughout the world. The American protest described the treaty as "the culmination of a plot concocted by the Allies at San Remo to basely betray Armenia into the hands of the Turks; and if not designed to exterminate the entire Armenian nation, at least to compel their expatriation."

## The War in the North

In September, 1920, Mustapha Kemal decided upon an active campaign against Armenia for the purpose of recovering the districts of Kars, Ardahan and Batum, adjacent to the Black Sea, which he claimed belonged to Turkey by virtue of the Brest-Litovsk Treaty of 1918. Violent warfare was at once resumed. Sarakamish fell on September 20th before a united Turkish-Tartar attack. Armenia appealed for aid to the Allied Powers, but without result. Bands of Tartars in the East followed the Turks, massacring the Christian peoples in many villages thereabout and blowing up railway bridges.

### Armenians Evacuate Kars

The fortified city of Kars, key to Transcaucasia, was evacuated by the Armenians on October 30th. Though there were 140 cannon mounted to defend the city, still these guns were useless, since the city had been stripped of its ammunition by the British back in 1919. The evacuation is thus described by an American eyewitness: "The Turks were seen advancing across the plain in open formation as if on dress parade. Suddenly a shell from a Turkish cannon burst just beyond the station. Within five minutes the entire Armenian population poured into the streets, with luggage carried on their backs, in ox-carts or heaped onto animals of every description, and fled along the valley road to Alexandropol. In 30 minutes, 30,000 Armenians and Georgians evacuated the city, the retreating soldiers mingling with the civilians, and as a consequence perfect panic ensuing."

### Armenians in Flight

Unfed and shoeless, and lacking both arms and

ammunition, the doomed Armenians in the Caucasus region were unable to stay the advance of the well-equipped Turks. The Turks marched on Alexandropol without resistance. The fall of Alexandropol, a great railroad junction, completely isolated the capital, Erivan, which was therefore evacuated by the Armenian army, whose ammunition was entirely exhausted. By this time 100,000 Armenian refugees were in flight across the frontiers of Georgia.

A temporary armistice was arranged with the Turks on November 7th, by the terms of which the Armenians were required to withdraw to the further bank of the Arpo River, practically corresponding to the frontier of Georgia.

### Cannibalism at Erivan

An American Red Cross nurse, Miss Louise Chamberlain, has described the appalling condition of the Armenians throughout the famine district of Armenia, and particularly at Erivan. Half naked children, orphaned babes, so emaciated as to appear more like mummies than human beings, were found sleeping on the heaps of corpses that strewed the ground in order to keep their almost naked bodies from the frozen ground. "Babies barely able to toddle stood for hours in the bread-line at the American soup kitchens, every bone in their little bodies showing. We have seen helpless mothers, themselves on the verge of death, beg their priests to bless their infants and then drown the children that they might be spared the horrors of slow starvation. Instances were not rare where bodies stolen from cemeteries were cooked and eaten by the famished folks."



## Massacres Resumed in Cilicia When Armenians Are Disarmed

After the Turkish Treaty had been signed, announcement was made of a change in the policy of Gen. Gouraud, the Allied High Commissioner for Syria and Cilicia, and commander of all the French forces in those countries. Instead of continuing the war against the Turks, he proposed to attempt their pacification by a "peaceful, reconstructive policy."

### French Order Armenians Out of Cilicia

Upon his arrival at Mersina, in September, Gen. Gouraud was quoted as saying that "order had been restored" over the greater part of the Cilician plain and the foothills of the Taurus, but that "part of the Turkish population were being dispossessed by Armenian refugees from Anatolia." Gen. Gouraud omitted to explain, however, that these refugees were among the 300,000 Cilician Armenians who had fled into other lands when the Turkish massacres were at their height and had returned to their ancestral homes in Cilicia, after the Turkish surrender, upon the persuasion of the European Powers and under guarantees of protection by the French Army of Occupation. This was at a time when the European Powers were pledged to expel the Turks from Europe and before they had heartlessly agreed among themselves to sentence Armenia to new captivity under the Turks. Europe now heartily wished that Armenia would accept her captive fate unprotestingly and most of all that the Armenian army would refrain from interfering while the Turks were engaged in raiding defenceless Armenian villages and towns.

### French Troops Disarm Armenian Soldiers

Gen. Gouraud, in September, gave orders that the Armenian Legion should lay down their arms and that the Armenian refugees should at once leave Cilicia. At the same time he ordered the dismissal of Col. Bremond, a humane French officer whose policy had been to encourage the Armenians in their brave fight with the Turks. Upon the refusal of the Armenian Legion to lay down their arms, a French military force, consisting of two regiments of infantry, one regiment of cavalry and two divisions of artillery, supported by six machine guns and two armored automobiles, surrounded the village of Akarja, where the Armenian soldiers had halted while marching to the relief of Hadjin, stripped them of their arms and then deported them. The Armenians reproached their former allies and present enemies by reminding the French soldiers that they had assisted them in vanquishing the Turks and occupying Cilicia.

### 10,000 Armenians Massacred at Hadjin

The cowardly Turks, no longer deterred by the presence in Cilicia of an Armenian armed force, and evidently without fear of interference on the part of Gen. Gouraud's French Army, resumed their attacks upon the Armenian towns. One of the first tragic results of the disarming of the Anatolian Armenians was the massacre of 10,000 Armenians at Hadjin on October 15, 1920. The fate of this Armenian city was typical and dreadful. Back in 1918, when the Turks were in control of all Cilicia, the city was burned and the inhabitants with few exceptions exiled. After long wanderings and indescribable hardships, a remnant of these people

in 1920 found their way back home, expecting protection and security at the hands of the French, who had been assigned the mandate for all Cilicia. But they were speedily disillusioned. When the Turks first laid siege to the city in May, the French Army never moved a step to assist the Armenians. Contrariwise, as we have seen, the French troops disarmed the Armenian Legion while the latter were advancing to the relief of Hadjin. Unmolested, the Turks began an even more furious attack on Hadjin, shelling the city from all sides. The defense of Hadjin was heroic. For five months the Armenians held the city against Turkish attacks, but the terrific bombardment at last compelled the surrender of the city. Entering Hadjin on October 15th, the Turks massacred the greater part of the population; only a few of the Armenians managed to escape to the hills.

### Adana Relieved By the French

Adana, the chief city of Cilicia, had been besieged by a large Turkish force since January and from July on it had been entirely cut off from the outer world. Its abnormally large population had been swelled by an influx of 20,000 refugees from the many adjacent villages. In December, 1920, when the food situation was growing desperate, a French column relieved the city by gaining possession of the Mersina railroad. The American Near East Relief Commission at once entered Adana, opening soup kitchens and supplying clothing and medicines to the needy inhabitants.

Urfa was similarly relieved after surviving 62 days of Turkish terrorism.

### Bolsheviki Threaten Caucasian Republic

The small Armenian Republic in the Caucasus, was threatened from its inception by an alliance of Russian Bolsheviks and Turkish Nationalists. In April, both Baku and Azerbaijan came under control of the Soviet Army. The Tartars at once demanded passage through Armenia to join their Turkish brethren in Anatolia but the Armenians blocked their path.

A Bolshevik uprising in Armenia in May was put down by loyal Armenian troops.

### League of Nations Acts

Consideration of the Armenian question was opened at a session of the Assembly of the League of Nations held at Geneva, Switzerland, in November. On motion of Lord Robert Cecil of England, a message was addressed to the President of the United States, proposing that if the United States should consent to raise \$20,000,000 for the purpose, the League of Nations would undertake to find a mandatory "to preserve the integrity of Armenia."

On November 25th America and the member nations of the League were invited to volunteer for the task of negotiating with Mustapha Kemal in the hope of saving Armenia from annihilation. Denmark offered to undertake the task, but her offer was rejected. French officials declared the readiness of France to reach an amicable understanding with Mustapha Kemal on the basis of returning to the Turks all or part of the territory granted to Greece by the Treaty of Sevres.



GREECE, JAN. — DEC.

## Greeks at War with Turks Both in Thrace and Anatolia

Moslem Rule in Europe is Terminated After the Lapse of 470 Years—Greek Occupation Of Smyrna Results in Indecisive Struggle with Turkish Nationalists

SECTION 11—1920

Greek Forces, 150,000  
 Smyrna Army, 80,000  
 Gen. Paraskevopoulos, Commander  
 Gen. Vlahopoulos  
 Thracian Army, 70,000  
 Gen. Zimbrakakis, Commander  
 Gen. Leonardopoulos  
 English Marines, 2,000  
 Gen. Milne  
 French Troops, 2,000

Turkish Nationalists, 75,000  
 Anatolian Army, 40,000  
 Mustapha Kemal, Commander  
 Thracian Army, 30,000  
 Tayar Pasha, Commander  
 Erzerum Army, 5,000  
 Kiazim Kara Bekir  
 Tartars and Kurds, 5,000  
 Russian Soviet Army, 40,000  
 Gen. Kuropatkin

THE task devolved upon Greece, in the year 1920, of enforcing the decree of the Turkish peace treaty, terminating Moslem rule in Europe, furthermore, by the summary method of expelling the Turks from Thrace, their sole remaining European possession.

Though Thrace had been ceded to Greece by decision of the European Powers, and the Sultan had tacitly acquiesced in the award, still the ancient Kingdom did not pass to the Greeks by default. With or without the consent of the Sultan—it is difficult to determine this point—there had been organized an irregular army of Moslems, under the name of Turkish Nationalists, to oppose not only Greek occupation of Thrace but the dismemberment of the whole Turkish Empire as well. The Greeks, however, had but little difficulty in disposing of this

Thracian army, which they finally drove across the Bulgarian frontier.

In Anatolia, on the contrary, the Greeks had a more difficult problem to solve. Having been granted permission to land an army in the Smyrna zone, for the protection of their nationals in that ancient Greek seaport, the Greeks encountered the opposition of a strong army of Turkish Nationalists, led by the redoubtable Mustapha Kemal. Here the Turks were defending their homeland and fought valorously, defying the utmost endeavors of the Greeks to wholly disperse them during the greater part of 1920. As the year came to a close, it seemed as if an alliance would soon be effected between the Turks and the Russian Bolsheviks which boded ill for Greece. These two Greco-Turkish campaigns will now be reviewed in detail.

## Conquest of Thrace by the Greeks

Greek Army, 50,000  
 Gen. Zimbrakakis, Commander  
 Gen. Leonardopoulos

Turkish Nationalists, 30,000  
 Tayar Pasha, Commander

The cession of Thrace to Greece, signaling the end of Turkish rule in Europe, was naturally resented by the Moslems, who never ceased their plaint that it brought the hated Greeks to the very gates of Constantinople, making of the Turkish capital a "prison house." Pending Greek occupation, French soldiers continued to operate the Thracian Railroad.

Greece was not permitted, however, to acquire possession of Thrace without a struggle. At a meeting of Turkish notables, held at Adrianople on May 22d, it was decided, by a vote of 118 to 82, to resist Greek occupation. Tayar Pasha, Military Governor of Adrianople, after inciting the Turkish population to rise against the Greek invader, gave orders that the fortifications of that city be restored and that batteries be placed in position at Pavlokeni and Uzun Keupru, strategic strongholds near the Bulgarian-Turkish frontier. Thirty thousand volunteers rallied to the standard of Tayar Pasha, including 15,000 veterans of the Sultan's disbanded army and an equal number of Moslems out of Bulgaria.

### Turks in Flight in the West

The first Greek invasion of Thrace was begun on June 22d, when five divisions of troops, under command of Gen. Leonardopoulos, together with a

battalion of French troops, crossed the western frontier and in two columns advanced eastward in the direction of Adrianople. At sight of the invaders, the Turkish border troops hurriedly retreated toward their capital, without firing a single shot, abandoning all their towns. In all the liberated Thracian towns, the Greeks were received "with music and flowers." At Karagatch, 100 deserters from the Turkish army surrendered to the Greeks and their French allies.

### Greeks Capture Adrianople

On July 19th, a flotilla of Greek and British warships arrived at Rodosta, a seaport on the Marmoran coast, carrying two fresh divisions of Greek troops; King Alexander and Gen. Zimbrakakis accompanied the expedition. The feeble Turkish batteries at Eregli and Suntankeris opened fire on the Allied warships, but were themselves quickly silenced. Debarking, the newly arrived Greek divisions formed a liaison with the Greek troops advancing from the West. Then, with Gen. Zimbrakakis in supreme command of all the Greek and French forces the advance on Adrianople was resumed.

Advancing from the coast in a northwesterly direction, the Greek troops swept the enemy before them,



occupying Chorlu and Muradli on the 21st, thence turning eastward toward Cherkissey. Turkish resistance expended itself in two futile efforts—at Lule Burgas, in Eastern Thrace, where the Moslems vainly attempted to destroy the bridges, and at Karagach, a town on the Aegean seacoast in Western Thrace, occupied by French troops, which was bombarded for a few hours by the Turkish batteries. In both these engagements the heavier Greek guns were brought into action and the Turks easily dispersed.

On July 24th, the Greco-French columns arrived in front of Adrianople, prepared to take the Thracian

capital by assault, only to learn that Tayar Pasha and his Nationalist rebels had evacuated that city the day before. King Alexander entered Adrianople as a conqueror on July 26th, "amid the joyous acclamations of the population, Turks and Greeks alike." Tayar Pasha's nondescript army, meantime, had fled across the Bulgarian border, there to be interned after surrendering their arms. The Pasha himself, on July 28th, was betrayed into the hands of the Greeks at Halsä, and sent a prisoner to Athens. Such was the humiliating exit, from the European stage, of the heirs and successors of the great Saracenic army of Sultan Soliman!

## Greeks at War with Turkish Nationalists in Anatolia

Greek Forces, 80,000

Gen. Paraskevopolos, Commander

English Contingent, 1,000

Gen. Milne

Turkish Nationalists, 40,000

Mustapha Kemal, Commander

A virtual state of war, between the Allies and the Turkish Nationalists, had existed in Asia Minor ever since the Armistice was signed in 1918. Upon the withdrawal of the Sultan's armies, following the Turkish surrender, some 40,000 Moslem soldiers, under the lead of Mustapha Kemal, had been organized as an irregular army, sworn to resist all attempts to partition the Turkish Empire and in particular to defend Asia Minor, their homeland. Divided at first into bands of a few hundreds each, the Nationalists roamed through Anatolia and Cilicia, looting the towns in which Christians predominated and butchering hundreds of the defenceless inhabitants.

Early in June, 1919, the Turkish Nationalists had planted batteries at strategic points along the Marmoran coast of Anatolia, with the obvious intent to bombard Constantinople, in which city the Allies had established their Eastern military base. On June 16th a body of Nationalists without provocation attacked a force of Turkish Loyalists at Guebza. A flotilla of British warships, patrolling the Straits, came to the rescue of the Turkish Loyalists, vigorously shelling the Nationalist line. Admiral de Robeck, the Allied High Commissioner, protested to Mustapha Kemal against the unprovoked assault upon the Turkish Loyalists, but being insolently received he gave orders for an immediate landing of British engineers and marines. Debarking at various points along the Marmoran coast, the British engineers and marines began the systematic destruction of all the Turkish fortifications on the southern side of the Straits. In the battle which ensued, the Turks were severely punished, their casualties totaling 1,000 and the British casualties 100.

### Greek Army Landed at Smyrna

Greece demanded and obtained permission from the Allied Supreme Council to send 80,000 troops into the vilayet of Aidin, Asia Minor, to protect her nationals from Turkish aggression in the Smyrna zone. Smyrna, the second city of importance in the Near East, has been preponderantly Greek for 3,000 years, although under Turkish dominance since 1453.

The occupation of Smyrna by the Greeks brought them into immediate conflict with the Turkish elements of the population. In the clashes which en-

sued, three hundred or more Turks were killed. Thereupon the Turkish government set up a roar which deafened the ears of Christendom. The Sultan, though himself responsible for the massacre of one million Christian Armenians and of two hundred thousand Christian Greeks during the Great War, had the temerity to protest to the Allied Supreme Council against the Greek "atrocities" in Smyrna.

Moved to tears by the Turkish recital of the trivial reprisals visited upon the Turks, whose murderous hands had been upheld for 80 years by callous-hearted Europe during the period of the Christian massacres, the Premiers of Europe appointed an International Military Commission to investigate and report upon the alleged atrocities committed by the Greeks in Smyrna.

### Greek Reprisals Condemned

The report of the International Commission, "a palpable piece of propaganda", designed apparently to pave the way for the subsequent restoration of the Turks to their seat of power in Constantinople and to cloak the Allied betrayal of Christian Armenia, strongly condemned the Greeks for their alleged excesses in the Smyrna zone. It tremulously spoke of the "arbitrary arrest" of 2,500 Turks, the same Moslems, no doubt, who had torn 400,000 Christian Greeks and Syrians from their ancestral homes in 1916-1917 and deported them into the depths of Asia. It deplored the "numerous acts of violence and pillage" committed by the Greeks upon the thievish race which had robbed and maltreated them for centuries, and it hinted the Commission's belief that "some assassinations" of Turks had taken place. The report recommended the replacement of Greek by Allied troops, suggesting that, if Greeks were allowed to co-operate in any way they should be "kept from contact with the Turkish Nationalist forces", a recommendation which afforded touching proof of Europe's warm solicitude for the Turks, and whose deeper, darker significance was subsequently revealed when, having disarmed the Christian Armenians and stayed the hands of the Greeks, the European Powers heartlessly abandoned the Armenians to the "tender mercies" of their Turkish proteges who had been permitted to retain their arms after the surrender.



## The War of the Turkish Partition

### The Greek Rejoinder

Premier Venizelos of Greece, whose unswerving loyalty to the Allied cause gave weight to his words, denounced the report as partisan and unfair. It was partisan, inasmuch as Greece had been wholly excluded from membership on the International Commission, which appears to have been a "packed jury" of English, French and Italian delegates chiefly. It was unfair to the extent that Greek witnesses were refused permission to present their case before that Commission. In refutation of the gratuitous charge that Greece was "endeavoring to change the ethnographic face of the region," Premier Venizelos put forth an array of figures intended to prove that of the 200,000 Greeks torn from their homes in Asia Minor by the Turks during the Great War, less than 10,000 had been enabled to return, either because their homes had been utterly destroyed or for the reason that their homes were still occupied by the Turks, whom the too generous Greeks, in a spirit of rare Christian charity, were unwilling to dispossess until homes had been provided for the Turkish usurpers elsewhere.

### Turks Renew Their Attacks on Greeks

Emboldened by the leniency, or perhaps the license, extended to them by the European Powers, the Turkish Nationalists resumed their attacks upon the Christian populations in Anatolia and Cilicia. In January, 1920, Mustapha Kemal concentrated his Nationalist troops in the vilayet of Aidin, devastating large sections of the province and challenging the Greeks to battle.

### American Mandate Proposed

The Sultan of Turkey, in his throne speech at the opening of the Chamber of Deputies on January 12th, declared Smyrna "inseparable from the Turkish Empire." He even presumed to address a note of warning to the Allied Powers, cautioning them that Allied "interference" with Turkish "independence" would result in "endless chaos" in the Near East. He proposed that the "reconstruction of Turkey" be vested in a single Allied Power, and suggesting that the mandate be withdrawn when Turkey was "able to stand on her own feet." There were many Americans of prominence who at this time argued in favor of an American mandate for Turkey and Armenia, but the United States Senate continued to view the proposal with unmistakable disfavor.

### Alliance of Turks and Bolsheviks

Though the Turkish Dynastic Council, on July 21, 1920, voted to accept the Peace Treaty as modified, Mustapha Kemal still continued obdurate. The Nationalist Government at Angora, four days later, adopted a resolution denouncing the Peace and declaring their unalterable opposition to any enforcement of its terms.

Meantime overtures to an alliance between the Nationalist Government and Soviet Russia had been made by General Kuropatkin, commander of the Russian Bolshevik Army in Persia. Kuropatkin promised, in event of an alliance being signed, to despatch a corps of Bolshevik cavalry to assist Mustapha Kemal in his campaign. The alliance was

duly signed and Kiazim Kara Bekir, commander of the Nationalist forces at Erzerum, was instructed to receive the Russian cavalry. Kiazim, however, proved recreant to his trust. Announcing his loyalty to the Sultan, who had agreed to accept the Treaty, Kiazim and his Erzerum force threw in their lot with the Turkish Loyalists. His desertion of the Nationalist cause so disgusted the Moslem women of Bili that they addressed a note to Mustapha Kemal offering to defend their capital city, Broussa, and other sacred places, if provided with arms.

### Greeks Defeat Mustapha's Forces

War between the Greeks and the Turkish Nationalists broke out in earnest, in June, 1920. Mustapha Kemal's forces, numbering perhaps 40,000 men, were at this time distributed at various strategic points, widely separated, on an irregular line extending from Mt. Ida on the West to Angora on the Northeast. The Greek Army, 80,000 strong, striking without a moment's delay on June 26th, first cut the Turkish line in twain and then attacked the widely separated sections in detail.

A Greek cavalry division, after a swift march of 85 miles, on June 28th surrounded the Turkish headquarters at Philadelphia (Alashehr), killing 2,000 Turks and taking 3,000 prisoners.

Early in July, another body of Turkish troops at Balikersi was caught between two fires when one column of Greek troops, moving northward along the Smyrna-Panderma Railway, and a second column of Greek troops advancing southward from Panderma, closed in upon the town, taking 1,200 prisoners and 54 guns.

From Balikersi, two Greek cavalry divisions advanced on Broussa, 75 miles southeast of Ismid, raising the siege of the British lines at this place and capturing the town almost without resistance.

A two days' battle, on a front of 413 kilometers, was fought early in August, victory resting with the Greeks, who inflicted irreparable losses on Mustapha Kemal, several of his best battalions falling into their hands.

Mustapha, in a last desperate rally of his depleted forces, attacked and captured the town of Demerdzi on August 5th, but five days later he was compelled to evacuate the town.

### Turk Against Turk

Meantime, the anti-Nationalist movement had been gaining ground in Anatolia. Arif Bey, at the head of 2,000 mounted Loyalists, captured Yozgad from the Nationalists and proclaimed an "Independent Turkish Government" in that town. At Tchorum, further north, the Nationalist military commander was hanged by order of Arif Bey in retaliation for outrages committed against the peasantry.

### War Carried Into Armenia

The Greeks, having expelled the Turks from the Smyrna zone, did not care to pursue Mustapha Kemal further in Anatolia. The Turkish Nationalist army, near the close of 1920, began a campaign in Northern Armenia, their purpose being to unite with the Bolshevik army that was heading south from the Caucasus.



EGYPT, JAN. — NOV.

## England Withdraws Her Promise to Grant Egypt Independence

Lord Milner's Commission Thereupon Resigns — Summary of the Proceedings

SECTION 12—1920

**G**REAT BRITAIN'S pledge to abandon the occupation of Egypt, given by Premier Gladstone in 1882, and her subsequent pledge to withdraw her protectorate over Egypt, given in 1914, both remained unfulfilled at the close of 1920. A plan for Egyptian independence was, indeed, drawn up in August, 1920, by Lord Milner's Commission, and every hope held out to the Egyptians that their right to self-government would at last be recognized by the British Government, but the terms proposed were rejected by the Egyptian delegates and negotiations were brought to an abrupt close.

Early in January, 1920, an appeal issued from the University of Egypt urging Great Britain to "recognize the complete independence of a country distinguished by a glorious heritage and a peculiar predominance in the Orient," Lord Milner's Commission returned to London in March, with a plan for the restoration of independence to Egypt. The Egyptian delegates, with Zaglul Pasha at their head, reached London in May.

Meanwhile, the sympathy of the United States Senate had been enlisted in the cause of Egypt. An Egyptian Nationalist headquarters had been set up in Washington by Mahmud Pasha and ex-Governor Folk of Missouri engaged to present their cause before the nation. Upon his suggestion, the Egyptian Nationalists drew up a set of proposals to submit to the Milner Commission as indicative of the terms upon which they would be willing to make peace with Great Britain. The proposals embodied these several demands: (1) Abolition of the British protectorate over Egypt in conformity with the solemn pledge of the British Government in 1914; (2) internal independence in all matters except foreign

affairs, public debts and control of the Suez Canal; (3) external independence.

These proposals were duly considered at a joint conference held in London and were favorably received. The fundamental points of the agreement, as announced semi-officially on August 23, 1920, are: "Egypt will recognize Great Britain's privileged position in the Valley of the Nile and agree, in case of war, to afford every facility for access to Egyptian territory. Great Britain will maintain a garrison in Egypt in the canal zone. Egypt regains control of foreign relations, subject to her not making treaties contrary to British policy and will have the right to maintain diplomatic representatives abroad. Capitulations will be abolished."

The Egyptian delegates left for Cairo in September to consult with the district and provincial committees of the Egyptian Nationalist Party on Lord Milner's proposals. These proving acceptable to Egyptians generally, the delegates returned to London to conclude the compact.

Lord Milner's report, favoring recognition of the independence of Egypt, was signed on December 21st by the members of the Commission. It was then submitted to the Secretary of State for Foreign Affairs, and in the usual course of events would have been laid before the British Parliament. At this stage of the proceedings, however, the British Cabinet balked at granting Egypt her independence, fearing that Ireland also would be stimulated to hold out for independence if the Egyptians were so favored. Lord Milner thereupon resigned from the Commission and the whole question of Egyptian independence was held in abeyance.

ITALY—DEC.

## D'Annunzio Forced to Surrender Fiume After a Mimic War

Fiume is Declared a Free State, the Surrounding Territory Being Placed in Control of Jugo-Slavia

SECTION 13—1920

Insurgent Army, 6,000

Gabrielle D'Annunzio, Commander  
Naval Commander, Capt. Catracane

Italian Army, 20,000

Gen. Caviglia, Commander  
Gen. Ferrario

**A**FTER holding the city of Fiume for fifteen months, in defiance of the wishes of the Allied Powers and his own beloved Italy, Gabrielle D'Annunzio, the poet-soldier, surrendered to the Italian army on December 29, 1920, subsequently departing for Paris.

On November 27, 1920, the Italian Chamber of Deputies had ratified the Treaty of Rapallo, signed by the diplomatic representatives of Italy and Jugo-Slavia on November 12th, constituting Fiume a free state, to be administered by a government of its own, the surrounding territory being placed under

the jurisdiction of Jugo-Slavia. It was now incumbent upon the Italian Government to oust D'Annunzio and his 6,000 Legionaries from Fiume. This was easier said than done, for since his sensational occupation of the city, in September, 1919, three distinguished Italian generals successively sent to Fiume to capture D'Annunzio had been won over to his cause. A commander of sterner mettle, Gen. Caviglia, was now chosen to march on Fiume and compel the surrender of the insurgent army.

With an army of 20,000 regular troops, transported from Pola by the Italian Flat, Gen. Caviglia



arrived before Fiume on December 1st. After throwing a cordon around the city he sent D'Annunzio a proclamation, declaring the intention of the Italian Government to enforce the conditions of the Rapallo Treaty without delay and demanding that the insurgent army withdraw behind the frontiers of the Free State and refrain from useless resistance.

#### D'Annunzio Declares War

D'Annunzio's reply took the form of a declaration of war to begin on December 3d. Small clashes at once occurred between the Legionaries and the Regulars, but actual warfare did not begin on the designated day, Gen. Caviglia having given orders that the regular troops should not fire upon their Italian brothers unless absolutely necessary.

Fourteen Italian Deputies were sent to Fiume to persuade the insurgent leaders to abandon resistance, but they were dismissed with scant ceremony. An appeal telegraphed from Rome, signed by eighty Senators, went similarly unheeded.

#### Three War Vessels Desert to D'Annunzio

A sensational incident of the "war" occurred on December 6th, when the crews of three vessels in the Italian fleet mutinied, tying up their officers and taking their vessels into the inner harbor to reinforce D'Annunzio's small fleet of one dreadnought, four destroyers and smaller craft moored off the Fiume dock. The first vessel thus surrendered was the destroyer Bronzetti. When the mutineers brought their officers, in chains, before D'Annunzio, the insurgent chieftain rewarded them with 10,000 francs and bade his legionaries to do homage to them upon bended knees. The second vessel to desert to D'Annunzio was a torpedo boat and the third a destroyer, the *Espero*. In addition to these vessels, three armored cars with their crews were surrendered to the insurgent chief.

Offsetting these accessions to his cause, D'Annunzio became aware of a growing opposition to his rule in Fiume, when, on December 10th, various political groups, rejecting his regency, declared for a free and independent state.

On December 21st, D'Annunzio informed General Caviglia of his unalterable decision to reject the

Rapallo Treaty and his determination to defend Fiume against all attacks. He carried his threat into effect at once by sending a detail of troops to seize the southern end of the Montagna Tunnel at Castelvener, northeast of Zara, compelling the local garrison to withdraw.

General Caviglia sent a new ultimatum to D'Annunzio to evacuate the city within 48 hours. He then proclaimed a blockade of Fiume. Events now moved quickly. The Italian torpedo boat destroyer *Zeffiro* shelled the insurgent forces at Veglia; the rebel troops who had occupied Castelvener were captured or put to flight; and the rebel forces at Jeleni were routed by the Italian Carabineers.

Advancing from three sides Gen. Caviglia's troops, on December 26th, began to close in on Fiume, the Italian fleet meantime guarding the bay. D'Annunzio and his 5,000 Legionaries prepared to make their final stand behind staunch barricades set up in the central square. As the regular troops entered the city, the Mayor went out to meet Gen. Ferrario, commander of the blockading forces, to discuss the termination of hostilities. The terms proposed to D'Annunzio were again submitted, including full recognition of the Rapallo Treaty. Pending a decision, a suspension of firing was granted. By this time the regular troops were in possession of a half part of Fiume.

Hostilities were resumed on December 28th. From behind barricades and from housetops the insurgents directed machine-gun fire upon the regular troops. But all resistance was in vain. Hundreds of insurgents were captured. At Zara, the women advanced against the regulars, screaming their defiance.

The end came on December 29th, when the Fiume authorities accepted the Government's terms. By January 14th, the last of the Legionaries had evacuated the city. D'Annunzio left on January 18th, proceeding by automobile to Paris. On the eve of his departure, a great public demonstration was held in his honor.

It was estimated that the total casualties of the Italian regulars were 17 killed and 120 wounded, those of the Legionaries as 18 killed and 50 wounded, and those of the civilians 2 killed and 10 wounded.

#### GREECE — NOV.

### Former King Constantine Restored to the Throne of Greece

Soldiers Permitted to Vote, But Greeks in Smyrna Denied That Privilege

#### SECTION 14—1920

**F**ORMER King Constantine of Greece, who was compelled to abdicate in 1917, after naming his son Alexander as his successor, was restored to his throne by vote of the Greek nation—or, more correctly speaking, a part of the Greek nation—on November 14, 1920.

The way to Constantine's restoration had been opened on October 25th by the death of King Alexander from the bite of a pet monkey received on October 2d in the Palace Garden at Iatoli. In conformity with the constitutional order of succession, the younger brother of King Alexander, Prince Paul, was called to succeed him. Prince Paul declined the honor, saying that the throne belonged,

not to him, but to his august father, King Constantine, whose constitutional successor was Prince George, the eldest son.

Thereupon the Greek Government, through its Minister at Berne, Switzerland, officially opened negotiations with the family of the former king in residence at Lucerne. Emissaries of Constantine declared that the British Government would view the restoration of the deposed King with satisfaction. Prompt denial of these declarations was made by Lord Granville, the British minister at Athens.

#### Venizelos Accuses the King

Premier Venizelos of Greece on November 7th



issued a manifesto, accusing Constantine of having even before the War, entered into agreements with the Emperor of Germany, which hampered the free guiding of the foreign policy of Greece, and further alleging that "Constantine opened the doors of Oriental Macedonia and thus became the cause of the lamentable death of 40,000 Hellenes and of the ruin of this opulent province; he implored German headquarters to attack the English and French and throw them into the sea. Knowing full well that this offensive was to be operated almost exclusively by Bulgarian troops, he prepared the murder of the Franco-Britishers, and after he found refuge in Switzerland he unceasingly organized seditious plots in Greece so as to render her unable to enter the war, and consequently after Germany's defeat he continued to direct the criminals in order to overthrow the regime established in Greece, with the sole object of preventing our policy from bearing satisfactory fruit for Greece, and as a result to prevent the full justification of this policy in regard to the Greek people. His return would transport Greece immediately from the Conquerors' camp to that of the vanquished."

#### King Constantine's Great Victory

A General election was held on Sunday, November 14th to choose a King of Greece. All soldiers were permitted to vote, arrangements being made even on the front lines. The Greek citizens in the Smyrna district, however, were denied the vote, for the technical reason that Smyrna had not yet been formally ceded to Greece. The election resulted in an overwhelming victory for the former King. Out of a total of 368 members elected to the Chamber of Deputies, 300 were adherents of Constantine. The Venizelist party was almost completely annihilated.

King Constantine re-entered Athens on Sunday, December 19th, having landed that morning at Posseidonia from the cruiser Averoff, and was received with acclamations of joy by a great multitude. On January 5, 1921, he read his manifesto to the Bule,

or Parliament, promising to "aim at securing at home tranquility through union, and abroad at accomplishing the national re-establishment by relying on our heroic army."

The Cabinet collectively resigned on January 6th, but upon the urgent request of the King consented to remain in office until the Bule had approved the new royal policy.

An augury of happier relations between Greece and Roumania appeared with announcement of two betrothals—that of Prince George of Greece with Princess Elizabeth of Roumania, and that of Prince Carol, heir to the throne of Roumania, and Princess Helene of Greece.

#### "Unredeemed Greeks" Address the Allied Powers

The "unredeemed" Greeks, resident in Constantinople, transmitted to the Allied High Commissioner at the Turkish capital a manifesto reciting that "the results of the last elections in Greece have led to the affliction of all Greeks under Ottoman rule, as well as of the free Hellenes who were firm believers in M. Venizelos's policy, which the unredeemed Greeks consider to be the valuable expression of the soul of Hellenism. If to the voters of the Liberals in Greece had been added those of the unredeemed Greeks together with those of the Greeks resident in Turkey who, unfortunately, could not participate in the elections, it is evident that the great majority of the nation would have been shown to be firmly attached to the ideals upheld by the Allied Powers during the war and applied to the Treaty of Peace." Conscious of accomplishing a supreme duty, these Greeks declare that they will remain "steadfastly attached to the national policy which M. Venizelos impersonates; that they swear fidelity to his principles; that a feeling of everlasting gratitude binds them as individuals to the great liberal Powers who are their benefactors and who will always find them on their side; that as far as the Ex-King is concerned, they firmly adhere to the official declarations of M. Venizelos and absolutely reject any other solution contrary to those declarations."

#### IRELAND. JAN.—DEC.

### Reign of Terror Inaugurated by British Military in Ireland Provinces Devastated, Cities Destroyed, Officials Assassinated, People Harried Hunger Strikes of Prisoners—Burning of Cork Acts of the Black and Tans

#### SECTION 15—1920

British Military Forces, 80,000  
Gen. Lord French, Commander  
(Succeeded by Gen. Macready)

Irish Republican Forces, 50,000  
Michael Collins, Commander  
Richard Flaherty, Chief of Staff

IRELAND was subjected, in the year 1920, to a regime of terror, brutally reminiscent of the days of Cromwell. The Imperial British Government, unequal to the task of ruling Ireland, attempted its ruin by methods as ruthless and wanton as those employed by the Huns in Belgium. Entire provinces were devastated by the Crown forces; martial law was enforced throughout the southern part of the Island; unarmed peasants, irrespective of

age or sex, were dragooned and shot like wild animals; elected Irish officials, including the Lord Mayors of two important cities, were assassinated in their homes in the dead of night by British agents; Cork, Lisburn and other towns were deliberately burned; forty-five creameries were destroyed; many textile factories were reduced to ruins; hayricks and livestock were destroyed; shops were looted and burned; women and children by thousands were ex-



pelled from their homes at night, to take refuge in the hills and fields; convents were raided and churches profaned; aged priests were foully murdered as they went about their pastoral duties; funerals were hurried to the graveyard by helmeted soldiers with fixed bayonets; prisoners of war were tortured before being put to death; and other infamies were committed which will "denounce the name of England throughout the ages."

#### Denounced by American Commission

The American Commission on Conditions in Ireland, in its Interim Report, declares: "The British terror in Ireland (in 1920) would seem to us to violate all laws of peace and of war, private and public, human and Divine. In its long continuance, complete organization, ruthlessness and all-pervading character, it would seem to your Commission almost without parallel in the practice of civilized nations."

The American Commission reporting was chosen by a Committee which included eleven Protestant Bishops, four Catholic Bishops, eleven United States Senators, the Governors of five states, thirteen Congressmen, the Mayors of fifteen large cities, and clergymen, jurists, college presidents and professors, publicists, editors and business and labor leaders from 36 States.

#### Concerning So-Called Reprisals

Regarding reprisals, the Interim Report states:

During 1919 the British reprisal policy was instituted. It demonstrably consisted in an acute intensification of the long prevailing British terror. That terror was not initiated by the assassination of the British military, was not confined to areas in which these assassinations occurred, and was not absent from areas where there had been no assassinations. It was therefore not in the nature of a retaliation either justifiable or unjustifiable, on the part of the party first attacked. The official use of the term reprisal would consequently seem to us the stereotyped ruse de guerre, intended to lead the British and other people into condoning an aggravation of the Imperial British terrorism in Ireland.

The Commission holds the Imperial British Government culpable for the Irish atrocities. It avers that the British troops in Ireland included in their ranks "criminals and convicts." It alleges that British propaganda was used to "breed fear and hate in these troops," and it presents picture after picture of "soldiers crazed with drink running amuck, burning, destroying and promiscuously murdering." Such acts of criminal violence "are condoned, encouraged or even actually participated in by Imperial British officers." A British proclamation is cited which makes death the penalty for a mother who harbors her son in her home if he is a Republican, "levying war against His Majesty, the King," although 80 per cent of the entire nation would fall under the awful condemnation. "This proclamation," says the Report, "would seem to us to be directed not only against Irish womanhood, but also against the memory of the noblest of Englishwomen, Edith Cavell, shot for harboring persons levying war against His Majesty, the Kaiser. The British High Command would appear to make the heroism of Edith Cavell a crime and to confirm her sentence."

#### America's Indictment of England

The conclusions of the Commission were as follows:

We find that the Irish people are deprived of the protection of British law, to which they would be entitled as subjects of the British King. They are likewise deprived of the moral

protection granted by international law to which they would be entitled as belligerents. They are at the mercy of Imperial British forces which acting contrary both to all law and to all standards of human conduct, have instituted in Ireland a "terror" that is more terrible than war. More specifically, the evidence regarding this campaign of terrorism, which we present hereafter, proves:

1. The Imperial British Government has created and introduced into Ireland, a force of at least 78,000 men, many of them youthful and inexperienced, and some of them convicts; and has incited that force to unbridled violence.

2. The Imperial British forces in Ireland have tortured, and indiscriminately killed, innocent men, women and children; have discriminately assassinated persons suspected of being Republicans; have tortured and shot prisoners while in custody, adopting the subtleties of "refusal to halt" and "attempting to escape"; and have attributed to alleged "Sinn Fein extremists" the British assassination of prominent Irish Republicans.

3. House-burning and wanton destruction of whole villages and cities by Imperial British forces under Imperial British officers have been countenanced, and ordered by officials of the British Government; and elaborate provision by gasoline sprays and bombs has been made in a number of instances for systematic incendiarism as part of a plan of terrorism.

4. A campaign for the destruction of the means of existence of the Irish people has been conducted by the burning of factories, creameries, crops and farm implements and the shooting of farm animals. This campaign is carried on regardless of political views of their owners, and results in widespread and acute suffering among women and children.

5. Acting under a series of proclamations issued by the competent military authorities of the Imperial British forces, hostages are carried by forces exposed to the fire of the Republican army; fines are levied upon towns and villages as punishment for alleged offenses of individuals; private property is destroyed in reprisals for acts with which the owners have no connection, and the civilian population is subjected to a constant inquisition upon the theory that individuals are in possession of information valuable to the military forces of Great Britain. These acts of the Imperial British forces are contrary to the laws of peace or war among modern civilized nations.

6. This "terror" has failed to re-establish Imperial British civil government in Ireland. Throughout the greater part of Ireland British courts have ceased to function, local, country and city governments refuse to recognize British authority; and British civil officials fulfill no function of service to the Irish people.

7. In spite of the British "terror" the majority of the Irish people having sanctioned by ballot the Irish Republic, give their allegiance to it; pay taxes to it; and respect the decisions of its courts and of its civil officials.

#### Gen. Lord French Resigns His Command

Gen. Lord French, Commander of the British forces in Ireland, and a former Commander-in-Chief of the British Armies in France, resigned his command as a protest against the continuance of the British Government's ruthless policy in Ireland. He subsequently addressed several British assemblages, advocating the withdrawal of the British military forces from Ireland and the extension of home rule to the people of that martyred island.

#### British Labor Party's Protest

Similarly, the British Labor Party denounced the British terror in Ireland as "a thing done in the name of Great Britain which must make her name stink in the nostrils of the world." The British Labor Commission's report considers the matter of reprisals in this light:

"Besides reprisals for specific occurrences there are the more general sorts of reprisals—reprisals against all and sundry, not for this or that particular crime, but for the general attitude of the bulk of Irish people toward the British Government and its paid servants in Ireland. The policy of sheer terrorism and of brutal treatment to individuals is directed against the people as a whole. Again, the innocent certainly suffer, and the guilty may or may not suffer with them. Reprisals and the whole policy of violence are condemned because they are inhuman, and also because by driving the people to revolt or sullen despair they but intensify the problem they are designed to solve by crushing it out of existence."

#### Ireland Votes for Independence

The preponderant sentiment of the Irish electorate in favor of absolute independence was again shown in the elections held on January 15th, when the Republican party elected 85 per cent of their candidates and the colors of the Irish Republic were raised over the chief cities of Ireland. Even in the



province of Ulster, the vote stood 238,374 for self-determination, against 238,318 for the double parliament plan, affording proof positive that all Ireland was opposed to the new Home Rule Bill.

#### Chief Secretary Macpherson Resigns

Ian Macpherson, Chief Secretary for Ireland, resigned his office on April 1st and was succeeded by Sir Hamar Greenwood, a Canadian by birth.

#### Elected Officials Arrested

All Ireland seethed with excitement during February. The local boards had met on January 30th to organize. At Dublin the flag of the Irish Republic was unfurled from the tower of the Municipal Buildings, next door to Dublin Castle, the very seat of British authority, and it fluttered the entire day in full view. For Lord Mayor of Dublin the electorate chose Thomas Kelly, who had been lodged in Wormwood Scrubs Prison two months before, being secretly arrested at night and taken to England on a ship of war. Sinn Fein Chairmen were elected at Cork, Waterford, Tipperary, Sligo, Drogheda and Limerick. A Catholic Mayor was elected in Derry for the first time in 40 years. Cork chose for its Lord Mayor Alderman Thomas McCurtain, captain of the local Sinn Fein Volunteers. A resolution was carried declaring the Corporation's allegiance to the Irish Parliament. Dublin, Cork, Limerick and Drogheda declined to nominate a sheriff, as that would necessitate an oath swearing allegiance to the British King.

In reprisal for these acts of patriotism, the British authorities at 4 o'clock in the morning of January 31st, arrested every Sinn Fein official in Dublin, Limerick, Thurles and elsewhere upon whom could be fastened a charge of sedition and rebellion. Scores of prisoners were gathered in Dublin for transportation to England on British warships. As a result of these nocturnal arrests and deportations without trial, numerous clashes ensued between the people and police, resulting in several fatalities.

#### Murder of Mayor McCurtain

The first of a long series of atrocious crimes, committed by agents of the British Government, was the murder of Lord Mayor Thomas McCurtain of Cork. On the night of March 20th, eight emissaries of the Crown, all masked, broke into his house, took him from his bed and shot him dead in the presence of his family. An attempt was made to fasten the guilt for this crime on the Irish Republican Brotherhood, but without success. The authors of the murder it is known were British agents, and it is further known that two hours before his murder the British authorities had issued orders for his arrest. A coroner's inquest into the assassination found that "the Lord Mayor had been murdered by the Irish Royal Constabulary under circumstances of the most callous brutality, officially directed by the British Government." A verdict of wilful murder was returned by the jury against Premier Lloyd George, Gen. French, Secretary Greenwood and others.

#### Soldiers Fire on Unarmed Crowd

On the night of March 22d a large body of soldiers, attached to the Dublin military barracks, fired into an unarmed crowd of civilians gathered near the Kathmines bridge, killing a man and a woman and

wounding several others. In defense of this massacre, the soldiers alleged that they had been stoned by the crowd whilst returning from a performance at the Theater Royal.

#### Murder of Judge Bell

Judge Alan Bell, a Resident Magistrate, 70 years old, who had presided over an inquiry into dealings of the Sinn Fein with Irish banks, was dragged from a crowded street car in Dublin by a band of men at 10 o'clock on the morning of March 26th and shot to death at the side of the road in full view of the other passengers. The assassins escaped. Following the murder, a number of high Irish officials abandoned their homes, and, for safety, took up their residence in Dublin Castle.

#### 250 Police Barracks Burned

During the first three months of 1920, there had occurred 25 attacks on police barracks. These attacks were continued in April, when 220 police barracks were burned. Some of the police strongholds were wrecked by bombs, others carried by assault. In no instance were the inmates harmed.

On the night of April 3d, fires were started in the Tax Collectors' offices in many parts of Ireland, especially in Dublin, where the fire brigade was kept busy all night. On the same night big cattle drives took place in Galway and County Mayo, 1,800 men driving the cattle from thousands of acres, while the police and graziers looked on powerless to check the depredations.

#### New Home Rule Bill

On February 25th the new Home Rule Bill, creating two Parliaments in Ireland and providing separate governments for Ulster and the rest of Ireland, was formally introduced in the House of Commons. This bill was challenged on its second reading by former Premier Asquith, representing the Liberal objection, as a measure "which is unacceptable to any section of the Irish nation, which denies national unity by setting up the Legislatures and executives with co-ordinate powers and which would indefinitely postpone the establishment of a united parliament for Ireland."

#### Hunger Strike Ends in General Strike

Eighty-nine Irish Republicans, imprisoned and held without trial in Mountjoy Prison, Dublin, began a hunger strike on April 4th. Upon the refusal of the Government to grant amelioration to these prisoners, the Irish Trades Union Congress issued a call to the workers for a general strike throughout Ireland on April 13th. Except in Ulster, business was brought to a complete standstill. All the industries, shops, public houses and restaurants were closed; the hotel staffs quit work, the Post Office ceased to function; no tramcars or trains were run. On the day following this paralysis of business, the government capitulated; all the hunger-striking prisoners were released and as a result the strike was immediately called off.

While the strike was on, a detachment of Irish cyclists captured the city of Waterford, cutting the telegraph wires, occupying the Government Buildings and taking over the functions of the municipal government.



### Sensational Hunger Strike in England

An even more sensational hunger strike took place in Wormwood Scrubs Prison, London, being participated in by 150 Irish political prisoners. In sympathy with the strikers, several of whom were reported at the point of death, a throng of 10,000 people of both sexes made a demonstration in front of the prison on April 26th, singing Irish songs, waving Sinn Fein flags and shouting messages to the prisoners through megaphones. Suddenly the great crowd knelt on the wet grass while a priest recited the rosary in Gaelic. Day after day the great crowd remained in front of the prison. An attempt was made to disperse the crowd on April 29th, when a body of mounted policemen rode roughshod through the vast assemblage, but without success. On the following day a body of Irish "stalwarts" appeared, wearing steel helmets and bending all their energies to the protection of the women who composed the larger part of the crowd. A few days later the British Government released the hunger strikers.

### Parliamentary Debate on Home Rule

The Parliament debate of the Irish Home Rule Bill continued through April and May, but the Irish Nationalist members on May 1st repeated their refusal to participate in the discussion. Former Premier Asquith on May 10th made a plea in advocacy of a single Irish Parliament, but his suggestion went unheeded.

### American Congressional Protest

In the United States House of Representatives, on April 15th, 87 members of Congress entered their formal protest to Secretary of State Bainbridge Colby against the outrages committed by the Crown forces in Ireland, and on May 4th a memorandum was sent to the British Government, signed by 85 Congressmen, embodying a similar protest.

### British Army of Occupation

Early in May, the British Government sent an Army of Occupation into Ireland, numbering 80,000 troops, both infantry and cavalry, and supported by armored cars, tanks, heavy artillery, and airplanes. At the same time the ranks of the Royal Irish Constabulary were strengthened by the addition of recruits from Scottish and English regiments. A special camp was established for the infantry at the Curragh, outside Dublin; but the cavalry regiments took up strategic positions in the South and West.

### American Resolution of Sympathy

The Foreign Affairs Committee of the United States Congress, on May 28th, by a vote of 11 to 7, reported favorably a resolution of sympathy with the aspirations of the Irish people for a government of their own choice, further declaring that the conditions in Ireland, consequent upon the British denial of the right of the people to govern themselves, endangered the world peace and tended to weaken the bond of unity and the ancient ties of kinship which bind so many of the American people to the people of Great Britain and Ireland.

### Seizure of British Arms

The daring Irish Republicans continued to raid British barracks in quest of arms and ammunition.

On June 4th, a party of 60 Republicans, armed with revolvers, surprised a military detachment at the King's Inn in Dublin, and made off with 30 rifles and several thousand rounds of ammunition. Two days later a military and police patrol was trapped and disarmed by Irish Republicans who had pretended to be playing bowls by the roadside.

### Boycott Against the Constabulary

The Irish Republican Army, on June 13th, proclaimed a general boycott against the British Constabulary throughout Country Leitrim. The effect of the boycott was to stop the supplies of food, milk and other necessities to the police and their families.

### Labor Makes Its Protest

The Irish Labor Unions showed their sympathy with the rebellion in many ways. Thus, on May 20th, the National Union of Railwaymen in Dublin refused to unload munition supplies for the British Army of Occupation and threatened a general strike if compelled to transport military stores. On May 25th this threat was carried into effect. Traffic at the North Wall Station was completely paralyzed and the discharge of munitions from vessels brought to a standstill.

### Rioting at Londonderry

Londonderry was the scene of riotous outbreaks between the Unionists and Nationalists throughout the week of June 21—26. The rioting began when, on the morning of the 21st, a large body of armed Unionists (Ulsterites) charged down Castle street, firing volley after volley into the Republican stronghold in Bridge Street. Driven from this point, the Unionists ran amok in other places. Thereupon all business was suspended, the schools and shops were closed, and many houses barricaded. The fighting on the second day spread to the waterfront, the rival belligerents being intrenched and barricaded with sand bags. Channel sailings were suspended during this period of warfare. The rioters were finally driven from the streets by the Crown Troops, after 17 persons had been killed and 29 wounded. As the result of a conference between British and Irish Republican officials, a Conciliation Committee, representative of all classes, was appointed to restore peace.

### Railway Traffic Disorganized

The refusal of the Irish railway men to move trains on which British soldiers or police had taken passage, or to transport ammunition for the use of the Army of Occupation, resulted in July in the almost complete disorganization of the railway service. The Great Northern Railway, hitherto not affected, became involved in the general boycott on June 29th. On the 30th the railroad terminus at Dublin was tied up, causing a complete stoppage of trains for the South. By July 8th no trains were running out of Limerick to Waterford, Cork and Sligo, and there had been no outbound trains from Tipperary for a fortnight. To assist in the transport of food, the Government made use of motor vehicles.

### British General Kidnapped

The Irish Republicans did not hesitate at kidnapping the higher commanders of the British Army. Thus on the night of June 27th, Brigadier Gen.



Lucas, commanding the British troops in the Fermoy military area, was seized by a party of masked men and held for some time as a prisoner of war in a Sinn Féin covert. Upon his restoration to freedom, he frankly acknowledged that his captors were "kindly and considerate" young men. It is a deplorable fact that the example of chivalrous conduct set by the Irish captors of Gen. Lucas was not followed by the British. Certain it is that the cold-blooded murder of Irish prisoners of war by the British military authorities has left an ineffaceable stain on the escutcheon of the Empire.

#### Coercion Bill Passed By Parliament

A bill for the Restoration of Order in Ireland, and popularly known as the Crimes Bill, the effect of which was to place the greater part of Ireland under martial law, was adopted under closure by the House of Commons on August 6th by a vote of 206 to 18. Under the provisions of this bill, civil law was superseded by military law, the duties of Crown tribunals being transferred to courts-martial. Ulster, however, was excluded from the operation of the law. Exciting scenes attended the passage of the bill in the Commons. Joseph Devlin, Nationalist member for Belfast, after denouncing the bill as "one of the most infamous transactions of which any Government had been guilty", openly defied the chair, and in consequence was expelled. All the Irish Nationalists and most of the Labor members accompanied him. When the bill was read in the House of Lords, on August 9th, the Right Hon. Alexander M. Carlisle, an Irish Privy Councillor and prominent Belfast ship-builder, called out from the steps of the throne: "My Lords, if you pass this bill, you may kill England, but you will not kill Ireland." Without division the bill passed the House of Lords and became law with the royal assent. Privy Councillor Carlisle on August 16th was debarred from the House of Lords.

#### Catholic Workmen Banished From Belfast

The Orangemen of Belfast, in an excess of bigotry, on July 21st, declared a boycott against the Catholic workmen in the shipyards and other establishments of Ulster. In consequence of this boycott, some 1,000 Catholics were driven from their places of employment. A reign of terror set in, continuing for months. Not content with depriving 1,000 Catholics and 4,000 dependents of their means of existence, the fanatical Orangemen set fire to the stores and houses of the Catholics, compelling innocent women and children to seek refuge in the hills and swamps round about Belfast. These outrages brought in their train ambushes, raids, reprisals, and street fighting. Not only Belfast, but Dublin, Londonderry and other large cities were again the scenes of unloosed passions, with their resultant toll of violent deaths.

#### Burning of Balbriggan

A detachment of "Black and Tans" sacked and burned the small town of Balbriggan, on September 21st, "in retaliation for the shooting of two policemen." This outrage was thus described in one English newspaper: "In its brutality, wantonness and destructiveness, last night's work of the uniformed

forces of the Crown was comparable only to the story of some Belgian village in the early days of the War. People were fleeing the town in conditions as pitiable as that of any set of refugees that ever left Louvain." Gen. Macready, Commander in Chief in Ireland, ordered a rigid inquiry into this and similar police outrages but without result.

#### The Burning of Lisburn

The British authorities in August furnished arms to several thousand Orangemen in Ulster, many of them ex-service men, ostensibly for the "protection of life and property," but in reality to carry out a series of reprisals already planned. The organization of this Northern Volunteer force met with adverse criticism among both Nationalists and Southern Unionists. One of the earlier exploits of this "Volunteer" force was the burning and looting of the business section of the city of Lisburn on August 23d, property to the value of \$2,500,000 being destroyed. Every Republican resident of the town was compelled, under penalty of death, to pledge his "loyalty" to King George.

#### Viscount Grey's Dominion Proposal Rejected

Viscount Grey of Falloden, on September 29th, proposed that Ireland be granted a Dominion form of government, England to reserve control of the Departments of Foreign and United Military Affairs. The proposal was rejected both by President de Valera of the Republic of Ireland and by Sir Edward Carson, leader of the Ulster Unionists. Premier Lloyd George subsequently rejected the Grey plan on the ground that dominion rule in Ireland might prove unsafe for Great Britain, inasmuch as "dominion home rule means that they (the Irish) can organize their own army and navy, and their submarine bases as well."

#### Archbishop Mannix Arrested

The British Government, early in August, invited the derision of all the nations by despatching several torpedo destroyers to intercept the liner *Baltic* at Queenstown and take therefrom a single aged priest, Archbishop Daniel Mannix of Australia, who had sailed from New York on July 30th, intending to visit his old home in Ireland. The venerable prelate, during his stay in America, had made several speeches in denunciation of British rule in Ireland. In consequence of these strictures, Premier Lloyd George had officially notified him that he would not be permitted to land in Ireland. Nevertheless, elaborate preparations to welcome him were made at Liverpool, Cork and other cities. When off Queenstown, the *Baltic*, after being stopped by British destroyers, was boarded by British officers, who placed the Archbishop under "technical arrest" and set him ashore at Penzance. On August 10th, under strict surveillance, the prelate proceeded to London, where he remained several weeks until his departure for Rome.

#### Lord Mayor McSwiney's Hunger Strike

A tragedy which held the close attention of the world was the hunger strike of Lord Mayor Terence McSwiney of Cork, ending in his death in Brixton Prison, London, on October 25th, after a fast of 74 days. Lord Mayor McSwiney was arrested on



August 16th and brought to trial without counsel on three charges, viz: (1) Having under his control the secret police cipher of the city of Cork, which it was his right as Lord Mayor to possess, (2) being in possession of a resolution pledging the allegiance of Cork Corporation to the Irish Parliament, and (3) having in his possession the inaugural speech he had delivered when installed in office. Found "guilty", he was sentenced to serve two years in prison. Refusing to admit the legality of the court which tried him, Lord Mayor McSwiney declared that if convicted and sentenced to imprisonment he would be free within a month, by death or otherwise, since it was his intention to abstain wholly from food. Transferred to Brixton Prison, on August 18th, Lord Mayor McSwiney began his memorable hunger strike. As the weeks went by, reports of his weakened condition moved the whole world to pity, and resulted in numerous petitions for his release. King George expressed his willingness to pardon the Irish prisoner, but Premier Lloyd George, obdurate to the last, replied that he "could not interfere with the course of justice." On September 11th the street car service of Dublin ceased, between 10 a. m. and noon, to permit the employees to attend mass for the martyr-mayor. All business was suspended in the town of Dalkey, every Protestant shopkeeper closing his place of business as a mark of respect. Ten thousand persons in Glasgow participated in a demonstration against McSwiney's further imprisonment. An urgent appeal for McSwiney's release was addressed by Mayor Hylan of New York to Premier Lloyd George, but without result. In the last days of his fast, Lord Mayor McSwiney was attended by nuns. It was reported that the British jail officials had forcibly fed him and that he was delirious. The end came on October 25th, the 74th day of his fast. In every land Lord Mayor McSwiney was acclaimed as a martyr in the cause of freedom. Throughout the world, solemn religious services and public demonstrations were held in his honor. A large concourse of people attended the final obsequies in Cork.

#### Lloyd George's Latest Irish Program

Parliament adjourned on August 16th until October 19th. Before the adjournment, Premier Lloyd George denied that the British Government had decided to grant dominion rule to all Ireland with Ulster's consent. The only terms on which Britain would consent to treat with Sinn Fein were: (1) That the six counties of Ulster must be treated separately; (2) that there must be no secession of any part of Ireland from the United Kingdom; (3) that nothing would be agreed to that would "detract from the security or safety of the islands of the United Kingdom in case of war."

#### Catholic Archbishops Accuse Government

The Catholic Archbishops and Bishops of Ireland met on October 20th, under the Presidency of Cardinal Logue, and issued a pronouncement, charging the British Government with responsibility for the disorders in Ireland and for stimulating the resistance of the Ulsterites to a fair settlement of the Irish question, denouncing the excesses of the armed forces of the Crown which had been condoned by responsible Ministers of the Crown, and demanding

an impartial inquiry. War Secretary Churchill, in a speech at Dundee, retorted that Ireland, like Russia, "was deliberately tearing herself to pieces and obstinately destroying her own prosperity," and that "there were resources in the United Kingdom capable of rescuing her."

#### Home Rule Bill Passed

The new Home Rule Bill, providing for two separate Parliaments for Ireland, passed on its third reading, November 11th, by 183 to 52 votes. Following his plea for reconciliation, Premier Lloyd George gave notice that there could be no separation between Great Britain and Ireland, and no such dominion status as that proposed by Former Premier Asquith.

#### Martial Law Proclaimed in Ireland

Martial law was proclaimed on December 10th for the counties of Cork, Limerick, Tipperary and Kerry, embracing one-third of the entire area and a quarter of the whole population of Ireland. Under this rule, any unauthorized person found in possession of arms, ammunition or explosives, will be liable, on conviction by a military court, to suffer death. A further military proclamation was issued in Cork, on December 24th, ordering householders to affix on the inside of their doors a list of all inmates, with age, sex and other description. On January 4th, 1921, the martial law area was extended to Counties Clare, Waterford, Wexford, and Kilkenny. Thus nearly one-half of Ireland was under martial law. Dublin, however, still remained outside the zone of martial law.

#### Official Report of British Casualties

The British Government reported the following casualties caused by the Irish Republican forces in Ireland during 1920: Police killed, 182; wounded, 263; soldiers killed, 54; wounded, 122; civilians killed, 43; wounded, 103; court houses destroyed, 68; constabulary barracks destroyed, 530; damaged, 163; raids on mails, 998; raids on coast guard stations and lighthouses, 46; raids for arms, 2,801; raids on revenue officers, 119. The number killed and wounded does not include the Ulster riots, as a result of which 82 civilians died.

#### Excommunications by Catholic Bishop

The decree of excommunication, pronounced by Bishop Daniel Cohalan of Cork against any Catholics taking part in ambushes, kidnapping or murder, became effective on December 19th.

#### House of Lords Passes Home Rule Bill

The House of Lords, for the first time in its history, passed a Home Rule Bill for Ireland, on December 20th. The measure was adopted on December 21st, to become effective at the discretion of the Government at any time within three and one-half years. Under the provisions of this act, Ireland is granted two Parliaments which may be united at some future date in one Parliament for the whole country. Each Parliament is to consist of two chambers. That of South Ireland is to have 128 Commoners and 64 Senators, that of the North 52 Commoners and 26 Senators. The Senators for the Southern Parliament are partly nominated and



partly indirectly elected, whereas in the Northern Parliament the Commoners will elect all the Senators save two, the Lord Mayors of Belfast and Londonderry. The real authority for Ireland, under the act, however, seems to have been vested in a Super-Council, consisting of seven Senators and thirteen Commoners of each Parliament, with a President nominated by the Lord Lieutenant, "with a view to the eventual establishment of one Parliament and to bring about harmonious action in relation to matters affecting the whole of Ireland." Ireland still retains 46 seats in the British Parliament.

#### British Labor Party for Irish Dominion

The British Labor Party placed itself on record, December 29th, as unequivocally in support of the claims of Irish self-determination. A Commission sent to Ireland to investigate the British conduct of the war, brought in a report accusing the Crown forces of various outrages and challenged the Government to disprove these charges. Brig.-Gen. C. B. Thompson, who accompanied the Labor Commission, declared the British Army of Occupation to be "masterful and criminal", the Black and Tans "violent in thought and deed", and "in addition to being the perpetrators of the worst outrages, they are the most provocative element in that unhappy country." The British Labor Party adopted a resolution proposing (1) the withdrawal of all British armed forces from Ireland, (2) the placing of responsibility for maintaining order on the local authorities, and (3) provisions for immediate election by provisional representation of a Constituent Assembly charged to work out whatever Constitution for Ireland the Irish people desire, subject only to two conditions, namely, protection of minorities and guarantees that the Constitution shall prevent Ireland becoming a military or naval menace to Great Britain.

#### Lord Mayor O'Callaghan in America

Daniel O'Callaghan, Lord Mayor of Cork, and Peter J. McSwiney, brother of the late Lord Mayor of Cork, escaped from Ireland in late December, taking passage as stowaways on the steamer West

Cannon which arrived at Newport News on January 4th. The two-fold object of Lord Mayor O'Callaghan's visit was to escape probable assassination and to testify before the Villard Committee of One Hundred on Conditions in Ireland. For the technical reason that Lord Mayor O'Callaghan had no passport, the immigration authorities decided that he should be deported to England, although they must have known this was equivalent to sentencing the Irish patriot to death at the hands of the British executioners. Secretary Wilson of the Department of Labor, more humanely, granted Lord Mayor O'Callaghan a parole, pending a final decision of his case by the State Department. That department, on January 14th, earned the gratitude of England by ordering the Lord Mayor's deportation "on the first available steamer." Lord Mayor O'Callaghan, nevertheless, made a speaking tour of the Eastern States, addressing overflow audiences in many large cities and being welcomed by Mayors and other dignitaries before quietly taking his departure to some place unknown.

#### Crown Forces Burn City of Cork

The proclamation of martial law in the principal counties of the South of Ireland served to unloose all the evil passions of the Black and Tans, and they proceeded without let or hindrance to wreak destruction throughout the land. Their most vindictive crime was the deliberate burning of the business section of the City of Cork in December. Among the hundreds of notable edifices destroyed were the City Hall, the Carnegie Library, and other municipal buildings. An attempt was made to fix the odium for this act of vandalism upon the Republican soldiers, but without success. By vote of Parliament, the British Government was ordered to investigate and report upon the burning of Cork. Pursuant to this order, Gen. Strickland was instructed to make an impartial investigation. His report, confirming the evidence hitherto available, that the burning of Cork was a deliberate act of reprisal on the part of the Black and Tans, has never been made public, being kept in a pigeon-hole in the desk of the British Premier, Lloyd George.







# Warfare Continues in Half the World 1921

## Subjected Nations Burst the Bands of Bondage

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## ISLAM CHALLENGES CHRISTENDOM

**300,000,000 Mohammedans Preparing For a "Holy War"**

**Moslem Uprisings Throughout Asia and Africa**

**Europe in Fear of Another Great Conflagration**

**Turks Are Promised Restoration on European Soil**

**Egyptian Mohammedans Are Granted Independence**

**Moslems Attempt Overthrow of British Raj in India**

**Allies Rob Greeks of Their Victory Over the Turks**

**Ireland Becomes a Free State Within the British Empire**

**Soviet Russia Frees Persia From English Rule**

**Plebiscite War Between Poland and Germany**

**Complete Story of the Disarmament Conference**

### Summary of Events in the Year 1921

EUROPE no sooner had put its own house in order, and turned to face its even graver problems in the East, when it was again affrighted, at the close of the year 1921, by the apparition of a united Islam preparing for a Holy War against all Christendom. Throughout Asia and Africa the Mohammedan world was stirred as it had not been in centuries with the spirit of revolt and ominous threats were heard of a probable fusion of all the Islamic sects as the preliminary to the proclamation by the Sultan of a Holy War, enlisting 300,000,000 Mohammedans in a final mighty effort to throw off the Christian yoke and possess themselves once again of a great part of Asia, Africa, and Europe.

That Islam, after remaining "mentally and spiritually quiescent for a thousand years," was really astir, needed no further proof than that afforded by the simultaneous uprisings in 1921 of the Mohammedan subjects of Great Britain, France, Italy, Spain, and Greece. Thus in India the 70,000,000 Mohammedan subjects of Great Britain made common cause with their once inveterate foes, the Hindus, in their efforts to overthrow the British Raj. In Egypt a similar uprising of the Arab Mohammedans was so far successful as to result in the concession to them of the right of nominal self-government under the aegis of a British Army of Occupation, a concession which by no means fulfilled the expectations of absolute independence once entertained by the Egyptians. In Tripoli also the Mohammedans uprose against Italian rule; in Morocco they sought emancipation from Spanish control; in Syria, they strove to expel the French; in Asia Minor, they ineffectually fought against the Greeks; in British Palestine, in Arabia, in Persia, in Central Asia, the Mohammedans were everywhere astir, seeking to oust the "infidel Christian dogs." Rumors persisted of a secret alliance impending between the Turks and the Bolsheviki, the avowed purpose of which was to make a "real demonstration against Western civilization." If to this unnatural alliance were joined the Japanese and Chinese hordes who are united to Islam, then, indeed, would the stage be set for that dread day of the Lord, "Armageddon," when at last East and West shall meet in the final conflict of the races of earth.



Convinced that a fusion of the Mohammedan sects would inevitably occur, unless immediate concessions were made to the Turks, and that the fate of the British Empire was involved in the decision, the British Viceroy in India, Lord Reading, on March 7, 1922, despatched a message to his home government, reciting the intensity of feeling in India regarding the necessity for a complete revision of the Sevres Treaty, under which the Turks had been expelled from Europe; asserting his belief that the support which the Indian Moslems lent to the Allied cause during the World War "entitled their claims to the completest fulfillment."

This momentous message, which had received the approval of every British provincial administrator in India, was received at London by the Secretary of State, Edwin S. Montagu, at a time when Premier Lloyd George was ill in bed. At the urgent request of Viceroy Reading, and without consulting the British Premier, Secretary Montagu authorized its publication. For this indiscretion he was censured and his resignation demanded.

The dismissal of Secretary Montagu, whose moderate policy in India had displeased a faction in Britain who favored the adoption of a strong policy of repression in India, was followed on March 10th by the arrest of Mahatma Gandhi, the Hindu leader, who for two years had been a thorn in the flesh of the Indian Government.

Events now moved swiftly. A conference of the Allied Foreign Ministers was called at Paris on March 27th, to discuss the proposal to revise the Sevres Treaty. This treaty, though signed two years ago by the European Powers, was not ratified by the Turks. The efforts of the Greeks to enforce its terms precipitated the Greco-Turkish War, from which the Greeks emerged victorious.

Although Lloyd George had declared, in 1916, when asked by the United States to state England's purposes in the World War, that it was England's purpose to liberate the Christian nations subject to Turkey and drive the Turks out of Europe, he was now prepared to repudiate that pledge and the Treaty of Sevres as well.

At the Paris Conference, the Allied Ministers, discarding the Sevres Treaty, drew up a new compact, restoring all Asia Minor, Constantinople, and part of Thrace to the Turks, declaring Armenia a Turkish province, and ordering the Greeks to vacate Smyrna and part of Thrace which they now hold both by right of conquest and by sanction of the Sevres Treaty.

England and Ireland in the year 1921 apparently composed their quarrel of centuries when a treaty was signed giving Ireland the status of a Free State in the community of nations comprising the British Empire. The Irish nation, however, is yet to pass upon this treaty at an election to be held in the near future. The unity of Ireland was unfortunately not secured by this treaty, separate Parliaments having been granted the people of Ulster, representing a fifth of the population, and those of South Ireland, representing the remaining four-fifths. An unfortunate division also occurred among the patriots in the south of Ireland, some advocating acceptance of the Free State, others opposing it.

All India was in revolt against British rule during the year 1921. Instead of armed resistance, the Hindus and Moslems in alliance adopted the bloodless policy of "non-resistance," which included a universal boycott of British schools, courts, councils, the army, all industries and non-payment of taxes. The Hindu leader, Mahatma Gandhi and the Mohammedan leaders, the brothers Ali, were thrown into prison, but their adherents, to the number of 100,000,000 or more, continue to follow the standard of revolt. As a result of the boycott of British goods English importations have fallen off 60 per cent.

Egypt was at last granted the boon of self-government, under the supervision of British officials and with a British army permanently located on Egyptian soil.

Upon the initiative of the United States government, a conference of the Powers was held at Washington, at which agreement was reached upon the question of declaring a naval holiday, limiting the size of the navies, and policing the Pacific. The results of the Conference are given in much detail.



GERMANY, JAN.—AUG.

## Germany Finally Agrees to Pay \$33,750,000,000 in Reparations

German Communistic Outbreaks—Trial of German Officers

SECTION 1—1921

**A**FTER evading for two years the payment of reparations to the Allied Governments, as stipulated in the Treaty of Versailles, Germany was brought to a decision on May 11, 1921, when, under compulsion of the Powers, she agreed to pay a total sum of \$33,750,000,000 for damage caused by the German armies in the World War. Germany's submission was hastened by the receipt of an ultimatum from the Allied Powers, coupled with the declaration of immediate occupation of the whole Ruhr district by a French Army, supported by Allied contingents, if her unconditional acceptance were not received by midnight of May 12th.

Germany at the same time consented to comply with the treaty provisions which required the complete disarmament of her military, naval and aerial forces; the trial of her war criminals, by the High Court at Leipsic; the payment to the Allies within 25 days of 1,000,000,000 gold marks, and payment of \$500,000,000 annually to the Allies, in addition to a sum equal to 26 per cent of the value of Germany's exports until a total of \$33,750,000,000 shall have been paid. In recognition of this total debt, Germany is required to issue bonds bearing 5 per cent interest, which are to be issued from time to time as the Reparations Commission directs, and secured on all the assets of the German Empire. The first issue bears date of July 1, 1921; the second, November 1, 1921; the third is to be held by the Reparations Commission until such time as that tribunal shall be assured that Germany can pay the interest and sinking fund charges.

The Allied Reparations Commission, from time to time since the first session of the Peace Conference, had formulated a succession of reparations plans, all of which had been rejected by the Germans as beyond their utmost capacity to fulfil. The French Government, nevertheless, insisted that Germany could and should be compelled to pay in reparation for her crime against humanity a sum not less than \$56,000,000,000, by a system of annual payments extending over a period of 42 years. In refutation of Germany's whining protest that the payment of so colossal a sum would surely bankrupt her and, perhaps, involve the whole world in financial ruin, it was shown that Germany had retained practically all her wealth intact within her own borders during the war, while the Allied nations had been compelled to borrow enormous sums to carry on the war. Even if Germany should have to pay \$56,000,000,000, as France proposed, still her financial situation would be vastly superior to that of England and France, since the annual war-debt charges and pensions which England must pay during the same period will amount to, perhaps, four times the sum exacted from Germany, while France's financial burden is nine times greater than Germany's!

In order to reach a final decision on the reparations question, a conference was called of the Allied and German Premiers at London, beginning on March 1, 1921. Germany was represented at the conference by no less than nine delegates and 51 secretaries,

with Foreign Minister Simons at their head; the other governments represented were Great Britain, France, Italy, Belgium and Japan. Declaring that Germany could not possibly accept the French proposals, Dr. Simons put forth a counter-proposal, the gist of which was that the Allies should abandon the scheme for payments extending over a long series of years and, in lieu of that, consent to an international loan. Contending that Germany already had paid \$5,000,000,000 (20,000,000,000 gold marks) to the Allies, he declared that the remainder of Germany's obligation did not exceed \$7,500,000,000, which in his opinion was the utmost sum that Germany could pay. As a condition of this offer, however, Dr. Simons demanded the cession to Germany of Upper Silesia, where a plebiscite between the Germans and Poles was pending.

The German counter proposal was summarily rejected. After stating their final terms to Germany—the payment of \$33,750,000,000 in reparations—the Allied Premiers on March 7th served notice on Germany that, if these were not complied with, the penalties would be applied at once. The German delegates, obdurate to the last, at once withdrew from the Conference, leaving London on the following day.

### French Troops Enter Germany

Marshal Foch had been instructed previously to prepare for the occupation of the Ruhr district in Germany by an Allied army. Pursuant to these instructions, Gen. Degouette, the French commander, already had assembled a force of 10,000 French and 5,000 Belgian infantry, together with two squadrons of British cavalry.

With tanks and machine-gun corps in the lead, and with British and French planes fluttering overhead, this Allied Army entered the Ruhr district on March 8th, occupying the cities of Dusseldorf, Duisburg and Ruhrort. These cities were selected for seizure because of their strategic situation. With their occupation the Allies would be in a position to control all the German coal production in that district. It was the avowed purpose of the Allies to place a heavy tax on every ton of German coal in transit.

On March 9th, the Belgian contingent of the Allied Army seized Hamborn, the coaling port of the Thyssen iron works. The American troops stationed on the Rhine took no part in the invasion.

The Allied experts at Paris, meanwhile, were at work on plans for the enforcement of two other penalties imposed upon Germany; namely, the collection of part of the value of German goods sold to Allied countries, and the establishment of control over German customs in the Rhine region. The French government, while disavowing any intention to annex any part of Germany, gave notice, nevertheless of their intention to occupy the whole Ruhr district by May 1st, with or without the support of their allies, if Germany failed to accept the London terms. England and Italy were reluctant to proceed so far, but France was resolute.



### America Withdraws from Reparations Board

Meantime, by order of President Wilson, the American representatives had withdrawn from the Reparations Commission. President Wilson subsequently addressed a special message to the Congress of the United States, recommending that Belgium be allowed to pay her pre-armistice debts to the United States by means of German bonds.

### Other Demands on Germany

The Reparations Commission, on March 16th, served notice on Germany that on or before May 1st, she must discharge the balance of the \$5,000,000,000 payment which she was obligated under the Versailles Treaty to pay for the support of the army of occupation on the Rhine, for the feeding of Germany and for the supplying of raw materials. Also that Germany must, before March 23d, make a first payment of \$250,000,000 in gold on account of the payment of \$2,500,000,000 due. These payments were to be considered as distinct from the reparations payments planned in the Paris accord of January 29th.

### German Government Defiant

President Ebert of Germany, on March 8th, issued a defiant proclamation, declaring that the Allies had imposed terms impossible of fulfillment and with which Germany "must not and could not comply." Denouncing the occupation of German territory as an open breach of the Versailles Treaty, against which the Germans were not in a position to offer resistance, he urged the German people to refrain from inconsidered acts, and promised that "the Imperial Government will not rest until the foreign power yields before our right." Four days later, the Reichstag, by a vote of 268 to 49, passed a resolution approving of the action of the German Government on the reparations question.

### America Refuses to Mediate

The German Government, on April 21st, besought the mediation of the United States. President Harding, in reply, declined to act as arbitrator in the reparations dispute, while consenting to lay before the Allied nations and urge their acceptance of any new and reasonable offer which Germany might deign to submit. Germany thereupon submitted to President Harding an offer to pay the flat sum of \$12,500,000,000 in full reparation for the damage she had caused all nations, coupled with a demand for the removal of all penalties. President Harding lost not a moment in informing the German Government that the new proposals were wholly unacceptable, and advising Herr Ebert to lay before the Allied Governments a more adequate offer.

### New German Cabinet Chosen

On the eve of May 1st, the day fixed for the complete occupation of the Ruhr district, the Council of Premiers, sitting in London, prevailed upon France to defer the proposed invasion for another twelve days in order to give the obdurate Germans a last opportunity to comply with the Allied demands.

The German Cabinet, now evidently at the end of its resources, resigned on May 4th, and was replaced by a Coalition Cabinet, headed by Dr. Julius Wirth, Centrist leader, as Chancellor and Acting Foreign Minister, and by Gustave Bauer, Majority Socialist leader, as Minister of Finance and Vice-Chancellor.

On May 6th, the Allied Premiers dispatched their final terms to the new German Government, coupled with the warning that, if not accepted without reservation by May 12th, the Ruhr district would be invaded and held. Whereupon the new German Government consented to accept the terms unconditionally on May 10th.

### Germany's First Payment of \$250,000,000

The first step toward the payment of Germany's total war indemnity of 135,000,000,000 gold marks was completed on May 30, 1921, when German treasury notes to the value of \$210,000,000, and endorsed by German banks, were handed over to the Reparations Commission, sitting in Paris. The subsequent payments were made in accordance with the terms laid down by the Allies.

### Trial of War Criminals

The German Supreme Court, at Leipsic, began on May 23d the trial of German officers and soldiers accused of the commission of atrocious crimes during the World War. Sir Ernest Pollock, British Solicitor General, represented the Allied governments. The trials proved rather farcical, it being the evident intention of the German authorities to make scapegoats of the lesser officers, charged with atrocious acts, while protecting the higher arch-criminals. In consequence of the acquittal, on July 6th, of Gen. Karl Stenger, on a charge of having ordered the shooting of French prisoners during the fighting on the Western front, in August, 1914, the French Government recalled its judiciary mission from Leipsic.

### Disarming the "Orgesch"

In compliance with the Allied demands, 300,000 Bavarian Home Guards, known as the "Orgesch", were disarmed and disbanded in July.

### More Communist Uprisings

The large industrial cities of Central Germany were the scene in March of Communist outbreaks and strikes. Radical workers in Hamburg seized the Administration buildings; other Communists in Dresden, Leipsic, Rodewisch, and Halle attacked the court houses, city halls, public banks, and police stations. The riots raged for a week, spreading at last to Berlin, where a series of dynamite explosions occurred. Finally there were uprisings throughout the Belgian zone of occupation, the most serious riots taking place in Rheinhausen, Moer, and Crefield. The riots in the Belgian zone were quelled by Belgian troops, German police restoring order in other sections.

### New German Customs Line

The Council of Ambassadors, on April 2d, completed the difficult task of drawing a Customs line between those parts of Germany occupied by Allied troops and the remainder of the country, as stipulated in the London reparations penalty. Unoccupied Germany must pay to the Allies a tax upon all production in the industrial districts under Allied control. Duties were also levied on everything passing from the unoccupied Rhineland into Germany. In retaliation, the manufacturers and mine owners in the Rhenish provinces inaugurated a boycott at Munster of all English, French, and Belgian products.



SILESIA, MAY—AUG.

## “Plebiscite War” in Upper Silesia Between Poles and Germans

Polish Army Thwarts German Plot to Acquire Province by Fraud—League of Nations Finally Arranges Equitable Settlement of the Dispute

SECTION 2—1921

### Disciplinary Army

Inter-Allied Plebiscite Army, 15,000  
 French troops, 10,000  
 Gen. Lerond  
 British troops, 2,000  
 Gen. Henniker  
 Italian troops, 3,000  
 Gen. Alberto de Marinis

### Contesting Forces

Polish Insurgent Army, 50,000  
 Adelbert Korfanty, Leader  
 German Insurgent Army, 20,000  
 Gen. Hoefler, Commander  
 Major von Moltke

UPPER SILESIA, that “lost province” of Poland which Germany had annexed six centuries ago, was the scene in 1921 of a “Plebiscite War” between Polish and German insurgent troops in the first instance, and then, as a disciplinary consequence, between the Inter-Allied Plebiscite Army and the two disputants.

From its small beginnings in a series of sporadic outbreaks between armed bands of Polish and German zealots, the conflict assumed the appearance of civil war. The trouble was suppressed with great difficulty, by the French, British, and Italian troops, in occupancy of the plebiscite area, and only after much bloodshed.

Measured in the scale of modern warfare, the Silesian outbreak would appear a trivial affair, but considered in its political aspects it loomed up as a most portentous occurrence, boding ill for the future peace of Europe. Its immediate political effect was to divide the principal Powers of Europe into two frankly hostile camps, France avowing her sympathy for Poland, and England and Italy both espousing the cause of Germany. In truth, the relations between France and England were greatly embittered, because of the belief, widely prevalent in France, that England had shown, on this and other recent occasions, an undue partiality for Germany and a growing antipathy toward France and her ally, Poland.

Upper Silesia, which covers an area of 5,000 square miles, is considered one of the richest industrial prizes in Europe. Its wealth is principally derived from the coal mines, which are owned by German capitalists, but worked largely by Polish labor. From these mines before the war Germany drew 44,000,000 tons annually, but in 1917 the production fell to 18,000,000 tons, a quarter of Germany's entire supply.

According to the last census, taken in 1910, the Poles formed 65 per cent of the entire population. In certain populous districts of Upper Silesia the Poles claimed 85 per cent of the population, while in other districts, especially in the West, the Germans held in slight preponderance.

### English Premier Favors Germany

When the Peace Conference met at Paris, in January, 1919, to redraw the map of Europe, a Commission on Polish affairs was appointed to investigate and report on the boundaries of the new Poland which the Allies were obligated to create. The report of the Polish Commission, rendered to the Su-

preme Council in March, 1919, recommended the transfer to Poland of the larger part of Upper Silesia.

Only a part of the western district, where the Germans predominated, was awarded to Germany. In the areas allotted to Poland it was estimated that the Poles “seemed to have given sufficient proof of their Polish sentiments and their desire for union with the mother country”, after 600 years of captivity under the Germans. These proposals were incorporated in the terms of peace communicated by the Supreme Council to Germany on May 7, 1919.

The German coal magnates vehemently protested the cession of Upper Silesia to Poland. They found a staunch advocate in Lloyd George, Premier of England, who contended that the loss of Upper Silesia to Germany would prove too great a sacrifice to that nation and not to be permitted unless it was certain that the majority of the population desired union with Poland. He proposed to leave the decision to a plebiscite of the Silesians themselves, and that “in case the vote was in favor of Poland, Germany should enjoy a treaty-right to a certain amount of Silesian coal.” Upon his persuasion, the Supreme Council at last rescinded its former action, so satisfactory to Poland, and ordered that a plebiscite be held in Upper Silesia by districts on March 13, 1921, after the German troops had evacuated the district. This important modification was embodied in the Treaty of Versailles by consent of President Wilson and Premier Clemenceau.

### Sweeping Victory for the Poles

In November, 1919, the annual general elections were held in Upper Silesia, resulting in a sweeping victory for the Poles. They not unreasonably asked the Allied Supreme Council to accept this vote as proof conclusive of Silesia's desire for union with Poland, without holding a special plebiscite, but the petition was rejected. Instead, the Supreme Council, on November 4th, decided to appoint an Inter-Allied Plebiscite Commission for Poland, with General Lerond of France as chairman. The date of the plebiscite was fixed far in the future, for March 20, 1921.

### Plebiscite Commission in Silesia

The Plebiscite Commission, with 15,000 Allied troops at their command, reached Upper Silesia on February 12, 1921, at once taking over the administrative powers and warning the population to refrain from any breaches of the peace.



### German Plot to Win the Plebiscite

The German authorities, who had always insisted on the indivisibility of Upper Silesia, stooped to methods of an illegal nature in their determination to win a favorable decision by the plebiscite. In order to overcome an apparent Polish majority in the entire region, it is alleged that approximately 200,000 Germans, all former residents of Upper Silesia, who had emigrated to various parts of Europe years before, were brought back to Silesia and permitted to participate in a plebiscite, specifically reserved for "inhabitants." Moreover, armed German troops were maintained in the plebiscite region to intimidate the Polish voters.

An agreement was reached between Germany and Soviet Russia, for the massing of Bolshevik troops on the Polish frontier, just before the plebiscite, thus holding the threat of war over the Polish Silesians if they presumed to vote for union with Poland. The German financiers at the same time declared an economic war against Poland, with the avowed purpose of so depreciating the value of the Polish mark, as a means toward discrediting the Polish Government and deterring the voters of Upper Silesia from seeking a union with Poland. This economic conspiracy was so far successful that in December, 1920, the Polish mark fell from its normal value of 20 cents to less than one-quarter of one cent.

The German coal barons at the same time raised the price of coal to 300 German marks a ton, which at the exchange rate of 77 Polish marks for one German mark, brought the price of Silesian coal in Poland up to 23,100 marks per ton—the equivalent of \$5,730 in pre-war values. Since at this time Poland was unable to meet more than a tenth part of her current expenses by revenue or internal borrowing, she was forced to meet the drain on her currency by resorting to the printing press, the Diet sanctioning an increase of note issues to the amount of 55,000,000,000 marks.

Other methods adopted by the Germans to influence the plebiscite were: (1) Promises to make Upper Silesia autonomous if the province remained with Germany; (2) bribery, with money raised for that purpose from "tag" days in Germany; (3) plans to use military force at the last moment if the vote seemed to be going in favor of Poland.

The Polish Commissariat, meantime, had counselled the Polish population to remain calm, warning them that it was part of the German plan to provoke the Poles to rash actions in the hope of bringing on a Civil War.

### Result of the Plebiscite

The Plebiscite was duly held on March 20, 1921, under the auspices of the League of Nations. Its results, however, were not entirely satisfactory, either to Germany or to Poland. The Germans, with the aid of their imported "voters," who were subsequently warned to clear out of Silesia by the 15th of April under threats of arrest or fine, claimed a total vote of 716,408 throughout the province as against a total vote of 471,606 registered by the Poles. In strict justice, however, 65,000 of these votes should have been subtracted from Germany's total, inasmuch as they represented the number that were cast in Leobschütz, a district which was to decide its allegiance as between Germany and Czecho-Slovakia, and not as between Germany and Poland. If a further subtraction of the 200,000 "imported votes"

were made, the Germans would appear to be in a decided minority.

The vote by communes, on the other hand, resulted in Poland's favor, the cities throughout the mining districts of the southeast section voting solidly for union with Poland, whereas the Germans were weak in the cities and strong in the agricultural districts.

Germany, whose chief desire was to retain control in the mining districts, demanded that all Upper Silesia be ceded to her by reason of her apparent, though fraudulent majority vote in the entire province. Poland, on the other hand, contended that the result of the plebiscite, according to Article 88 of the Peace Treaty, was to be determined by communes rather than by a provincial vote, and that those communes which had voted to unite with Poland, should therefore be incorporated at once in the Polish boundaries. The decision of this technical question was finally referred to the Supreme Council, sitting at Paris.

### 50,000 Poles Rise in Rebellion Under Korfanty

While the Poles and the Germans were still awaiting the decision of the Supreme Council, the misleading report spread through Upper Silesia, that the League of Nations had decided to award to Germany, all those Silesian mining districts, which had voted for union with Poland. Color was given to these rumors, by the simultaneous appearance, in the Western Section of Silesia of 20,000 German troops, under command of Lieut.-Gen. Hoefer, formerly a member of the German General Staff and who was subsequently proclaimed military dictator of the district by vote of the German population, at a convention held at Oberglogau on May 24th. The Inter-Allied Plebiscite Army in Silesia, at this time, numbered not more than 15,000 men, of whom 10,000 were French, 3,000 Italian and 2,000 British.

The Polish workmen, throughout the coal mining districts, at once uprose to resist the threatened German military occupation. Including many former soldiers of the Polish Army, and supplied with airplanes, machine guns, bombs and flame throwers, the workmen were organized into an army of 50,000 men. Under the leadership of Adelbert Korfanty, who had but recently resigned his post as Polish Plebiscite Commissioner, the Polish insurgents took possession of the principal towns in the mining area which had cast a majority vote for Poland. By May 4th, the insurgents were in control of the whole region, south of a line running from Kosel to Tarnowitz, with the exception of a few large towns, and were moving northward.

At Gross Strehlitz 3,000 rebels, in a four days' fight, routed 2,000 British troops, and at Rybnik the Italian troops retreated after a gallant resistance against superior numbers. There was sharp fighting also between the rebels and the French at Bethuen, Kottowitz, and Tarnowitz. Before the week ended, the rebels had gained all their objectives.

Both the Inter-Allied Commission and the Council of Ambassadors assured the Polish Government that a decision on the Silesian question had not yet been reached, but the Poles refused to be comforted. Germany meantime was seething with excitement. The German Government, moreover, solicited permission from the Allies to despatch a German Imperial Army into Silesia to put down the Polish uprising, but the request was denied.



## British Premier Demands "Fair Play"

Premier Lloyd George of England, whose anxious solicitude for Germany's weal was a source of gravest concern to France, and whose motives have been in question ever since he "persuaded" the Allied Supreme Council to strip Poland of several of her fairest provinces and bestow them variously upon Germany and Bolshevik Russia, in an ex-parte speech before the British House of Commons on May 13th presumed to attack the Polish Government, upon the suppositious ground that it had extended aid and encouragement to the insurgent Poles. He also disputed Poland's claim to Upper Silesia on historical grounds, declaring it untenable, inasmuch as Germany had imposed her Saxon "Kultur" on Polish Silesia six centuries ago (in precisely the same manner, it may be observed, as England had bestowed her Saxon "Kultur" on Ireland seven centuries ago). The inference was unescapable, that if the conscience of humanity still permitted Tory England to perpetuate her bayonet rule over Ireland in these emancipative days, it must likewise acquiesce in the perpetuation of outcast Germany's bayonet rule over the Polish province of Upper Silesia.

The British Premier, however, did not draw this plain inference; he rested his case rather on the postulate, that the Polish uprising in Silesia constituted "a complete defiance of the Treaty of Versailles," although even here he was treading on very thin ice, for was it not known to the whole world that Germany had been permitted to infringe upon the terms of the Versailles Treaty a score of times since the Armistice, keeping between 500,000 and 1,000,000 soldiers under arms, invading the Baltic provinces at will, preventing the transport of Allied troops across Germany, ignoring the reparations decree, and finally authorizing Gen. Hoefer to rally 20,000 German troops in Upper Silesia, with the undoubted purpose of intimidating the Polish civilians in the "good old Saxon way."

Warning France that "it is going to be fatal to the peace of Europe" if the German coal and iron barons were not forthwith restored in possession of the wealth of Upper Silesia, Premier Lloyd George made a plea for "justice and fair play for Germany," urging that both Germany and Poland abide by the Treaty. To allow the Poles to recover the province which the Germans had wrested from them, and to forbid the German usurpers to take measures to "protect" themselves was, in his view, "discreditable and cowardly." Whatever might happen, he declared, "we cannot accept the Polish occupation of Silesia, as a fact accomplished. That would be to permit a defiance which might lead to consequences of the most disastrous kind, and we do not accept it." Whether he could accept German occupation of Upper Silesia as a fact accomplished, the British Premier did not deign to say. He did, however, propose that German troops—including perhaps the ravagers of Belgium—should be permitted to "take part in restoring order in Upper Silesia", presumably in the same manner as the European Powers had permitted the Turks to "restore order in Cilicia" by massacring the unarmed Christian Armenian populations while Europe averted its guilty face. The British Premier, in conclusion, strongly intimated that France had not done all, that she might have done in preserving order in Upper Silesia.

## French Nation Resent English Attitude

The British Premier's veiled threats and innuendoes were received with much indignation in France. Premier Briand, in his reply, premised that France was in no mood to take orders from any other Power regarding her governmental policies. Never, he said, could the French Government consent to German military forces intervening in Upper Silesia. As head of the French Government, he protested that France had done her whole duty in Silesia, and that her sole concern was to see that the terms of the Versailles Treaty were carried out with justice to all concerned. Other considerations, such as concessions to Germany because that country had accepted the ultimatum, and the claims of certain wealthy German mine owners, should not enter into the question.

If the Polish uprising was not suppressed by the French troops, it was because the French troops in the territory were inadequate. Not all the disorders in that province, in his opinion, were produced by the Poles; German bands also were operating in Upper Silesia, maltreating and arresting Poles. Finally, he defended the Polish Government, declaring that it had fulfilled its duty, by closing the Polish frontier to prevent any further accessions to the ranks of the Polish patriots. Supporting Premier Briand, the French press generally held that Lloyd George was bent on favoring the Germans at the expense of Poland and France.

## Poland Appeals to English Fair Play

Premier Witos of Poland, in his reply to the English Premier, called attention anew to the fact that the Poles were the original settlers of Upper Silesia, and for six centuries they had suffered under the yoke of Germany. Coupled with the fact of original ownership was the right of self-determination of all nations, a principle accepted as just by England during the Great War.

These representations formed the basis of Poland's claim to receive back what was rightly hers. He protested in emphatic terms against Lloyd George's suggestion that German troops be allowed to reconquer Silesia by force of arms, declaring this would be in violation of the Versailles Treaty and insisting that the settlement of the Silesian question be reached strictly according to the terms of the Treaty.

After receiving the assurance of France that German troops should not be permitted to enter Silesia, the Polish Government once again summoned the whole population of Silesia to discontinue the insurrection and to allow the question to be adjudicated by the Supreme Council.

Korfanty himself replied to Premier Lloyd George, in a dignified defense of the motives of the insurgents, closing with an appeal to the British sense of fair play, but to this communication the British Premier made no reply.

The ceaseless attacks appearing in the French press drew from Premier Lloyd George the most presumptuous warning that France's "habit of treating every expression of Allied opinion—which does not coincide with her own as an impertinence, is fraught with mischief," adding that "such an attitude of mind, if persisted in, will be fatal to any entente."

## Poles Appeal to United States

The Polish Ambassador, on May 11th, addressed a note to the United States Government, setting forth



the facts of the Silesian controversy and requesting the United States to "throw their influence in favor of the principles of justice, humanity and the rights of these masses of Polish workmen, by settling the Upper Silesian problem strictly according to the Treaty of Versailles and the result of the plebiscite."

In reply, the Secretary of State, Charles E. Hughes, declined the invitation on the ground that the settlement of the Silesian dispute was a matter of purely European concern, in which this Government should not be involved. "As far as at present may be seen," concluded Secretary Hughes, "the United States representatives in Europe will take no part in the discussions concerning Upper Silesia, and will express no opinion as to the settlement."

#### United States Re-Enters the Council

On May 4th, the Allied Supreme Council adopted a formal motion requesting the United States Government to assist in the settlement of all matters covered by the Treaty of Versailles. Secretary Hughes responded in a note, agreeing to the proposal. Mr. George Harvey, American Ambassador to England, was instructed to assume the functions of representative of President Harding, on the Supreme Council; Ambassador Wallace in Paris resumed his duties on the Council of Ambassadors, and Mr. Roland W. Boyden, who was America's unofficial observer on the Reparations Commission until just previous to President Harding's inauguration, again took his seat in that Commission. In thus resuming active participation in the Allied Council, the United States Government made it clear that it considered neither the Supreme Council, nor the Council of Ambassadors as creatures of the League of Nations, membership in which our Government had definitely declined.

#### France and England Confer

Premier Lloyd George in May invited Premier Briand to consult with him in London with a view to reaching a compromise on the Silesian question. Before accepting the invitation, Premier Briand sought a vote of confidence from the French Parliament. Addressing that body on May 24th, M. Briand pleaded for moderation toward Germany, stressing the point that the alliance with England must not be endangered, and calling attention to the fact that Germany not only had pledged herself to close her Silesian frontier, but had agreed to disband the voluntary German forces, which had been forming throughout the month. After five days of acrimonious debate, the French Parliament, by a vote of 403 to 163, expressed its approval of the Premier's policy, declaring for the strict and loyal execution of the treaty as affecting Upper Silesia, "both in letter and spirit."

On May 28th, Premier Briand advised the British Premier that the Germans were continuing their operations in Upper Silesia and urging that the High Commissioners postpone their decision on the plebiscite question pending the arrival in Silesia, of the British troops then on the way. Furthermore, since it was known that the High Commissioners held conflicting views, he suggested that the Silesian question be referred to a special commission of civilians, lawyers, and diplomats who should communicate their findings to the League of Nations.

#### England and Italy Act in Concert

Meantime, the British and Italian Commissioners

had tacitly agreed upon a plan, for the partition of Silesia distinctly advantageous to Germany and apparently in direct contravention of the terms of the Peace Treaty. Despite the fact that the Polish voters had carried nearly all the mining districts, which the Germans coveted, the British and French Commissioners nevertheless proposed to give Germany outright eleven of those districts, awarding Poland only two communes, those of Rybnik and Pless, and further agreeing to put the ten remaining districts under control of an International Commission. This plan was rejected by France as one which virtually surrendered the most desirable districts of Silesia to the Germans. The French Foreign Office, hoping to devise a fairer plan of partition, appointed a commission to receive and tabulate all information in the case, as a basis for drawing up the complete case of Poland at the coming meeting of the Premiers.

#### German Troops Attack the Poles

The German forces in Upper Silesia, upon learning that six battalions of British troops were then en route to the plebiscite area, seem to have gained the impression that they could count upon British assistance, in their attempt to expel Korfanty's workman-army from the disputed districts. On May 24th, delegates from all the German districts, at a convention held at Oberglogau, proclaimed Gen. Hoefer "Dictator" in Silesia, delegating to him the power "to prevent any further spread of the Polish uprising and to restore order."

With the arrival at Oppeln on May 30th of four battalions of British soldiers, including a part of the famous Black Watch regiment, the Germans and British appear to have prepared to make common cause against the Poles.

Korfanty, on the day following the appointment of Gen. Hoefer as Dictator, addressed a proclamation to the German residents in towns within the plebiscite area, advising them that the Polish circle was being drawn closer around them, and declaring that only their immediate surrender would avert immediate disaster.

The British and Italian troops thereupon expressed their readiness to co-operate if necessary with the Germans in the attempt to expel the Poles "at every cost." As for the French troops, they had failed to make much headway against the Poles, having yielded control of Mystowitz to Korfanty and restricted their policing of Kottowitz to the center of the town.

#### British Officers Lead Germans

Led by British officers, the German offensive against the Poles was launched late in May. East of the Ober, the Anglo-German offensive advanced beyond Gogolin and Kreuzberg, the Poles being forced to retreat.

On May 28th, German troops clashed with the French garrison at Bethuen. The meager reports of this encounter, emanating from German sources, recite that "the German population, clamoring for food, had attacked the railway station at Bethuen, whereupon conflict in which hundreds were killed and wounded."

Following this encounter, the Germans and Poles "fought desperately for three days", and the Poles were forced to give way, particularly at Gross Streh-



litz, where they left 130 dead upon the field, the German casualties being 12 dead and 31 wounded.

### German Troops Refuse to Withdraw

With the arrival in Upper Silesia on June 3rd of Gen. Henniker, commander of the British forces, and who succeeded Gen. Lerond as Commander of the Allied Army, the situation underwent a sudden change. On June 4th, the Inter-Allied Commission served on Gen. Hoefer, commander of the German troops, an ultimatum, threatening to withdraw the Allied troops from the towns in the industrial region, unless Hoefer withdrew his forces from the towns at once. The German Government, which evidently had sanctioned Hoefer's attack on the Poles, immediately protested that the withdrawal of the Allied troops at this juncture would "expose the German population to the brutal horror of a new Polish advance" and make the unchaining of civil war inevitable, as the German self-defense forces would resist to the last. The French and British Governments, in reply, assured the German Government that the Inter-Allied Commission had the situation well in hand, and pointedly asked if the German Government approved the activities of Gen. Hoefer. At Earl Curzon's request, the Berlin Government sent a note to Gen. Hoefer asking him to withdraw his troops out of Upper Silesia, a request which Hoefer declined to obey, though he did promise to cease all attacks on the Poles pending British operations.

### Poles Retreat Before British Advance

Upon assuming command of the Allied Plebiscite Forces on June 7th, Gen. Henniker at once inaugurated a campaign against the Polish insurgents, intending by a wide flanking and frontal push to clear a neutral zone in Upper Silesia. The campaign opened with simultaneous night attacks on Rosenberg, twenty miles northeast of Oppeln, by 1,000 Black Watch Highlanders, and on Gleiwitz by Irish troops. At the approach of the British troops, the Polish insurgents evacuated both cities without offering resistance. Supporting the British advance were many thousands of Germans; indeed, the foreign newspaper correspondents on the ground reported that "the whole German male population and even part of the female population, were streaming toward the Polish fighting front, in every kind of vehicle, garbed in every kind of uniform, and armed with all description of weapons." The English commander, following the example set by his Government, apparently had taken the Germans more closely to his bosom.

### Germans Attack the French and Poles

Soon after the arrival of the British troops, the Germans were emboldened to resume their attacks on the Poles and on the French. There were many small clashes between Gen. Hoefer's forces and French contingents, culminating in the capture or wounding of a score of French soldiers by the Germans at Kalinow. The French Government thereupon served notice on Berlin that it must re-call Hoefer's German troops without a moment's delay. Hoefer, however, again refused to withdraw his troops, while promising to hold them in restraint.

Fighting between the German and Polish nationals meantime had occurred at various points, notably at Ratibon, then occupied by the Germans, which the Poles vigorously bombarded for several days.

### Poles Consent to Withdraw

Early in June, Korfanty consented to withdraw the Polish troops from the Plebiscite area on condition that the Germans also withdraw. In his proclamation to the German Upper Silesians, Korfanty stated that the only wish of the Polish insurgents was to mobilize the economic life of the region, and that but for the irruption of Hoefer's German troops the normal conditions would never have been disturbed. He added that only uniformed and organized police, composed exclusively of Upper Silesians, both German and Polish, should be sent to the cities in the insurgent area, but that the Germans must promise not to be hostile toward the Polish population. The Polish forces proceeded to withdraw, but the Germans refused to follow suit, being determined to seize control in the industrial communes which had voted to cast in their lot with Poland.

### Plan of Withdrawal Agreed Upon

Upon the insistence of the French Government that Gen. Hoefer should withdraw his troops immediately from the neutral zone drawn by the Inter-Allied Commission, Chancellor Wirth of the German Republic in June dispatched a Commission, headed by Baron von Malzahn of the Foreign Office, to Upper Silesia, with instructions to notify Gen. Hoefer that the further refusal of German troops to evacuate the zone would certainly result in French occupation of the Ruhr district in Western Germany, and that as between the two alternatives the German Government preferred to lose Silesia.

With the arrival of this German Commission in Upper Silesia, a new plan for the withdrawal of both German and Polish troops was worked out by Major-General Sir William Henniker, the British Commander, and approved by the Inter-Allied Commission at Oppeln on June 25th. This plan contemplated the progressive evacuation of Polish and German troops by different routes from Upper Silesia. Thus the Poles were required to retire as far as the towns of Gleiwitz and Bethuen by June 28th, while the Germans were to retire northward from the same region by June 30th. The Poles were given five days additional to withdraw from the third zone, evacuating both Bethuen and Gleiwitz, and by July 5th both Poles and Germans were expected to withdraw wholly from the disputed region.

The evacuation was practically completed by July 7th, after several serious clashes had occurred between the belligerent forces. The most serious encounter occurred on July 4th between a section of the German population of Bethuen and the French occupation troops, resulting in the death of Major Montaliere, a French officer, and four Germans. British troops occupied the territory from Bethuen to the Polish border, while the French controlled the Southern district.

Many of the Polish and German troops appeared to be infected with the virus of Bolshevism. Some of the Polish radicals proposed the establishment of a Soviet republic, in Upper Silesia and many of the Bavarians in Gen. Hoefer's army were heard to declare that, after making Upper Silesia "Safe for Germany" they would march on Berlin in the name of "real Germanism" and "clean out that Republican nest there."

### Partition of Upper Silesia

A solution of the Upper Silesian problem was



reached by the Council of the League of Nations in October, and after some bickering was accepted by Germany and Poland. By the terms of this settlement, Upper Silesia is partitioned between the two disputants into two almost equal parts, but the whole province is to remain for fifteen years under the control of the Upper Silesian Mixed Commission. The new frontier line between Germany and Poland follows the Oder River, from Odenburg to Niebstschau, assigning 18 communes in this southern section to Germany and 22 to Poland. Thence it passes in a northwesterly direction, between Rossberg and Birkenbain, as far as Lissau, leaving in German territory 20 communes and in Polish territory 21 communes. Northwest of Lissau, the line coincides with the former frontier of the German Empire, to a point where the latter reaches the frontier already established, between Germany and

Poland under Article 57 of the Treaty of Versailles.

All Germans living in the Polish section, and all Poles living in the German section, who have reached the age of eighteen years, shall be given two years in which to choose their nationality. The German railroads of both sections of the divided country shall be operated for the space of fifteen years with the same rates. Private railroads are left unchanged. Poland agrees to furnish to Germany for fifteen years a proportion of the coal products of the Polish section, and Germany agrees to furnish Poland a proportion of the iron ore products on a similar basis. Raw products passing from one section to the other are to be duty free, and a reciprocal agreement is to be drawn up respecting electric and water supplies. Economic unity is provided for by the establishment of a Mixed Commission appointed by the League of Nations.

INDIA, JAN.—DEC.

## All India Rises in Revolt Against British Misrule

### National Boycott of British Schools, Courts, Army and Industries

### Hindu and Mohammedan Leaders Arrested — Secretary of State for India Resigns

SECTION 3 — 1921

British Military Forces, 330,000  
Gen. Rawlinson, Commander-in-Chief

Hindu-Mohammedan Leaders  
Mahatma Gandhi  
The brothers Ali

**I**NDIA was all aglow during the year 1921 with the spirit of revolt—a spirit which seemed to have pervaded all levels of Indian society, high and low, rich and poor, Moslem and Hindu alike. For the first time since the passing of the Aryan regime, 1500 years ago, India presented the aspect of a united nation. All barriers of caste, creed, and race seemed miraculously to have vanished. Even the Brahmins, oblivious now to caste distinctions, deigned to greet the once abhorred Sudras as compatriots and as brothers. Buddhist and Hindu, Sikh and Moslem, together with the adherents of sixty lesser creeds—all classes of Indians in fact, except the native princes alone, joined hands in a common purpose to establish self-government in India, not by the complete overthrow of British rule, but by compelling England to grant India a dominion form of government within the Empire. Their political ideal was concretely expressed in the formula: "The creation of a new social order in which social life shall be valued above property and profit."

The accepted leaders of the Indian self-rule movement in 1921 were: Mahatma Gandhi, a high-caste Hindu, who was educated for the bar in London, and the brothers Ali, high-caste Mohammedans, also graduates of Oxford University, England. Clothed in cheap cotton garments, and subsisting mainly on crusts, these ardent patriots traversed the length and breadth of India, urging the people to set up their own government under the aegis of the British Empire.

#### British Institutions Boycotted

Though their relations were wholly amicable, as their goals were identical, yet the Hindu and Mohammedan leaders elected to choose opposite methods in advancing the cause of self-rule. Thus the Ali brothers, with the urge of Mohammed ringing ever

in their ears, preached armed resistance to British rule, whilst Mahatma Gandhi as constantly adjured his people to refrain from acts of violence, assuring them that it was possible for India to gain her political independence by the bloodless methods of non-resistance, civil disobedience and the boycott. Because of their incitations to open warfare, the Ali brothers, together with hundreds of their adherents, were thrown into prison, whilst Gandhi, though he never ceased to denounce British misgovernment, remained unmolested, gaining, within a brief period, it is estimated, 75,000,000 adherents to his policy of bloodless revolution.

Gandhi, who is revered as a saint by the Indians, had outlined a perfect program of action, which was subsequently adopted by the Indian National Congress, the Sikh League, and the All-India Moslem League.

After stating his definite object to be the attainment for India of Swaraj, or self-rule through legitimate and peaceful means, he proposed that the Indian peoples unite in boycotting the British-controlled schools, colleges, courts, and councils. As if by magic all the British schools were emptied of their Indian pupils, the students of Bangobasi and Ripon colleges going out en masse. It was Gandhi's avowed purpose to replace these British courts and schools, "which destroy the sense of patriotism and self-respect in Indian students," with Indian courts of arbitration and Indian educational institutions, which will enable the Indian peoples to throw off the "slave psychology", which has been drilled into them under British rule. Eventually the greater number of the students who had left the schools returned to finish their courses; but at the end of the year the official educational report in Bengal stated that some 50,000 students were still out of the schools.



Gandhi subsequently amplified his program by declaring an economic boycott, designed to paralyze the entire British industrial system in India in retaliation for the suppression of Indian industries and commerce by British agents in the 19th century. Workers in the industrial centers, to the number of 5,000,000 were organized, and general strikes were ordered in the postal, telegraph, and railway services. The Hindus and Moslems were then asked to burn publicly all cloths of British manufacture which they possessed, and clothe themselves exclusively in cotton garments of Indian manufacture. In order to make India economically independent, Indian merchants and traders were urged to suspend their trade relations with the British and to encourage among the Indian masses a resort to hand spinning and hand weaving. "Let us have hand-woven cloth and agricultural life as in the old days" was the cry heard throughout India.

In the last session of the Indian National Congress, held at Nagpur, it was voted to exempt the Indian peoples from the payment of further taxes to the British Government, and the Indian soldiers were urged not to recruit in the British army. The outcome of this policy of national civil disobedience was awaited with much anxiety as the new year dawned.

#### Mahatma Gandhi Defies England

Mahatma Gandhi, in an open letter to the British officials, declared:

"This is what the Empire means to India. Exploitation of India's resources for the benefit of Great Britain. An ever-increasing military expenditure, and a civil service the most expensive in the world. Extravagant working of every department in utter disregard of India's poverty. Disarmament and consequent emasculation of a whole nation lest an armed nation might imperil the lives of a handful of you in our midst. Traffic in intoxicating liquors and drugs for the purpose of sustaining a top-heavy administration. Progressively repressive legislation in order to suppress an ever-growing agitation seeking to give expression to a nation's agony. Degrading treatment of Indians residing in your dominions. You have shown a total disregard for our feelings by glorifying the Punjab administration and flouting the Mussulman sentiment. I know you would not mind if we could fight and wrest the scepter from your hands. You know that we are powerless to do that, for you have insured our incapacity to fight in open and honorable battle. Bravery on the battlefield is thus impossible for us. Bravery of the soul still remains open to us. I know you will respond to that also. I am engaged in invoking that bravery." Yet Gandhi did not advocate a complete rupture. "Nobody, as far as I am aware," he declared in February, "wants to end British connection for the sake of ending it."

#### India's New Legislature Opened

The British Government, in its tardy endeavor to stem the rising tide of Indian discontent, had enacted in 1919 a Reform Bill, granting to the Indian people a modicum of self-government through the media of eight Legislative Councils, one for each of the Indian provinces. The first of these Provincial Councils was opened with great pomp on February 8, 1921, by the Duke of Connaught, son of the late

Queen Victoria. On this occasion, and for the first time since British rule in India began 150 years ago, the Indian Princes and the British Rulers met as a consultative body. This Legislative Council, though marking an advance toward self-government in India, yet was unacceptable to the masses, who deem it "far behind the political thought of India." The chief defect of the Indian Reform Bill, in the Enlightened British, as in the general Indian view, is that it "enfranchised the land-owner but not the peasant." It appears that of the 300,000,000 people comprising the population of India, only one in forty, or less than three per cent, were declared eligible to vote. Because of this practical disenfranchisement of the masses of the people, the Hindus contend that control of the Provincial Parliaments will inevitably revert to the native Princes, and aristocrats, all in alliance with the British bureaucrats. Yet the masses of India seemed to be as fully determined to recover their independence as ever were the Fathers of the American Republic. The Indian people registered their antipathy toward British rule by refusing to greet the Duke of Connaught upon his arrival at Delhi, as they subsequently ignored the new viceroy, Lord Reading, when he arrived in India in April, and the Prince of Wales when he visited India toward the close of the year.

#### Peasant Riots in Punjab and Bombay

Peasant riots were epidemic throughout the Punjab district early in January, and many of the rioters were killed or wounded. Another outbreak occurred in Bombay on January 24th, as a protest against the wanton killing of two sacred pigeons by European youths. Several Hindus who had attacked the "vandals" were arrested by the police. A large mob demanded their liberation, whereupon the police fired upon the mob, injuring or killing many of the Hindus.

#### Afghanistan's Treaty with Bolsheviks

Joined to the vast economic unrest in India, during the year 1921, the British Government faced the danger of an uprising on its northern border. Afghanistan having entered into a treaty of alliance with Bolshevik Russia, the Emir of Afghanistan felt emboldened to make many "defiant and impossible demands" on the British Government. Meantime the Nationalist movement, under Mahatma Gandhi's leadership, which aims at the complete overthrow of British rule in India was making rapid headway.

#### Revolt of the Moplahs

Southern India was the scene, beginning in August, of a widespread revolt of the so-called Moplah sect, descendants of all those Arab Mohammedans who invaded and conquered the Malabar district several centuries ago. Alleging that the British troops in that district had organized "a ghastly orgy of massacre", the Moplahs everywhere uprose; tearing up railway lines, destroying post offices, telegraph offices, and seizing British arms and ammunition. The revolt spread like wildfire through the province. Hoisting their emblem, the green flag, at Pallipu, the rebels proclaimed home rule in all the disturbed areas. The British authorities thereupon declared martial law throughout Malabar and a force of British Marines was landed at Calicut to cope with the rebels. Hundreds of Indian rebels have been sentenced by court-martial. The uprising was finally



overcome in January, 1922, with the capture of Kunhammed Haji, leader of the Moplahs, and the voluntary surrender of 38,000 of his adherents, after 4000 of the Moplahs had fallen in battle.

#### India Facing Bloody Revolution

The All-India Congress, called to meet in December, 1921, was outlawed by order of the British officials, and a similar ban was placed on meetings of the Khalifat Associations and other patriotic bodies, in the vain effort to extinguish the spirit of liberty which pervades all India. In retaliation a proclamation was issued by the Nationalist leaders, calling upon loyal natives to assist in protecting all American and European non-combatants from mob violence "during the revolution which was expected to break over all India in December." On December 4th, Lala Lajpat Rai, the Nationalist leader who in August presided over a meeting which resolved not to welcome the Prince of Wales on his visit to India, was arrested.

The Nationalists were reported to be spreading their proclamation by word of mouth. Newspapers having been suppressed in most sections of India, some 50,000 college and high school students, all members of the Nationalist Volunteers, were sent into the country to make known the proclamation and to receive the assurance from the leading citizens of cities and towns that it would be obeyed.

#### Arrest of Gandhi

The arrival of the Prince of Wales in Bombay in December was the signal for a resumption of the national boycott, accompanied by much rioting. The

disorders spread to Calcutta when the Prince arrived in that province. Hitherto the British policy had been along the lines of conciliation, but as the situation had grown quite menacing, the policy was now changed. Declaring the Gandhists a seditious organization, orders issued for the arrest of the leaders and thousands of Gandhi's adherents were thrown into jail. Gandhi, early in February, 1922, offered to postpone mass civil disobedience if the Viceroy would liberate all political prisoners within seven days and restore liberty of association and freedom of the press. The India office rejected the proposal and instead ordered the arrest of Gandhi, who was subsequently sentenced to serve six years in prison.

#### Secretary of State Resigns

In March, 1922, the British nation was startled to learn that Premier Lloyd George had demanded the resignation of Edwin S. Montagu, the popular Secretary of State for India, for his indiscretion in giving premature publicity to a secret proposal of the Government of India, urging the necessity for the immediate revision of the Sevres Treaty, with the purpose in view of restoring the Mohammedans in the greater part of their forfeited European possessions in order to allay Mohammedan discontent in India and Egypt and save those countries to the Empire. Defending his action, Secretary Montagu declared that "over and over again the Government of India had made representations on this subject mainly based on the fact that the Prime Minister's pledge to the people of India had been broken by the Treaty of Sevres."

PERSIA, JAN.—APRIL

## Persians Freed From British Dominance By Bolshevik Aid

Soviet Russia Cancels Persia's Debt, Leaving England in a Dilemma

SECTION 4—1921

PERSIA, after being held in pawn since 1907 as a bankrupt debtor to the British and the Russian Empires, availed herself in 1921 of the proffered assistance of the Russian Bolsheviks in throwing off the foreign yoke and reasserting her independent sovereignty. From the hour when Persia was first reduced to the state of satrapy to the two great European States, the Persian Shah became a mere figurehead, "reigning", it is true, in his palace at Teheran, but carefully conforming his policy to that of his British and Russian mentors. That policy, however, had not always proved acceptable to the Persian people who, like the Britons, cherish the belief that they "never will be slaves."

In February, 1921, as a result of encouragement held out to the Persian patriots by Bolshevik Russia, a Persian Nationalist Army, of 2,500 rifles, commanded by Gen. Reza Khan, took military possession of the Persian capital. After expelling the troops stationed there, they deposed the Shah's Cabinet, set up a government of their own choosing, declared the treaty with England abrogated, and then signed a new treaty with Soviet Russia upon the understanding that it must be ratified within three months.

These developments in the land of Zoroaster, so ominous of the possible "Sovietization of all Asia", cannot be understood apart from their relation to

the century-long struggle between Russia and England for the mastery in the Near East. Possessing India, England desired to annex Persia in order that she might safeguard the western frontier of India. Russia, needing an outlet on the Mediterranean Sea, had sought for a century or more to possess herself of Constantinople, only to be thwarted again and again by England, France, and Germany acting in concert. In 1907, Russia turned her eyes toward the Persian Gulf, hoping to win a passage through Persia to a port on the Indian Ocean. She proposed that England join her in the seizure of Persia. Persia being largely in their debt, the two Powers evolved a plan whereby, under the guise of stabilizing Persia's finances, they would virtually take over the control of the Persian Empire for purposes of exploitation. This was the first stage of that general rapprochement between Russia and England which resulted in the Entente Cordiale. From that year on, until the outbreak of the World War, Persia was held in pawn by the two Powers, the Shah being their echo in all affairs of government.

Russian and English banks were established to control the financial operations of Persia; the post offices, telegraph lines, railroads, and post roads in Persia were operated jointly by the Russians and British, and privileges were exacted which greatly restricted the independence and sovereignty of Persia.



Finally Persia was "policed" by Russian and British military forces, and this item alone is said to have cost the British Empire, from first to last, the colossal sum of \$500,000,000.

In 1915, the second year of the World War, the British Government stipulated for the addition to her "sphere of influence" in Persia of the so-called neutral zone, comprising the districts of Fars, Arabistan, and Luristan, but the Persian Prime Minister, Vosoughed-Douleh, withheld his consent for two years, finally rejecting the proposal in a document bearing the date of January 31, 1917. This was at a time when England and Russia, with their backs to the wall, were not in a position to coerce Persia.

Two months later occurred the Russian Revolution, and with it the declaration of rights of small nationalities, which the Persians hailed as a message from heaven, absolving them from all punishment due to their sinful refusal to comply with the demands of the British Government.

#### Bolshevik vs. British Diplomacy

With Russia fallen, England confidently expected to extend her "sphere of influence" throughout Persia and rule as the sole arbiter of the destinies of the Persian Empire, but these expectations were never realized. In November, 1917, after the Bolsheviks had seized the power of government in Russia, Lenine turned his attention toward Persia, which appeared to him a fertile field for Bolshevik propaganda. How to rid Persia of the British invader was the first concern of the Soviet statesmen. Having at the moment no troops to spare for a campaign in this quarter, Lenine and Trotsky hit upon the ingenious idea of "shaming the British out of Persia." England and Russia, they argued, had occupied Persia in the role of creditor nations—sheriffs, if you like—bent upon enforcing the payment of debts due them, by a helpless state. If now those debts were cancelled, there would be no further moral justification for English or Russian occupancy of Persia. Very well; as the sole autocrats of Russia, Lenine and Trotsky would generously cancel Persia's debt to Russia and withdraw the Russian Imperial troops out of Persia. By a single stroke of the pen, and without the shedding of blood, they would accomplish four important results: They would liberate one-half of Persia from the shame of alien occupation; absolve Persia from liability for at least half of her enormous debts; win the gratitude, perhaps the allegiance, of the Persian nation, and at the same time put England in an uncomfortable dilemma, making her to appear by contrast as a soulless oppressor, a Shylock power, demanding Persia's pound of flesh. Perhaps England might be influenced to follow the generous example set by Russia. Or, failing that result, the Persians might unite with the Bolsheviks and expel the British invaders. That task accomplished, Persia would be rapidly Bolshevized, becoming a mere dependency in the Universal Atheistic Empire which Lenine and Trotsky hoped then and hope still to establish throughout the globe.

#### Russia Abrogates Anglo-Persian Treaty

The Bolshevik plan was put in operation without delay. Lenine made overtures to the Persians, professing friendship for them and promising to withdraw the Russian Imperial troops from their soil at the earliest feasible moment. On January 14, 1918,

the Bolshevik rulers addressed a note to Assad Khan, the Persian Charge d'Affairs at Petrograd, which read as follows:

"The Council of the People's Commissaries (Bolshevik Cabinet) declares the Anglo-Persian agreement of 1907, as directed against the Persian people, once and for all abrogated. The Council likewise declares null and void all agreements, prior and ulterior to the above named, which constitute in any way an infringement upon or a restriction of the rights of the Persian Government to a free and independent existence."

#### The Persian Coup d'Etat

In reply, the Persian Nationalists expressed their sincere thanks to the Soviet Government "for this act of justice." So matters rested for three years or more. On January 15, 1921, a Bolshevik agent appeared in Teheran, with the avowed purpose of effecting the liberation of Persia from British control. Three days after the arrival, the British officials decided to withdraw their troops from Northern Persia. Consternation seized the merchants of Teheran and the official class generally; the Persian Premier threatened to resign; the Shah to abdicate.

On February 20th, Gen. Reza Khan executed his coup d'etat, already described. His Persian Cossacks seized the Persian capital, deposed the Shah's Cabinet, and set up a new government at Teheran.

#### New Treaty with Bolshevik Russia

One of the first acts of the newly installed Persian Government was the abrogation of the treaty of 1907 with Great Britain and Imperial Russia, and the substitution therefor of a new treaty with Soviet Russia. This treaty was signed at Moscow on February 26th with the understanding that it must be ratified within three months.

In the preamble to the new treaty, Soviet Russia declares her wish "to see the Persian people independent, flourishing and freely controlling the whole of its own possessions." To this end Russia declares "all tractates, treaties, conventions, and agreements, concluded by the late Czarist Government with Persia, and tending to the diminuation of the rights of the Persian people, completely null and void." Both nations are guaranteed immunity from use of their territory by a third party aiming to attack either. All the assets and liabilities of the Discount Credit Banks are surrendered to Persia. All the Christian missions in Persia are abolished, their lands and property to revert to the state for the use of "cultural institutions", which is to say, Bolshevik schools for the propagation of atheism. All the foreign-owned railroads, docks, ships, and lines of transportation are handed over to Persia.

Zia-ed-Din, the new Premier, on April 9th, explained the foreign policy of his government to foreign officials, saying that the relations with Great Britain were now completely cordial, owing to the disappearance of the English treaty which had "bred clouds of misunderstanding." On May 1, 1921, the British troops left Teheran just as a diplomatic mission from Soviet Russia entered the city.

The formation of a new Persian Cabinet, under the protection of the League of Nations, was announced by the Persian delegation in London, January 26, 1922. The new Prime Minister is Mochir-ol-Dowleh.



ASIA MINOR, JAN.—DEC.

## Greece, Abandoned By Her Allies, Liberates Asia Minor

Ottoman Empire, Created by the Sword, Finally Perishes By the Sword

SECTION 5—1921

### Greek Forces, 300,000

Gen. Papoulas, Commander-in-Chief  
Gen. Doumanlia, Chief of Staff  
Northern Army, Gen. Polymenakos  
Middle Army, Gen. Metaxas  
Southern Army, Gen. Contoulas

### Turkish Nationalists, 200,000

Mustapha Kemal, Generalissimo  
Rafet Pasha, Field Commander  
Northern Army, Ismet Pasha  
Middle Army, Nar Eddin Pasha  
Southern Army, Selish Eddin Bey

**T**HE martial grit of Greece was the admiration of the world in the year 1921. Though her European allies had forsaken her and meditated her betrayal to the Turks; though her army had fallen into mutiny and her Kingdom into chaos; though her treasury was a vacuum and her credit nil, yet was Greece enabled, nevertheless, to recover her national poise, confound her false friends, and carry her arms forward to glorious and decisive victory in her warfare with the Turks, in Asia Minor.

Recalled to a sense of patriotic duty by the threatening dangers which threatened the national existence of Greece, the discordant factions suspended their bitter political quarrel, the mutinous Legions pledged their loyalty anew, and all Greece rallied in splendid unity to the standard of King Constantine in 1921. After two reverses, the Greek arms at length prevailed against the Moslem foe, and, in the decisive battle of Eski-Shehr, the military power of Turkey was shattered, apparently beyond hope of repair.

With this victory, "the greatest that has ever crowned the Hellenic arms", Greece extended her military sway over the greater part of Asia Minor, purging that apostolic and classic region of the profanation of Turkish misrule and reclaiming for herself and for Christendom a lost dominion equal in area to the whole of Italy. In that hour, the Ottoman Empire as an entity ceased to exist. Created by the sword, it had perished by the sword!

Whilst Greece was coping single-handed with the Turks, her sulking allies, England, France, and Italy, together affected a pose of "strict neutrality," which but masked a reprobate policy of extending moral, if not material support to the Moslem foe. Unassisted, therefore, from without, Greece was impelled to fight, not only for the preservation of her own national life and faith, not merely to rescue millions of captive Christians from the talons of the Turks, but to enforce as well the Treaty of Sevres, which the versatile Premiers of Europe, in emulation of a recent Prussian example, were fain to discard as another "worthless scrap of paper." The Greek victory, therefore, which is here reviewed in detail, implied the discomfiture of European statecraft in covert sympathy with militant Moslemism.

### Allies Desert the Greeks

With the dawn of the new year, Greece had found herself abandoned and apparently marked for betrayal by her erstwhile allies. Hitherto well disposed toward Greece, the three Premiers had taken it as an affront to Europe when the Hellenic people elected to restore his scepter to King Constantine. As a first sign of their common displeasure, they had decreed the erasure of the name of Greece from the roll of the Allied States. The penalty of royal

ostracism was next applied, when the British, French, and Italian envoys to the Court of Athens severally had declined to enter into personal relations with King Constantine and his Cabinet. In further chastisement of the Greek state, and with the evident intention of precipitating its bankruptcy, those "strictly neutral" European rulers hastened to revoke their loan of \$35,000,000 to the Venizelos Government. In anticipation of some such fiscal stratagem, King Constantine's sagacious Cabinet already had taken the precaution to hypothecate the unexpended balance of the Greek loan, amounting to \$16,000,000, a sum which sufficed to cover the immediate needs of the Greek armies in the field.

### Premiers Dishonor the Sevres Treaty

Still imbued with the thought of vengeance, but at the hazard now of their personal honor, the petulant Premiers stooped to the folly of stultifying themselves by their tacit agreement to repudiate the Treaty of Sevres, solemnly ratified by them only a few months before. In thus compromising the integrity of their respective nations, the Premiers had been swayed by a two-fold motive—first, to render Greece politically impotent, by depriving her of those long-lost provinces, which she had regained by sanction of the Treaty, and secondly, to conciliate the Turks, whose star now appeared to them in the ascendant, by permitting the Moslem foe to reoccupy those ceded Greek provinces and flaunt his abominations once again in the face of Christian Europe. Unlike the Prussians, in the Belgian instance, who were at least ingenuous in their pagan disregard for the sanctity of treaties, the three Premiers sought to vindicate their treachery toward an ally with the poor plea that some amendment of the Treaty was imperatively necessary, since Greece, under Constantine, in their opinion, was no longer equal to the task of enforcing its terms. The ineptitude of the plea was only too apparent, for even allowing that the Greek arms seemed at the moment inadequate to the task they had undertaken, still the fact remained that the mere assertion of Greek impotency—a libel which was destined to meet with speedy refutation—could not avail to absolve the European Powers from their moral obligation, as joint authors of the Sevres Treaty, to maintain the Covenant in its full integrity.

The honor of Europe was involved in every provision of that Treaty. Though Greece had utterly collapsed, and the Turks had presumed to reoccupy those ceded provinces, still it was the bounden duty of the Christian Powers of Europe themselves to maintain the Treaty and by the prompt employment of their own armies to insure the permanent exclusion of the Turks from the European scene.



It was not, unfortunately, the upright purpose of the European Premiers either to maintain the Treaty of Sevres or to fulfill their solemn pledge, given to the nations of Christendom, that the Turks should in future be kept segregated within proper Asiatic bounds. Rather was it their weak intention to conciliate the Turks—even as their craven predecessors, the later Roman Emperors, had grovelled before the Goths—by paying tribute to them, in concessions or in cash, for promised immunity from attack whilst they were engaged in the guilty enterprise of exploiting the economic resources of the Near East and at the same time bestowing the doubtful boon of their opiate Kultur upon the enlightened though as yet unfreed races of Asia Minor, Syria, Arabia, Egypt, Mesopotamia, Persia, and India.

#### Constantinople the Great Prize

The European Premiers, in truth, had never ceased to reproach themselves for having so far yielded to the blandishments of Premier Venizelos as to consent to the award of Thrace and Smyrna to Greece. Whilst that astute statesman continued at the helm of the Greek Ship of State, the perpetual fear had haunted them that he would insist also upon the restoration to Greece of her ancient capital, Constantinople, as an essential step in the reconstitution of the Greek Empire. That, however, was the one concession which they were determined to withhold from Greece, for in their view Constantinople is the strategic key to the Near East, and with that key once again in her possession Greece might be tempted to unlock the doors of the Orient. England, by virtue of her assembled battleships, whose guns indeed commanded the city, was the present master of Constantinople and in control as well of the Black Sea shipping, and it was her imperial intention to retain those cardinal advantages.

France and Italy, in their dual role of commercial rivals of Greece and anxious creditors of fallen Turkey, were chiefly concerned for the validity of their newly acquired mandates in Asia Minor and for the security of their loans to the decayed Turkish Government, which had been jeopardized by the Greek occupation of Smyrna and the expulsion of the Turks from European soil. Rather than consent to the re-establishment of the Greeks upon the ruins of the Turkish Empire, the French and Italian money kings would prefer the humiliation of Greece and the exaltation of Turkey, subject, of course, to Turkish acquiescence in their project of acquiring "spheres of economic influence" in Asia Minor, Syria, and Macedonia.

The unexpected recall of their recent enemy, King Constantine, to the throne of Greece, in coincidence with the fall of the friendly Venizelist Ministry, was, therefore, hailed by the Premiers as a providential event, redounding greatly to their advantage, in that it afforded them a plausible pretext for the abrupt severance of reciprocal relations with Greece and the renewal of amicable relations with the Turks. Even before the restoration of King Constantine, the policy of consoling the Turkish foe at the expense of the Greek friend had commended itself to the Premiers. Thus at Sevres the Turkish Treaty had been so amended as to enable the Sultan to retain his sacerdotal seat in Constantinople, though as a cat's-paw chiefly for the British Commissioner who occupied the real seat of authority there.

Subsequently, both France and Italy expressed their willingness to relinquish their mandates for Cilicia and Adalia to the Turkish Nationalist government at Angora if assured of certain economic concessions in Asia Minor and in Syria. One serious obstacle stood in the path of this French-Italian-Turkish entente—the continued occupation of Smyrna by the Greeks. Until the Greeks were driven out of Asia Minor the Turks would not be entirely mollified. Allied pressure was accordingly brought to bear on Greece in the hope of compelling her withdrawal out of Anatolia, but the Greek Army continued to stand its ground. Such was the general situation in the Levant when, at the close of 1920, the Greek nation voted the recall of King Constantine to his throne.

#### Greece a Divided House

The internal situation of Greece, following the restoration, was more or less chaotic. Greece was then as a divided house, shaken to its very foundations by the partisan strife engendered between the adherents of King Constantine and the deposed Premier Venizelos. Many thousand Venizelists, and in particular those numerous Greek nationals living in the Turkish provinces who had been denied a vote on the question of Constantine's restoration to the throne, had resolutely refused to give their allegiance to the new government. The rupture widened when the new Greek Cabinet, in violation of its pledge not to pursue a policy of political reprisals, swept all the Venizelists out of office.

So many magistrates were derobed that, in certain cases, the metropolitan and provincial courts were obliged to suspend their sittings. In both the Army and the Navy, hundreds of efficient officers, all staunch supporters of Venizelos, were summarily removed, and the crews of several warships lying at anchor in the Golden Horn were dismissed en masse for no other apparent reason than their loyalty to the Republican regime.

In consequence of the dismissal of so many popular military and naval commanders, mutiny became rampant in both the Greek Army and Navy. Not only was the Smyrna garrison restless, but many Greek troops stationed in various sectors of the battle line daily deserted in the face of the Turkish foe.

#### Turks Receive a Gift of Rifles

While the Greek Army was thus disintegrating, Mustapha Kemal had strengthened his Turkish Nationalist Army in Anatolia by the addition of 40,000 conscripts whom he was enabled to arm with the rifles surrendered by the Armenians to the French only a few weeks before. Perhaps some day those European statesmen who had coerced the Christian Armenians into laying down their arms before bending their necks once again to the Turkish yoke, will consent to inform a yet puzzled Christendom how it befell that those Armenian rifles had come into the possession of the outlawed Turks on the eve of their new offensive begun against the Christian Greeks.

#### Turks Launch Their First Offensive

Taking advantage of the disorganization of the Greek Army, Mustapha Kemal early in January launched a sudden new offensive in Anatolia. With an army of 100,000 veteran troops he struck hard at the crumbling Greek line, breaking through in



three places on the Broussa sector and occupying in quick succession Bozarjik, Killi, and Kara. The Greek line everywhere gave way. In the ensuing weeks the Greeks, despite their utmost endeavors, were driven steadily westward. A disaster to Greek arms seemed imminent.

#### The "Near East Conference" at London

Convinced that Constantine's routed army had lost all power of recuperation, and that the future of Greece rested solely in their decision, the Premiers quickly arranged a truce between their proteges, the Turks, and their abandoned allies, the Greeks, pending the calling at London on February 21st of a "Near East Conference", to which both the Entente and the belligerent nations were invited to send delegates.

At this conference, which was prolonged well into March, it was proposed so to revise the Treaty of Sevres as to invest the Turks with the civil and military control of Smyrna. This proposal, when subsequently laid before the Greek Parliament, was indignantly rejected, but on March 10th notice was served on King Constantine that the revision of the Treaty should nevertheless proceed along the lines indicated. At the same time, secret commitments with the Turkish Nationalist delegates were signed in London by the French and Italian delegates whereby France agreed to withdraw her military forces from the province of Cilicia, in consideration of the grant to them of certain economic privileges in Asia Minor and in Syria. These secret commitments were subsequently rejected by Mustapha Kemal, who, confident of an early and decisive victory over the Greeks, deemed any peace inadequate which failed to restore the Turks in complete possession of Constantinople as well as of Smyrna and Thrace. England, taking umbrage at the action of France in proposing a separate treaty with the Turks, and fearing that Mustapha, with French assistance, might gain control of Constantinople, now transferred her moral support from Turkey to Greece.

#### Greeks Resume Warfare

King Constantine, however, was not in the mood tamely to submit to the betrayal of Greece by the European Powers. In a decree, dated March 20th, the King called to the colors several classes of Greek Reserves, bringing the army up to a strength of 150,000 rifles, and then prepared for a renewal of warfare against the Turkish Nationalists.

Under the supreme direction of General Papoulas, the Greek battle front was re-established on a line extending from Broussa 120 miles south to Ushak. The Turkish Nationalist forces, numbering 100,000 rifles, were at this time disposed below the Anatolian branch of the Bagdad Railway, on a north-and-south line extending from Geweh through Eski-Shehr and Afium Karahissar to Denizli.

#### Greeks Lose First Battle of Eski-Shehr

The new Greek offensive was launched on March 23d. It was the strategic intention of General Papoulas, after driving a wedge between the Second and Third Turkish Armies, to seize the Bagdad Railway and then destroy the lines leading from Afium Karahissar to Konia, and from Eski-Shehr to Angora. As a preliminary to this operation, he had ordered simultaneous attacks made on the Turkish

wings. The four Greek divisions assigned to the northern sector, between Broussa and Ismid, were ordered to advance on Eski-Shehr, while the two divisions in the southern sector, operating from their base at Ushak, were aiming at Afium Karahissar.

The attack on Eski-Shehr ended in a Greek rout, the four divisions falling back in great disorder as far as Ismid, from which place they were subsequently expelled after losing 4,000 men. The simultaneous attack on the Turkish southern flank by General Contoulis' army corps was attended with partial success. After attaining their first objective, the fortified city of Afium Karahissar, the two Greek divisions had pushed forward in the direction of Angora, the Turkish capital. Their rapid advance had, however, been jeopardized by the unexpected retreat of the northern divisions from Eski-Shehr, which left Contoulis' corps in complete isolation.

Taking advantage of the exposed position of the Greek southern column, a Turkish cavalry corps moved rapidly southward out of Eski-Shehr, intending by a flank movement to cut the Greek communication with Smyrna. Due to the gallant resistance of a single Greek regiment, posted as a flank-guard on the heights of Mourad Dag, this Turkish maneuver ended in failure.

Warned of his danger, General Contoulis, by forced marches, had led his four divisions back to their base, and then had launched a counter-attack. There ensued a sanguinary three days' battle, resulting in the withdrawal of all the Turkish divisions toward Kutahia, probably for lack of ammunition. Viewed as a whole, however, the Greek offensive had miserably failed.

#### Greeks Launch Second Offensive

The Entente Powers, deeming the Greek army incapable of further exertion, now offered their services as mediators between Greece and Turkey. Rejecting the offer, King Constantine appealed to the Greek nation to rally once again to his standard. Greece responded as one man to the King's call. The veterans of the Balkan wars, together with the classes of 1912, 1913, and 1914, were recalled, enabling the King early in June to launch a second grand offensive against the Turks. His army now comprised 300,000 regular and 100,000 reserve troops, while Mustapha Kemal's Nationalist Army numbered approximately 200,000 first-line troops.

The Greek army was variously disposed on four fronts—one division in the Ismid sector, three divisions and a cavalry brigade on the northern or Broussa front, three divisions on Mount Olympus in Bythnia, and six divisions with one cavalry brigade on the southern or Ushak front. The Turks meantime had occupied positions of great strength, their main forces being concentrated in and about the fortified cities of Eski-Shehr, Kutahia, and Afium Karahissar.

#### The Battle of Kutahia

Constantine's second offensive, launched on June 10th, opened with a converging movement by all the Greek forces on the Turkish stronghold, Kutahia, which guards the highway leading to Eski-Shehr and Angora. The northern Greek army, in three divisions, advanced in a southeasterly direction as far as Yenishahr, thirty miles from Broussa, in-



tending to assault Kutahia on that side. At Biledjik the Greeks routed a Turkish force of 5,000 men, taking many prisoners. The southern group, pushing northward out of Ushak, on the third day occupied Guediz, half way to Kutahia. The central group, after descending the western slopes of Mount Olympus to the valley of Adramos, attacked and captured the principal Turkish towns east of Kutahia. The converging movement reached its full development when, on July 16th, the three Greek groups had nearly encircled the city. Though taken by surprise, the six Turkish divisions defending Kutahia nevertheless held firm, even fiercely counter-attacking the Greeks. A most sanguinary battle ensued throughout the night, but with the coming of the dawn the Turks withdrew eastward, along the line of the Bagdad Railway, toward Eski-Shehr, a strongly fortified city situated on the railway which links Constantinople with Angora, the new Turkish capital.

### Turkish Disaster at Eski-Shehr

Vigorously pursuing the Turks on either side of the Bagdad Railway, the Greek forces rapidly closed in on Eski-Shehr. Though fourteen divisions of Turkish infantry and two brigades of cavalry had concentrated in this stronghold, yet the Turks seemed disinclined to give battle to the Greeks within the city itself. On the afternoon of July 17th, the Turkish garrison had moved out from Eski-Shehr to occupy strategic positions on the crest of the long range of fortified hills which encircle the city.

With the arrival on July 21st of the Greek vanguard in the environs of Eski-Shehr, the Turkish guns emplaced on the adjacent heights at once opened fire with wonderful precision and with deadly effect. Then, like the "Assyrian wolves" of old, the Turkish infantry swept down the hillsides to attack the center of the Greek line. The Greeks at first gave ground, falling back to within three kilometers of the city gates.

At this critical juncture, several Greek reserve divisions, which had been deployed around the city at certain strategical points, were summoned to support the Greek center. Greek machine guns were now brought into play, the hail of bullets sweeping the Turkish lines with the force of a hurricane, annihilating in a trice three of the finest Turkish divisions. Then, in relentless charges, the Greek cavalry completed the work of slaughter which the infantry had begun, slaying hundreds of Turks with the sabre. Panic-stricken, the Turks at length turned tail and fled toward the mountains, leaving the Greeks in complete possession of the field. The Turkish losses in this decisive battle of Eski-Shehr were estimated at 15,000 killed and wounded, besides 8,000 in prisoners. The Greek losses were 7,500 killed and wounded, with 2,000 prisoners.

At the conclusion of the battle, General Polymenakos, commander of the northern Greek group, occupied Eski-Shehr in the name of King Constantine.

Before August 1st the Greeks not only had recaptured all the objectives relinquished in April, but they as well had established their communications from Ismid east to Afium Karahissar.

### The Battle of Sakaria River

After retreating 40 miles eastward from Eski-Shehr, the Turks on August 15th had re-formed their line on the right bank of the upper Sakaria River,

between Sivrihissar and Berbazar, athwart the main road to Angora. Toward this new battle line, after a brief rest, the Greek army advanced in three converging columns—one column along the line of the Angora Railway, another due eastward from Said Ghasl, and a third column moving across the salt desert, 112 miles wide, which lies northeast of Afium Karahissar. On August 18th a three days' battle was begun at Gordion (where Alexander the Great had cut the figurative "knot"), 43 miles southwest of Angora. Before night closed in on the scene, the Turks had been driven from their first line trenches with a loss of 4,000 men, an entire Turkish cavalry brigade being annihilated by the same Greek column which had so toilsomely crossed the wide salt desert.

Having advanced too rapidly toward the Turkish second line, the Greek right wing now found itself isolated, and in a surprise attack by the Turks suffered heavy losses in men, besides losing most of its artillery. The Turks then attacked the rest of the Greek line, throwing back the Greek left and center in much confusion.

After a hurried council of war, the Greek General Staff gave orders to withdraw the entire army behind the Sakaria River. This was done at once, the Greek army re-forming on the line Eski-Shehr—Afium Karahissar. During this retreat the Greeks are said to have lost 25,000 men and the Turks 50,000, although no official list of casualties has yet been published.

### Battle of Karahissar

The Turks, thinking to retrieve their several defeats, launched a surprise attack, September 30th, on the new Greek line in the region of Karahissar, using ten divisions of infantry and four divisions of cavalry. After a stern nine days' battle, in which the losses on both sides were heavy, the Turks acknowledged defeat, their whole line falling back in great disorder towards Angora. With this victory the Greeks were justified in claiming that they had destroyed the military power of the Turks.

### Franco-Turkish Agreement

Mustapha Kemal's government at Angora, however, continued to function, and it was invested with a new importance when, in November, 1921, the Angora Grand Parliament ratified a treaty of accord with France, whereby France relinquished to the Turks some of her territory in Cilicia and in Syria in exchange for certain economic concessions granted her. By the terms of this treaty France agrees to withdraw from Cilicia, leaving the Greeks in isolation; a new boundary is drawn between French Syria and Turkey; France is given a concession for the operation of the Bagdad Railway from the Mediterranean to the Tigris River and a lease for 99 years on the iron, chrome, and silver mines of northern Anatolia, adjacent to the Black Sea.

The Franco-Turkish Treaty proved objectionable in part to both the British and the Greek Governments—to the former because it implies the recognition by France of the Government of Mustapha Kemal as the ruling government of Turkey, rather than the Sultan's government at Constantinople, recognized by Great Britain, and to the latter because it portends a Franco-Turkish alliance having for its object the restoration of the Turks in Asia Minor.



### New Turkish Massacres

As the year came to a close, reports filled the world of the wholesale butcheries conducted by the Turks in various parts of Asia Minor. The Turks seemed bent upon carrying out their announced purpose of destroying the entire non-Mohammedan population of the region. Wholesale slaughter of Christian men, women, and children, alternating with the deportation of entire village populations, were among the accusations brought against the Turks.

Specifically it was charged that the entire population of Zeitoun, a city in the Taurus Mountains, had been destroyed by the Turks. At Marsovan, a band of 1,500 Turkish brigands, after looting and setting fire to the town, stripped and bound the girls and women in the streets and flung them into the burning houses.

Thus as the year 1921 passed into history, we find this theater of turmoil in a state of perplexity and anxiety for the future.

### Restoring the Turks in Europe

Although Greece, by the valor of her army and by sanction of the Sevres Treaty, had conquered the Turkish foe, yet her victory was not to the liking of the Allied Powers. England, France and Italy, at the dawn of 1922, were scheming together to utterly repudiate the Treaty of Sevres and restore the Turks

in the European seat from which they had been evicted, delivering the liberated Christian nations once more into the hands of the barbarians. In the hope of placating her rebellious Mohammedan subjects in India and Egypt, England took the initiative in this vicious proposal to set up Turkish rule in Europe and Asia Minor. On March 27, 1922, the Allied Foreign Ministers submitted to the Greek and Turkish Governments a proposal for the revision of the Sevres Treaty upon the following general lines:

Cession of the city and province of Smyrna to Turkey.

Retention of Adrianople by the Greeks.

Equal division of Thrace between the Greeks and Turks.

Demilitarization of the Gallipoli peninsula under Allied guaranties.

Control of the Dardanelles by an international commission.

Recognition of the financial independence of Turkey.

The Ottoman debt to be maintained and confirmed under reserve.

Re-establishment of Turkish nationality and Turkish authority, with Constantinople as the capital.

The whole matter was in abeyance when these lines were written.

EGYPT, JAN.—DEC.

## England Abolishes Her Protectorate Over Egypt

Retaining, However, "Special Interests" Between Herself and Egypt  
Egypt Begins to Function as a Free State After 2,500 Years of Bondage

SECTION 6—1921

THE Tory majority in the British Cabinet succeeded once again in withholding the boon of independence from Egypt in the year 1921. The report of the Commission, of which Lord Milner was the head, recommending that negotiations for a treaty, according self-government to Egypt, be entered into without delay, was laid before Parliament on February 18th. The main features of the Milner plan were summarized as follows:

"Great Britain will recognize the independence of Egypt as a constitutional monarchy, with representative institutions, and Egypt will confer upon Great Britain such rights as are necessary to safeguard her special interests and to enable her to furnish the guaranties which must be given to foreign powers in order that they may be willing to give up to her their rights under the old capitulations.

"An alliance will be concluded between Great Britain and Egypt, provision being made for the continued maintenance by Great Britain of a British military force on Egyptian soil for the protection of Imperial communications. Treaties will be required between Great Britain and the Powers enjoying rights under the capitulations, providing for the virtual transfers of all such rights to Great Britain.

"It having been foreseen that the Foreign Powers would hesitate to waive the rights they enjoy in Egypt under the capitulations still in effect, unless assured that by so doing they would lose nothing substantial, two alternative proposals were drawn up. Both alternatives aim at perpetuating the existing capitulatory rights of foreign nations in Egypt, with this difference, that whereas in the past the foreign nations protected their own rights in Egypt, in the future the sole responsibility for giving effect to these rights will lie with the British High Commissioner. It is granted that "this is a new and great responsibility for Great Britain to take on her shoulders, and one that is likely to involve the British Government in frequent difficulties, not only with the Egyptian Government, but with the Foreign Powers." Finally, it is deemed "very desirable that in the many treaties between Great Britain and Foreign Powers, to which Egypt may or may not be a party, better

and more expeditious machinery should be included for the gradual reduction and limitation of these exceptional privileges."

### Reference to the Dominion Premiers

Although Lord Milner stressed the importance of granting self-government to the Egyptians without delay, the British Cabinet nevertheless withheld their consent, declaring that they preferred to leave the whole matter to the decision of the premiers of the British Dominions when they met in London in the following summer. Disheartened by the non-success of his efforts to secure justice for Egypt, Lord Milner thereupon resigned his commission.

Zaglul Pasha, leader of the Egyptian Nationalists, announced on April 18th his readiness to co-operate with the British Government and with Adly Pasha, the Egyptian Premier, provided negotiations were opened for the purpose of abolishing the British "protectorate", but his suggestion went unheeded, Imperial Britain seemingly having no intention to relinquish so rich a prize as Egypt.

### Riots in Egypt

The temper of the Egyptian populace was evidenced when, on March 10th, Winston Spencer Churchill, the new Colonial Secretary, arrived in Cairo to investigate Arab and Palestine affairs. A large body of Egyptian students had gathered at the station, intending to stage a hostile demonstration. Fearing for Churchill's safety, his train was stopped when a few miles outside Cairo and the



Colonial Secretary finished his journey by motor. In Alexandria, the next day, while attempting to break up an anti-Churchill demonstration, the police were stoned and compelled to flee, after 20 policemen had been injured by stones and nine rioters had received bullet wounds.

Stirred with wrath because the Egyptian Nationalists had been refused representation on the delegation sent to London to discuss the future of Egypt, rioting broke out anew in Cairo and Alexandria on May 22d and 23d. In the Cairo riot one student was killed and many policemen were injured. In Alexandria, 12 Europeans and 36 natives were killed, and 191 persons wounded.

Inasmuch as many Greeks as well as Egyptians were injured in these riots, the view found wide acceptance that the existing arrangements for the protection of Europeans in Egypt were inadequate, and that "very stringent new measures will have to be made to satisfy the demands of France, Italy, and Greece."

Mohammed Fahmy, a leader of the "Young Egyptians," in June, addressed a note to the Council of the League of Nations, asking the European Powers to mediate between Egypt and Great Britain on the issue of granting independence to the dwellers in the Valley of the Nile.

#### Conferences in London

Conferences were held in London, during the autumn months of 1921, between the Egyptian delegates and the British bureaucrats with a view of adjusting the questions in dispute between Egypt and the Empire. The chief obstacle to an agreement on the question of Egyptian Home Rule seemed to lay in the insistence of the British Government on its right to maintain a large British army on Egyptian soil. The Egyptian delegates were equally insistent that the British army should be immediately withdrawn, and that Egypt be granted, not the shadow, but the reality of independence.

The negotiations came abruptly to an end on November 19th without having accomplished their purpose. Thus the year 1921 closed with Egypt's just aspirations for "self-government" denied by the British authorities.

The disappointed delegates to the London Conference returned to their native land with renewed determination to bring about a reality of their national aspirations.

An appeal was made to the British Governor General of Egypt, General Allenby, the man who led the British troops to final victory over the Turks in Palestine. General Allenby received the Egyptian representatives with an open mind, listened to their appeal for justice to their nation.

#### Zaglul Pasha Deported

Early in January, 1922, the leader of the Egyptian Nationalists, Zaglul Pasha, and five of his lieutenants, were deported "to an unknown destination." Thereupon a boycott manifesto was issued by the Nationalist Party, inciting the Government servants to insubordination and strikes. In retaliation, Gen. Allenby ordered the arrest of the signers and the suppression of Nationalist newspapers.

On January 29th, the British Government issued a manifesto explicitly stating its readiness to invite Parliament to terminate the protectorate, to recognize Egypt as a sovereign state and to agree to the re-establishment of an Egyptian Ministry of Foreign Affairs as soon as it was satisfied that England's interests would be safeguarded. Gen. Allenby thereupon returned to England to report on the situation.

#### Egypt Granted Freedom

Marshal Allenby, at a conference with Premier Lloyd George and King George V, urged the granting of autonomy to Egypt, declaring that the only alternative was annexation. The King and the Premier both consenting, Lord Allenby returned to Egypt on March 1st with the offer to abolish the protectorate, support an Egyptian Cabinet, and summon an Egyptian Constitutional Assembly. Great Britain agreed to restrict the free passage of her troops in Egypt to the Suez Canal and the Nile Valley. The House of Commons meantime had voted its approval of the Government's Egyptian policy after enduring the criticism by Liberal and Labor members who demanded the recall of Zaglul Pasha from his place of exile on one of the Seychelles Islands.

Sarwat Pasha, a prominent Nationalist, consented to form a new Cabinet on March 1st, and to serve as Premier and Minister of the Interior and Foreign Affairs, on the following conditions, which were accepted: That the British protectorate should be abolished; that a Constitutional Government responsible to the Egyptian Parliament be formed; that the Egyptian Parliament be elected under a normal regime; that an official delegation be chosen to enter unconditionally into negotiations with the British Government on the subject of the guarantees demanded by the British Empire and European interests in Egypt; and that the same delegation be authorized, equally with the British Government, to examine the future regime in the Sudan.

#### Sultan Fuad Named King of Egypt

The new Egyptian Government functioned for the first time on March 6, 1922, when the Cabinet held its first council in the Abdin Palace at Cairo. At this meeting announcement was made that, upon removal of the British protectorate and the formal recognition of Egyptian independence, the new Constitution provided that the Sultan must renounce his title and be addressed henceforth as King of Egypt.

Sultan Fuad's last official act was the issuance of a rescript, bearing date of March 15th, announcing that Egypt had become an independent and sovereign State and that the Sultan would assume the title of King of Egypt. Simultaneously, the British Ministers notified the nations that Great Britain had abandoned her protectorate over Egypt, but that with respect to Britain's special relations with Egypt, the status quo would be maintained until such time as Egypt herself embodies those terms in a treaty.

Ahmed Fuad was proclaimed King of Egypt on March 16, 1922, the proclamation being accompanied by the firing of salvos of 101 guns in Cairo, Alexandria, and Port Said, and of 21 guns in each of the other provincial capitals. Field Marshall Allenby conveyed to the Egyptian monarch the good wishes of King George V of England.



UNITED STATES—GERMANY, AUG.

## Peace Treaty Between United States and Germany Ratified

United States Refuses to be Bound by the League of Nations Covenant  
Our Country Entitled to Equal Share in Germany's Former Overseas Possessions

SECTION 7—1921

**P**EACE between the United States and Germany at last was concluded, on August 25, 1921, three years after the armistice, when the Treaty defining peace relations between the two nations was signed at Berlin, by Ellis Loring Dressel, Commissioner of the United States, on behalf of the President of the United States, and by Dr. Friedrich Rosen, Minister of German Foreign Affairs, on behalf of the President of the German Republic, both the signers having received full power for the purpose. The resumption of diplomatic relations began with the formal ratification of the treaty.

The Treaty with Germany is in accord with the peace resolution adopted by Congress and approved by President Woodrow Wilson on July 2, 1921.

While the United States had reserved all the rights and advantages specified in the resolution, including those stipulated for the benefit of the United States in the Treaty of Versailles, yet it was thought pru-

dent to insert a specific provision in the treaty to the effect that the United States shall not be bound by any of the provisions of the Treaty which relate to the Covenant of the League of Nations and that no action of the League shall be construed as placing an obligation upon the United States.

The rights of the United States are also reserved to share, upon an equality with the other Powers, in all of Germany's former overseas possessions, including the island of Yap, which Germany renounced in favor of the principal Allied and Associated Powers.

The Treaty further provides that the United States shall not be bound by the several stipulations in the Treaty of Versailles relative to the boundary of Germany, the political readjustments in Europe, the settlements affecting China, Siam, Liberia, Morocco, Egypt, Turkey, Bulgaria or Shantung, or to the establishment of an international labor organization.

IRELAND, JAN.—DEC.

## Ireland Granted a Dominion Status by British Government

The Long Fight for Self-Government at Last Accomplished

SECTION 8—1921

British Military Forces, 100,000  
Gen. Rawlinson, Commander  
Gen. Strickland

Irish Republican Forces, 50,000  
Michael Collins, Commander  
Richard Flaherty, Chief of Staff

**A**FTER more than seven centuries of exploitation and servitude under the harsh rule of Britain, it was the happy destiny of Ireland, in the year 1921, to experience a rebirth of freedom, not, however, to the full stature of independent statehood, but as a free state nevertheless, entitled to take her place in the voluntary association of self-governed nations comprising the British Empire, with her own Parliament, her own Executive, her own Courts, her own Army and Navy, her own customs and invested with supreme control over her own finances.

### Truce and Conference

After five years of constant guerilla warfare between Crown forces and the elusive Irish Army, a truce to hostilities was declared on July 7th, at the instance of King George V, pending a conference at London of the chosen English and Irish leaders, called for the express purpose of "exploring to the utmost the possibilities of a settlement" of the Irish question by peaceable means.

This initial conference was followed by many others held variously at London, Dublin, Belfast, Hythe, but always with the same result, the failure of the conference to find a solution of the question that would be acceptable to the mass of the Irish nation.

### The "Government for Ireland Act"

The prime obstacle to a just settlement of the Irish question lay in the circumstances that the British Government, at the dictation of the Orange lodges of Ulster, had attempted in May, to enforce the "Government for Ireland Act,"—referred to by the Irish people as the "Partition and Plunder Act." It was the apparent purpose of this act to partition Ireland on the old principle of "divide and rule," by foisting upon the nation two Parliaments, one for the benefit of a fraction of the population of a part of a single province, Ulster, and the other for the use of the entire population of the three remaining provinces. It is well to keep in mind the fact that the Ulsterites, or Unionists, comprise but 15%, at most, of the entire population of Ireland, and that the Republicans at three successive elections had registered 85% or more of the total vote—the deduction is easily reached that the apparent intention of the British Government was to promote, not union and harmony, but dissension and discord in Ireland. Moreover, while purporting to bestow upon Ireland the boon of self-government, the Act, nevertheless, withheld from both the Irish Parliaments, by special restrictive clauses, the four elementary functions inseparable from national sovereignty; namely, the right to defend their own territory by their own Army and Navy, the right to raise their own taxes,



the right to control their own external trade, and the right to make their own laws without interference. All these functions, together with the right to secede from the British Empire, whenever they shall elect so to do, are exercised by the British Self-Governing Dominions, but denied to Ireland. Under the "Government for Ireland Act," the British Government denied Ireland the right to a Navy, the right to an Army, the right to control taxation, the right to impose tariffs on imports and the right to legislate for their peoples.

#### Carson Resigns Leadership in Ulster

Sir Edward Carson announced his retirement from the leadership of the Ulster Unionist Party on April 26th, assigning ill health as the reason. Subsequently he was appointed a "Lord of Appeal" in succession to the late Lord Moulton. Sir James Craig succeeded Carson as chieftain of the Ulster Unionist Party.

On May 5th, President de Valera and Sir James Craig held an important conference, in which their respective points of view were interchanged and the future of Ireland was discussed. Sir James afterwards reassured his party that "nothing had been surrendered or would be surrendered," and he further declared that "neither he or any other Ulster loyalist would consent to a republic or any weakening of the ties between Ulster and Great Britain." President de Valera, on the other hand, generously observed that his party "shall never cease to maintain that there is a community interest between our countrymen of the northeast corner of Ireland and our people of the south and west, for all the misunderstandings and prejudices, artificially created for the most part," and as in the eighteenth century, "Ulster felt profoundly her unity with the rest of Ireland, she will do so again."

#### Irish Parliamentary Elections

In the primary elections held on May 13th, for members of the new Parliaments of Ireland, under the Home Rule Act, Southern Ireland once again registered its allegiance to the Irish Republic, by the nomination without opposition of 124 Sinn Fein candidates for seats in the Southern Parliament. Of the number chosen, more than half were then in prison, and the other half were "on the run." At the same time, four Unionist candidates were returned, also without opposition by Trinity College, Dublin.

For the Northern Parliament, 77 candidates were nominated, under these party designations—Unionists, 40; Nationalists, 12; Unionist Laborites, 5.

It would appear from the election results that approximately four-fifths of the entire electorate of Ireland, preferred the establishment of an independent Irish Republic, functioning through a single Parliament, rather than the Dominion form of government with a dual parliamentary status. Inasmuch as the Sinn Fein candidates, previous to the election, had announced that they would refuse to subscribe to the Oath of Allegiance to the Crown, it was apparent that the new Parliament for Southern Ireland, as contemplated by the Home Rule Act, would never be convened, whereas the Irish Republican Parliament under its Gaelic name of Dail Eireann was functioning perfectly.

On the 24th of May, elections were held in the six counties of Ulster Province to return members

for the 52 seats in the Northern Parliament. By methods which were denounced as illegal and criminal, the Carsonites or Unionists apparently carried forty of the seats, as against six for the Nationalists and five for the Sinn Fein Party.

#### Dublin Custom House Destroyed

The Dublin Custom House, an imposing edifice, erected in 1776 at a cost of \$10,000,000, and chiefly utilized in recent years, as the principle seat of the Crown administrative departments, was totally destroyed by fire, as the result of a raid methodically planned by Irish Republican incendiaries, on May 25th. Early in the afternoon, and in plain view of thousands of passers-by, some seventy well-armed Republican raiders entered the building, and after overpowering the guards and officials, made huge piles of all the official documents and records stored there, which they saturated with petrol and then ignited. The fire department was prevented from reaching the building until the fire was beyond control. Auxiliary police having been rushed to the scene in armed cars and tenders, a battle ensued in the adjacent thronged streets, resulting in the death of eighteen civilians, who had been caught between two fires, and the wounding of 106 civilians and four auxiliaries. The battle reached its dramatic climax when incendiaries emerged from the burning building, just before the roof collapsed and under rifle fire from the police. The raiders and their accomplices to the number of 111 were all arrested.

#### Gen. Crozier Denounces Black and Tans

Brigadier-General Crozier, for six months commander of the auxiliary division of the British Royal Irish Constabulary, better known as Black and Tans, resigned his command as a protest against the atrocities which the auxiliaries were encouraged to commit in Ireland. In a public statement, Gen. Crozier asserted that during the six months he held command, "murder, arson, looting, and other forms of terrorism, were practised by the Crown forces, rendering his position impossible and making his resignation imperative."

#### The Ulster Parliament Opened

The Northern Parliament of Ireland was organized on June 7th, in the Council Chambers of the City Hall, Belfast, with Viscount Fitzalan in the chair, and with 175 Government officials and prominent citizens in attendance. Only the 40 Unionist members were sworn in, the 11 Sinn Fein and Nationalist members purposely absenting themselves. Robert William Hugh O'Neil was unanimously elected Speaker of the House of Commons. Premier James Craig was the first member to take the oath. The Northern Parliament was opened on June 21, 1921, by King George and Queen Mary.

#### King George Pleads for Peace

The Royal opening of the Ulster Parliament on June 22nd, was graced by the presence of King George and Queen Mary. In his address to the Parliament, King George made an earnest plea for a speedy reconciliation between the peoples of North and South Ireland, urging "all Irishmen to pause, to stretch out the hand of forbearance and conciliation, to forgive and forget, and to join in making for the land they love a new era of peace, contentment and good will."



### Lloyd George Proposes Peace Conference

Two days after the King had uttered his impassioned plea for peace, Premier Lloyd George invited President de Valera to come to London with any colleague he might select, to attend a conference with the British Government and Sir James Craig, Premier of Ulster, called to "exploit to the utmost the possibility of a settlement," and with "the fervent desire to end the ruinous conflict which has for centuries divided Ireland and embittered the relations of the peoples of these two islands who ought to live in neighborly harmony with each other, and whose co-operation would mean so much, not only to the Empire but to humanity."

President de Valera on June 28th, sent a telegram to Lloyd George in reply, that he and his colleagues "most earnestly desire to help in bringing about a lasting peace between the peoples of these two islands, but see no avenue by which it can be reached, if you deny Ireland's essential unity and set aside the principle of national determination."

Before accepting Lloyd George's invitation, and as spokesman for the Irish nation, Pres. de Valera despatched an identical letter to Sir James Craig, Ulster Premier; Earl Middleton, Southern Unionist; Sir Maurice Dockrell; Sir Robert Woods; and Andrew Jameson, Southern Senator, expressing his wish to confer with them before going to London, in order to learn from them at first hand the views of certain sections of the Irish peoples of whom they were the representatives, and saying he would wait for them in Dublin on July 4th.

### First Conference at Dublin

Sir James Craig declined Pres. de Valera's invitation to a Dublin conference on the ground that he had already telegraphed acceptance to the Prime Minister's invitation to a London Conference. The Dublin conference was, nevertheless, convened on July 4th, and was made the occasion of a popular demonstration, both Sinn Féin and Unionist delegates being warmly welcomed by the Dublin populace. Several members of the Irish Parliament, then in prison, including Vice President Arthur Griffith, and Professor John MacNeill were released in order that a full expression of views might be obtained.

Gen. Jans Christian Smuts, Premier of South Africa, proffered his services as mediator between the Irish Parliamentary delegates and the British Government. Speaking at a dinner in London, Gen. Smuts said the Irish problem was soluble and peace could be obtained if all worked for it.

### Truce Declared in Ireland

At the second conference held in Dublin on July 8th, announcement was made that Pres. de Valera had accepted Lloyd George's invitation to a conference in London. In his letter of acceptance, de Valera said that he was ready to meet and discuss with Premier Lloyd George "on what basis such a conference as that proposed can reasonably hope to achieve the object desired."

On the same day the British Government sent word that arrangements were being made for hostilities to cease from noon July 11. The terms of truce were drawn up on July 9th, and the truce itself became effective on the day indicated. British military patrols were withdrawn from the streets of Dublin and all military operations of the Republican army ceased forthwith. Inasmuch as the truce did

not extend to Ulster, the armed Orangemen of Belfast improved the opportunity to attack the unarmed Catholics. For six days and nights the city was given over to rioting of a most violent character, which ceased on the 14th when the curfew law was enforced, and after 22 persons had been killed and 100 houses destroyed.

### Conference Opens in London

Pres. de Valera, accompanied by Vice Pres. Arthur Griffith and five envoys from the Irish Parliament, arrived in London on July 12th, and were received in conference two days later by Lloyd George. On July 15th, Sir James Craig, the Ulster Premier, arrived in London and after a long interview with Lloyd George, summoned the Ulster Cabinet to London.

These conferences continued at intervals through the summer and autumn without successfully ironing out the differences between the contending parties. Apparently in despair of an amicable agreement, the conferences finally terminated. However, the door was left slightly ajar whereby either party could take the initiative in reopening conversations.

The disappointment of Lloyd George at his failure to establish amicable relations between Ireland and England was apparent, when late in November he opened negotiations for one more conference, evidently prepared to offer to the Irish people what he had repeatedly declared the British Government would never grant. Dail Eireann appointed Arthur Griffith, Michael Collins, Robert C. Barton and Eamon Duggan, plenipotentiaries, to meet the British Premier in a final attempt to bring peace and harmony between Ireland and Great Britain.

The conference was prolonged and wearisome, the parties seemed to be far apart and failure was believed to be at hand, when suddenly the end came in a dramatic manner.

Following an all night session, a treaty was agreed upon and signed at London, Dec. 6th, whereby the "Irish Free State" was created with the Status of the Dominion of Canada.

Since the War, the British Dominions have exercised practically equal rights with England in the control of the foreign policies of the empire. Every great decision on foreign policy being previously submitted to the prime ministers of the Dominions.

The British policy in Germany, in India, in Egypt, in America, etc., being based upon a concerted plan, approved by the Dominion Governments.

Thus as Ireland acquires a Dominion Status she automatically acquires a voice in the foreign policy decisions of the empire; this relation is of utmost importance to Ireland's new position, not only with the British Empire, but with the world.

The treaty was received with enthusiastic approval by the press of both Great Britain and America. The Dominion Parliaments of the British Empire expressed their hearty approval and the Chiefs of State of England's Allies during the War congratulated her on the happy result.

The British Parliament was called into special session, Dec. 14th, to ratify the treaty; and four days later, was prolonged to meet Jan. 31, 1922, to consider legislature with reference to the treaty, in the event that it was ratified by Dail Eireann.

As evidence of good faith the British Government, on Dec. 10th, liberated all Irishmen confined in the



prisons of Ireland. Also announced that all British soldiers would be withdrawn from the Emerald Isle — where they had sojourned for 700 years — as soon as the treaty was ratified.

Dail Eireann convened on Dec. 14th to act upon the treaty. Strong opposition developed. De Valera charged that the plenipotentiaries had exceeded their authority in signing the treaty as it did not provide for absolute independence in accordance with the declaration of the Irish Republic.

The first three days of Dail's deliberations were held in secret, the first public session opening the 19th. As the deliberations developed, strong opposition to the treaty was forcibly expressed; at times the debate became extremely bitter. The treaty was finally ratified on Jan. 7, 1922 by a vote of 64 to 57.

On Jan. 9th, de Valera resigned the presidency of the "Irish Republic" which automatically passed out of existence. The contest over adoption of the treaty, unfortunately, engendered a feeling of bitterness, much to be regretted, when harmony and co-operation should prevail in bringing to a full realization

the aspirations of the Irish people. The Southern Parliament — only technically different from Dail Eireann — proceeded to set up a provisional government, pending elections, to supervise carrying out the provisions of the treaty, taking over Dublin Castle as the Government's headquarters and received into its hands all the powers of governmental functions.

Thus the closing days of 1921 and the dawn of 1922 witnessed the cessation of centuries-old warfare between Ireland and England, through a pact of peace, filled with promise for future amicable relations between the two nations.

The entire responsibility for the government of Ireland now shifts from England to the Irish people themselves, with the sincere hope of the world that the Irish nation will rise to the full measure of their opportunity to establish harmony, peace, happiness and national prosperity. To the accomplishment of this end, Ireland has the sympathy and kindly wishes of the Christian nations of earth.

## THE DISARMAMENT CONFERENCE

**Gigantic Burden of Naval Armaments Lifted From the Nations  
Five Principal World Powers Declare a 10-Year Naval Holiday  
Capital Ships to Be Scrapped by America, England and Japan  
England Surrenders Her Undisputed Supremacy on the Seas  
American and British Navies To Be of Equal Strength  
Four-Power Pacific Treaty Supersedes Anglo-Japanese Alliance  
Japan Finally Consents to Restore Shantung to China  
Use of Submarines Against Merchant Vessels Restricted  
Poison Gas and Liquid Fire Outlawed as Agencies of Warfare**

*"You have written the first deliberate and effective expression of great powers, in consciousness of peace, of war's utter futility, and challenged the sanity of competitive preparation for each other's destruction. You have halted folly and lifted burdens and revealed to the world that the one sure way to recover from the sorrow and ruin and staggering obligations of a world war is to end the strife in preparation for more of it, and turn human energies to the constructiveness of peace." —From President Harding's Closing Address.*

### Summary of the Conference

**T**HE future destiny of the entire world was profoundly affected, and the admirable spirit of mutuality and co-operation which now animates all the righteous nations was gloriously exemplified, by the benevolent and far-reaching results flowing from the Conference for the Limitation of Armaments which opened at Washington on November 12, 1921, at the call of the President of the United States, and came to its formal close on February 6, 1922.



The Conference was unique in history as marking the first occasion in the annals of mankind when, to employ the words of Arthur J. Balfour, "the nations met for the organized negation of their power to make war." It also augured the dawn of a new era when the nine principal naval powers of the world, all of them members of the League of Nations and hitherto unable to allay their several suspicions, found themselves buoyed up by the common hope that, by eliminating their reciprocal fears and sincerely plighting their word, they could eliminate the expectancy of a new war whose imminence was becoming more apparent day by day. Animated by these motives, the conferees consolidated the basis of permanent peace and "accelerated the advent of undivided prosperity to mankind."

The outstanding achievements of the Conference were many. Perhaps the most significant was the agreement by the five principal naval powers to call a halt in the mad rivalry in naval armament which had brought several of them to the verge of bankruptcy and had menaced the peace of the world. A naval holiday, to continue ten years, was proclaimed. Great Britain, for 250 years the undisputed mistress of the seas, resigned her supremacy, consenting to conform her naval strength in capital ships to that of the United States. Japan was restricted to a strength in capital ships not to exceed 60 per cent of the maximum tonnage allotted to the United States and England.

Another notable achievement was the abrogation of the treaty of alliance which has existed for twenty years between England and Japan, but which had perhaps outlived its usefulness, and the substitution therefor of a Four-Power Pacific Treaty, signed by America, Great Britain, France, and Japan, who will guarantee peace in the Pacific. Despite the clause in the Anglo-Japanese treaty, which absolved Great Britain from an obligation to aid her ally in case of conflict between America and Japan, the treaty was regarded as a most dangerous menace to America and had indeed become a barrier against that complete understanding between the two English-speaking countries, and between America and Japan, which the nations most concerned were so solicitous to attain.

China scored a great victory when the nine participating Powers entered into a treaty giving definite assurance of her independence; her territorial and administrative integrity; the maintenance of the "open door"; the abolition of foreign post offices; the withdrawal of all foreign troops; the retrocession of the leaseholds of Kiao-Chau, held by the Japanese, of Wei-hei-wei held by the British and of Kwang-chow-wan held by the French; an increase of tariff rates and a surtax were provided for, which will yield China \$47,000,000 additional revenue yearly. Finally, Japan agreed to return Shantung, wrested from China by the Germans.

One of the severest tests of the Conference was on the question of the outlawry of the submarine as a weapon of naval warfare. England pleaded earnestly, though in vain, for the entire abolition of these "water vipers", offering to scrap her whole fleet of submarines if the other Powers would do likewise, but she stood alone in this respect. All the other Powers, notably France, insisted upon the retention of the submarines, while consenting to prohibit any attacks by them upon merchant vessels.

Absolutely no restrictions were placed on the number of airplanes that may be used in warfare, but the use of poison gases, liquid fire and other noxious agencies of war, was absolutely prohibited.

Two of the failures of the Conference were indicated by the defeat of the proposal to limit auxiliary craft tonnage, and to limit land armaments, due to the strenuous objections of the French delegates.



Nine commissions, conferences, or boards were appointed to deal with the following specific questions:

1. A five-power conference (created by the naval limitation treaty), to meet eight years hence to discuss the question of naval armament anew.
2. A five-power commission to revise the rules of warfare in the light of the World War.
3. A board of reference to consider economic and railway questions in China—what may be called the Open Door Commission.
4. A nine-power commission on "extra-territoriality" rights in China.
5. A special conference to prepare the way for Chinese tariff revision.
6. A separate commission to revise the existing Chinese tariff.
7. A conference of Chinese officials and foreign diplomats at Peking, to meet subject to China's request, in order to determine the procedure under which foreign military or police troops shall be withdrawn from China.
8. A conference of the managers of foreign wireless stations in China and the Chinese Communications Minister, to work out the details of radio regulation.
9. A joint Sino-Japanese Shantung Commission to determine the procedure under which Japan shall restore Kiao-Chau and Shantung rights to China.

The Conference on Disarmament was a conception of President Harding's, who, as far back as July, 1921, had approached the principal naval powers of the world with informal but definite inquiries to ascertain whether it would be agreeable to them to take part in a conference on this subject to be held in Washington at a time to be mutually agreed upon. In this preliminary proposal, the President suggested that, inasmuch as the question of limitation of armaments bore a close relation to Pacific and Far Eastern problems, the Powers especially interested in such problems should undertake in connection with the Conference the consideration of all matters bearing upon their solution, with a view of reaching a common understanding with respect to principles and policies in the Far East. China was also invited to take part in the discussion relating to the Far East problems.

Japan alone among the invited Powers withheld her immediate acceptance, but after the exchange of notes between Tokio and Washington, Japan at length accepted, with the bold suggestion that the Conference "scrupulously avoid" the discussion of questions which might be regarded as "accomplished facts," or "as more properly problems such as are of sole concern to certain particular Powers."

Subsequently President Harding despatched the formal invitations to the Powers, in which the scope of the proposed Conference and the tentative program were outlined as follows:

1. The limitation of armaments, naval and others, which are a menace to the peace of the world.
2. The discussion of Pacific and Far Eastern questions.
3. To formulate proposals to control in the interests of humanity the new agencies of warfare.
4. By a common understanding with respect to Pacific and Far Eastern problems of unquestioned importance, to arrive at a solution through the conference that may serve to promote enduring friendship among the peoples.

## The World's Great Powers Assemble

THE Conference convened on the morning of November 12, 1921, in the Continental Memorial Hall of the building of the National Society of the Daughters of the American Revolution. Delegates from these nine nations were in attendance: The United States, Great Britain, France, Italy, Japan, China, Holland, Belgium, and Portugal. The balcony was filled with members of the House, the Senate and the diplomatic corps.

### President Harding's Address

After prayer had been offered by Rev. Dr. W. S. Abernethy, Pastor of the Calvary Baptist Church,

Secretary of State Charles E. Hughes, acting as pro-tempore Chairman, introduced President Warren G. Harding, who welcomed the members of the Conference in a notable speech, whose keynote may be summarized as follows:

"Gentlemen of the Conference, the United States welcomes you with unselfish hands. We harbor no fears; we have no sordid ends to serve; we suspect no enemy; we contemplate or apprehend no conquest. Content with what we have, we seek nothing which is another's. We only wish to do with you that finer, nobler thing which no nation can do alone.

"We are met for a service to mankind. In all simplicity, in all honesty and all honor, there may be written here the avowals of a world conscience refined by the consuming fires of war, and made more sensitive by the anxious aftermath. I



hope for that understanding which will emphasize the guarantees of peace, and for the commitments to less burdens and a better order which will tranquilize the world. In such an accomplishment there will be added glory to your flags and ours, and the rejoicing of mankind will make the transcending music of all succeeding time."

### America's Proposal to Scrap Ships

The organization of the Conference followed. On the nomination of Mr. Balfour, Secretary of State Hughes was elected permanent Chairman. In his opening address, Secretary Hughes electrified the assemblage with the most concrete, unselfish proposal ever presented to any congress of nations in the world's history; viz, an agreement between America, Great Britain, and Japan for the limitation of naval armament. In submitting the proposal, he premised that the United States was most solicitous to deal with the question upon an entirely reasonable and practical basis, to the end that the just interests of all shall be adequately guarded, and the national security and defense shall be maintained. Four general principles were to be applied, as follows:

1. That all capital shipbuilding programs, either actual or projected, should be abandoned.
2. That further reduction should be made through the scrapping of certain of the older ships.
3. That in general regard should be had to the existing naval strength of the Powers concerned.
4. That the capital ship tonnage should be used as the measurement of strength for navies, and a proportionate allowance of auxiliary combatant craft prescribed.

### Offers to Scrap 30 Ships

After explaining that the United States was completing its naval program of 1916 calling for ten new battleships and six battle cruisers, all of which were in various stages of construction and on which \$330,000,000 had been spent, he said the United States was willing, in the interest of an immediate limitation of armament, to scrap fifteen of these ships, whose total tonnage when completed would be 618,000 tons; to scrap in addition all 15 of the older battleships up to but not including the Delaware and North Dakota, with a total tonnage of 227,740 tons. Thus, if the plan were accepted, the number of capital ships to be scrapped by the United States would be 30, and their total tonnage 845,740 tons.

### What England Must Scrap

The American plan contemplated that Great Britain and Japan should take action fairly commensurate with this action of the United States. Thus it was proposed that Great Britain should stop further construction of the four new Hoods, should in addition scrap her pre-dreadnaughts, second-line battleships and first-line battleships up to, but not including the King George V class; the total tonnage of ships thus to be scrapped by Great Britain being 583,375 tons.

### Japan's Quota

It was proposed that Japan should abandon her program of ships not yet laid down, including four battleships and four battle cruisers; should also scrap three capital ships, one of which, the Mutsu, was already launched, and four battle cruisers, either then in course of construction or for which material had been assembled; should also scrap ten old pre-dreadnaughts and battleships of the second-line up to, but not including the Setsu; the total reduction of Japan's tonnage being 448,928 tons.

### Limit for Three Navies

It was proposed that it should be agreed by the United States, Great Britain, and Japan that their navies, with respect to

capital ships, within three months after the making of the agreement, should consist of certain ships, designated in the proposal, and number for the United States 18, for Great Britain 22, for Japan 10.

The tonnage of these ships would be as follows: Of the United States 500,650, of Great Britain 604,450, of Japan 299,700. In reaching this result the age factor in the case of the respective navies had received appropriate consideration.

### Replacement Stipulation

With respect to replacement, the United States proposed:

- (1) That it be agreed that the first replacement tonnage shall not be laid down until ten years from the date of the agreement.
- (2) That replacements be limited by an agreed maximum of capital ship tonnage as follows:  
For the United States, 500,000 tons.  
For Great Britain, 500,000 tons.  
For Japan, 300,000.

(3) That, subject to the ten-year limitation above fixed and the maximum standards, capital ships may be replaced when they are twenty years old by new capital ship construction.

(4) That no capital ship shall be built in replacement with a tonnage displacement of more than 35,000 tons.

I have sketched the proposal only in outline, leaving the technical details to be supplied by the formal proposition, which is ready for submission to the delegates.

The plan includes provision for the limitation of auxiliary surface combatant craft. This term embraces three classes, viz:

- (1) Auxillary surface combatant craft, such as cruisers (exclusive of battle cruisers), flotilla leaders, destroyers, and various surface types; (2) submarines and (3) airplane carriers.

With the acceptance of this plan, Secretary Hughes declared, the burden of meeting the demands of competition in naval armaments will be lifted and enormous sums will be released to aid the progress of civilization.

### England and Japan Accept

England and Japan both gave their acceptances "in principle" to the bold and concrete American proposals at the second plenary session of the Conference which met in Continental Hall on Tuesday, November 15th. They reserved the right to propose certain modifications in the general plan. Italy and France thereupon insisted that the French and Italian naval question be considered by the Conference before concluding the general question of the limitation of naval armaments of the world.

### Conference Committees Appointed

Formal announcement was made that the work of the Conference would be done through two Committees of the Whole; one composed of the delegates of the five principal nations, viz., the United States, Great Britain, France, Italy, and Japan, to deal with limitation of armament; the other, consisting of all nine nations taking part in the Conference, to deal with details of program and procedure on all matters affecting the Pacific and the Far East. The meetings of these sub-committees were to be held in the Pan American building and were not to be open to the public. Subsequently sub-committees of expert advisers were appointed, to report on each detail of the arms limitation plan as soon as agreement had been reached.

### China's Ten Points

The Conference met in private session on November 16th as a Committee of the Whole on Pacific problems. At this session the Chinese delegates proposed ten general principles to be applied in the determination of the questions relating to China. In the general they demanded the removal of all political, jurisdictional, and administrative restrictions upon the Chinese Republic, and in particular they demanded not only the withdrawal of Japan out of Shantung, but the departure of other nations



from leased ports. Furthermore, the Chinese Government proposed that all nations having secret agreements relating to China must publish them with a view to determining their scope and validity.

In explanation of China's attitude toward the Conference, it was declared that: "The Chinese delegates came with the whole nation at their back to fight, not against a single power or a number of foreign powers, but for principles, long established, generally recognized, but never carried out and once more undermined by the Treaty of Versailles. Those principles foreshadow the peace of the Pacific and the destiny of the world. To uplift them by preserving the integrity and sovereignty of China is, besides preventing the dangerous aggrandizement of a certain Empire, which may operate to the detriment of the world, to preserve the peace of the world, and to prevent the repetition of war."

All the delegates, without exception, expressed themselves as in full accord, in principle, with the Chinese demands, pledging their support to all those solutions that should appear to be best suited to assure the free development of China and to guarantee an equality in footing of the different nations in their efforts to promote the progress of China and of commerce with that country. The view of the American delegates was that some of the ten points were recognized as American policy, some of them were new and had never brought forth an expression, and others would be subject to a technical exposition.

The Chinese question was considered at the session on November 22d, when it was decided to appoint a sub-committee to study Chinese fiscal affairs. The territorial issue was clarified by a statement of Baron Kato that Japan regarded Manchuria as part of China. China's plea that the arrangement entered into in 1842, which prevented her from exacting more than a 5 per cent duty on imports, should be terminated in order that she might increase her revenues, brought the tariff question into the field of discussion. Chinese delegates thought that the removal of the existing restrictions would result in an increased revenue to China of \$200,000,000 annually.

#### Japan Opposes Naval Ratio

The 5-5-3 ratio of capital ships as proposed by Secretary Hughes proved objectionable to the Japanese. Baron Kato, the Japanese Minister of Marine, declared that "because of her geographical position, Japan deems it only fair at the present time that the other interested countries should agree that she maintain a proportion in general tonnage greater than 70 per cent, instead of the 60 per cent allotted to her, and, in vessels of the light cruiser type, she might desire even to approximate that of the greater navies."

The American Government immediately notified Japan that any modification of the program on the lines indicated by Baron Kato was impossible. The British delegates upheld the American contention and also made it plain that before signing a tripartite agreement on naval limitation they would demand the inclusion in the treaty of a provision for the limitation of the navies of France and Italy. In further proof of Britain's good faith when she accepted in principal the Hughes program, the British Admiralty announced that it had notified the Clyde

contractors to suspend all work on the four new capital ships of the super-Hood type.

#### France Opposes Land Disarmament

The subject of land armaments, or military forces, occupied the open plenary session of the Conference held on November 21st. Secretary Hughes premised, that, so far as the army of the United States is concerned, no difficulty presents itself, since it is the traditional policy of the United States to have the regular military establishment upon the smallest possible basis, and as a matter of fact, since the armistice the American Army has been reduced from 4,200,000 to less than 160,000 men. However, the United States fully recognized the special difficulties and apprehensions that existed with respect to military forces abroad, and regarded it as fitting that there should be the freest opportunity for the presentation of views upon the subject.

Premier Briand, replying for France in an address which created a profound impression, declared that the security of France against possible attack by Germany required that she maintain an adequate army. Germany has refused to disarm; she has 7,000,000 potential or actual soldiers who have not returned to civil occupations entirely. Any day Germany may marshal these men for a new invasion of France and Belgium. Germany is industrially organized to resume the manufacture of cannon, machine guns, and rifles on a prodigious scale. The menace to France is apparent. Moreover, Bolshevik Russia, with its standing army of 1,500,000 men, constitutes another menace to France. An alliance between Germany and Russia for offensive warfare is one of the possibilities of the future. Against these secret foes, France must be prepared. However, France is even now preparing to reduce its army by one-half. Beyond that it would not be safe to go.

At the conclusion of Briand's address, the leading nations of the world gave France their virtual assurances that in event of another attack upon her, France could count upon their material aid. The subject of land armaments was then committed for the consideration of the plenipotentiary delegates of the five powers.

#### China's Demands Granted

At a meeting of the Committee on Pacific and Far Eastern Questions, held on November 21st, resolutions were adopted which in the main implied acceptance of the ten principles formulated by China. The resolutions, which were drawn by Elihu Root on behalf of the American delegation, are as follows:

It is the firm intention of the powers attending this Conference hereinafter mentioned, to wit, the United States of America, Belgium, the British Empire, France, Italy, Japan, the Netherlands, and Portugal:

1. To respect the sovereignty, the independence, and the territorial and administrative integrity of China.
2. To provide the fullest and most unembarrassed opportunity to China to develop and maintain for herself an effective and stable Government.
3. To use their influence for the purpose of effectually establishing and maintaining the principle of equal opportunity for the commerce and industry of all nations throughout the territory of China.
4. To refrain from taking advantage of the present conditions in order to seek special rights or privileges which would abridge the rights of the subjects or citizens of friendly States and from countenancing action inimical to the security of such States.

The discussions and results of the Disarmament Conference are summarized in the following paragraphs:



### The Four-Power Pacific Treaty

The abrogation of the Anglo-Japanese alliance was the primary purpose of the agreement known as the Four-Power Treaty, which was concluded at the fourth plenary session on December 10th. This agreement, which it was hoped would supply the basis of permanent peace in the Pacific, pledged the United States, Great Britain, France, and Japan to respect each other's insular possessions, to accept mediation in every case where disputes may arise over these possessions, and to take concerted action if their rights in these island areas should be threatened by any outside power. The duration of the compact was fixed at ten years, and under its terms the Anglo-Japanese Alliance was automatically terminated. Inasmuch as the treaty was subject to the signing of a separate compact between the United States and Japan, concerning the Pacific mandate islands, especially Yap, a reservation note accompanying the treaty embodied these special provisions. It was, however, stipulated that the signing of the treaty shall not be construed as an assent on the part of the United States to the mandates and the mandatory powers respectively in relation to the mandated islands. Unlike the Anglo-Japanese treaty, the four-nation pact imposes no obligation upon the high contracting parties to resort to arms in order to carry out any provision of the agreement. It involves no entangling commitment except the pledge to consult fully and frankly with each other in the case of disputes among themselves, or in the event of outside aggression.

### Fortifications in the Pacific

With regard to fortifications in the Pacific, the United States, the British Empire, and Japan agree that the status quo at the time of signing the treaty shall be maintained in their respective territories. Under this agreement the United States is pledged to suspend all work on its projected fortification of the Philippine Islands, to erect no fortifications whatever on the Island of Guam, or in the Alentian Islands, or in any of its insular possessions in the Pacific, with the exception of the Hawaiian Islands. Great Britain agrees not to fortify Hong Kong and the insular possessions she now holds or may acquire in the Pacific Ocean, except those adjacent to Canada, the Commonwealth of Australia, and New Zealand. Japan agrees not to extend the fortifications already existing in her own islands in the Pacific. As was the case with respect to scrapping new and old warships, America in the matter of fortifications has made the greatest sacrifice of all the nations, for in the event of war with Japan, her nearest effective naval base would be the Hawaiian Islands, with Japan master of all the Pacific Ocean south of the equator.

### The Five-Power Naval Treaty

The miracle of naval disarmament was finally wrought with the adoption on February 1st, at the fifth plenary session, of the Five-Power Naval Treaty embodying these salient features: Abolition of competition in capital ships; a fixed ratio for such ships in the British, American, Japanese, French, and Italian navies; limitation of the tonnage of aircraft carriers; specification of the maximum size and armament permitted to non-capital ships; a special Anglo-American-Japanese agreement to abstain

from further construction of naval bases and fortifications in the islands of the Western Pacific.

In the original American proposals of November 12th these four principles were laid down under which the limitation of capital ship tonnage should proceed: (1) That all capital shipbuilding programs, whether actual or projected, should be abandoned. (2) That further reduction should be made through the scrapping of certain of the older ships. (3) That in general regard should be had to the existing naval strength of the powers concerned. (4) That the capital ship tonnage should be used as the measurement of strength for navies, and that a proportionate allowance of auxiliary combatant craft should be prescribed.

According to this plan America would have retained eighteen capital ships with an aggregate tonnage of 500,650; would have scrapped fifteen capital ships then under construction, representing a total of 618,000 tons, including six battle cruisers and seven battleships on the ways, and two battleships already launched; would have scrapped all the older battleships up to, but not including, the Delaware and the North Dakota, or 227,740, making the total number of capital ships to be scrapped 30, and the total tonnage to be scrapped 845,740. Great Britain would have retained twenty-two capital ships, with an aggregate of 604,450 tons, after scrapping four projected battleships of the Hood type, not yet laid down, representing a total tonnage of 172,000, and nineteen pre-dreadnaughts, second and first-line battleships, with an aggregate of 411,375 tons. Japan would have retained ten capital ships with an aggregate of 299,700, after abandoning her building program for ships not yet laid down, and the scrapping of three capital ships in course of construction, besides four battle cruisers not yet laid down, and all pre-dreadnaughts and battleships of the second-line up to but not including the Setsu—a total of seventeen vessels scrapped, representing a total tonnage of 448,928. In respect to France and Italy, the American proposal stated that "in view of the extraordinary conditions due to the World War, affecting the existing strength of the navies of France and Italy, the proportion of capital ships to be allotted to these nations would be subject to later adjustment."

Due to the contention of Japan that she should be allowed to retain the battleship Mutsu, recently launched and partly built by popular subscription—a claim which was finally allowed—a readjustment of the original plan for both the United States and Great Britain was necessitated. As modified by the treaty, the plan finally adopted may be summarized as follows:

The United States, Great Britain, and Japan are to retain the same number of capital ships as in the original proposals, viz.: The United States 18, Great Britain 22, and Japan 10. For the United States the tonnage figures remain roughly the same, that is, 500,650, but the following changes are provided for: The United States is permitted to complete two ships of the West Virginia type, giving us three of the latest type battleships, but upon their completion we must scrap two of the old ships originally permitted to be retained, viz.; the North Dakota and the Delaware, bringing our total tonnage up to 525,850. Great Britain retains the same ships as in the orig-



inal proposal, except that the Thunderer is substituted for the Erin, thus reducing the original tonnage estimate from 604,450 to 580,450 tons. Great Britain is, however, given the right to construct two new ships of 35,000 tons each, on the understanding that she will scrap the Thunderer, the King George V, the Ajax and the Centurion. When these new ships are completed, the total tonnage for Great Britain will be 558,950.

Japan is permitted to retain the Mutsu, but must scrap the Setsu, and her total tonnage will therefore be 301,320, as against the 299,700 tons originally proposed.

In the case of France and Italy, the principle of approximate parity has been applied. France retains all ten of the ships which she now possesses, representing a tonnage of 221,170 tons, and Italy retains her ten ships with a total tonnage of 182,800 tons. It was held that in view of the reduced condition of the navies of France and Italy, to which no additions were made during the World War, those nations could not fairly be asked to scrap their ships in the proportion in which the United States, the British Empire, and Japan were obliged to scrap their ships. It was estimated that the ships that must be scrapped by the three great Powers represent approximately 40 per cent of the capital ship strength of their navies.

The prescribed process of scrapping the ships was not left to conjecture, special provisions having been inserted to cover the procedure in Part II of the Treaty under Chapter II. Emphasis is laid on Article 4, which fixes the maximum replacement tonnage as follows: United States, 525,000 tons; Great Britain, 525,000 tons; Japan, 315,000 tons; France, 175,000 tons; Italy, 175,000 tons. Special provisions for aircraft carriers were also inserted, this type of ship being specifically defined as "a vessel of war, with a displacement in excess of 10,000 tons standard displacement, designed with the specific and exclusive purpose of carrying air-craft." Under the Treaty terms, these aircraft carriers shall not be designed or constructed to carry a more powerful armament than that allowed to them. Tonnage of this type of vessel had been generally limited to 27,000 tons, but by special arrangement the contracting powers were authorized to build not more than two of these craft, each of a tonnage not exceeding 30,000 tons. It was also provided that any signatory nation might convert two ships slated for scrapping into airship carriers, not to exceed 33,000 tons each.

Provisions of a protective nature, "to insure the faithful execution of the naval agreement," were included in the Treaty. Thus, it is provided that no vessel of war (except capital ships) laid down by any of the contracting powers may carry a gun in excess of eight inches; no vessel slated to be scrapped may be converted into a vessel of war; no merchant ship in time of peace shall be prepared for conversion into a war vessel, other than by such stiffening of decks as may be deemed necessary for the mounting of six-inch guns; no vessel built for any foreign power may exceed the limits laid down in the treaty for vessels of a similar type; no aircraft carrier so constructed may exceed 27,000 tons; information is to be given by any signatory nation of authorization given for the construction of such ships; no such nation shall seize any such ship in process of construc-

tion for a non-signatory nation in the event of war; none of the signatory nations may dispose "by gift, sale or transfer" of any vessel usable as a warship.

The naval treaty, as thus reported and clarified, was approved and adopted by unanimous vote.

### The Shantung Treaty

After thirty sessions invariably ending in deadlocks, China and Japan, on February 4th, reached an agreement on the vexatious question of Shantung. Under this agreement, the former leased German territory of Kiao-Chau is to be returned to China not later than six months from the date of the ratification of the treaty. The details of the transfer of the administration and of public property in the Shantung peninsula are referred for settlement to a joint Chino-Japanese commission. The Government of Japan undertakes to transfer to the Government of China all public properties in the leased territory of Kiao-Chau, whether formerly possessed by the German authorities or constructed by the Japanese authorities during the Japanese administration of the said territory, excepting such properties as are required for the Japanese Consulate and for the benefit of the Japanese community, including public schools, shrines and cemeteries. It is agreed that the entire withdrawal of Japanese troops shall be effected within three months and, in any case, not later than six months from the date of the signature of the compact, while the Japanese garrison at Tsing-tao shall be completely withdrawn not later than three months from the date of the transfer of the territory. It is also agreed that, upon the coming into force of the treaty, the Custom House of Tsing-tao shall be made an integral part of the Chinese maritime customs.

China is to acquire exclusive ownership of the Shantung Railway by purchase, having agreed to reimburse to Japan the actual value of the railway properties, in the sum of 53,406,141 gold marks, which is the assessed value of the railway properties taken by the Japanese from the Germans during the World War, plus the amount which Japan has actually expended for permanent improvements, less a suitable allowance for depreciation. The transfer of the railway properties shall be completed within nine months. Simultaneously with the completion of the transfer of the railway properties, China agrees to deliver to the Japanese Government her Treasury notes running for a period of fifteen years but redeemable at the option of China at the end of five years or any time thereafter upon six months' previous notice. Pending the redemption of the Chinese Treasury notes, the Chinese Government will select and appoint a Japanese subject to the post of traffic manager and another Japanese subject to be chief accountant jointly with the Chinese chief accountant and with co-ordinate functions. These officials shall all be under the direction, control and supervision of the Chinese managing director and removable for cause. It is agreed that the concessions relating to the two extensions of the Tsing-tao-Tsinanfu Railway will be thrown open "for the common activity of an international financial group, on terms to be arranged between the Chinese Government and the said group."

The mines and mining rights which were formerly granted by China to Germany shall be handed to a company to be formed by a special charter of the



Chinese Government, in which the Japanese capital may not exceed the amount of the Chinese capital. Whereas, the salt industry is a Government monopoly in China, it is agreed that the Japanese interests in the salt mines along the coast of Kiao-Chau Bay are to be purchased by the Chinese Government on payment of fair compensation.

Japan declares that she renounces all preferential rights with regard to foreign assistance in persons, capital and material stipulated in the Chino-German treaty of March 6, 1898.

The Shantung agreement closes the long controversy between China and Japan which originated at the Versailles Peace Conference. The Treaty of Versailles, it will be recalled, had confirmed Japan's claim to Germany's lease of Shantung. For that reason the Chinese delegates refused to sign the Versailles Treaty. Subsequently Japan had attempted to effect a settlement with China on her own terms, but China refused to accept the Japanese terms. It was China's reasonable purpose to acquire absolute possession of the Shantung Railway by purchase, paying for it by an issue of her own Treasury notes, but the Japanese insisted on China's accepting a loan from the Japanese banks to finance the transaction, hoping in this way to perpetuate Japan's control over the railroad. Japan, moreover, had insisted that, pending the payment of the loan, Japanese officials should administer the railroad, but China refused to fall into the trap. It was only through the intervention of Secretary Hughes that China and Japan at length consented to discuss the issue in separate negotiations outside the Arms Conference.

#### Chinese Postal System

On December 12th, the Far Eastern Committee adopted a resolution for the voluntary withdrawal of foreign post offices from China on January 1, 1923. The agreement of the Powers gives China facilities for examining the mails to prevent opium smuggling and other contraband, pending the coming into force of the agreement. Notwithstanding that China now has an efficient postal service, it appears that four of the great Powers have maintained and operated many post offices in China, Japan operating 121, France 13, Great Britain 12, and the United States 1. These foreign post offices have their own postage stamps and operate in every respect in direct competition with the Chinese system, and being located at the chief centers of business they are in a position to "skin the cream of China's postal business." As early as 1902 the American Minister at Peking reported to his government that no necessity existed for the maintenance of foreign post offices in China, but the foreign opium smugglers were so strongly intrenched in China that until now they have successfully resisted all efforts aiming at their expulsion.

#### Chinese "Open-Door" Treaty

The Treaty on Chinese Integrity—a nine-power agreement popularly known as the "Open-Door" Treaty—was signed at the seventh plenary session on February 6th, by the American, British, Chinese, Japanese, French, Belgian, Italian, Dutch, and Portuguese delegations for their respective governments. The treaty pledges the nine signatory powers to assist in the rehabilitation of China; not to seek for themselves any unfair or special advantages in

China; to respect China's neutrality; and it further authorizes all or any of them, including China, to call a conference of all the signatories if a situation should arise involving the application of the treaty. A supplementary resolution was also adopted, providing for the establishment in China of a board of reference, charged with the maintenance of the "open-door" principle, as well as a special declaration by China binding her not to alienate any of her territory.

#### Treaty on the Chinese Tariff

The nine-power treaty on the Chinese tariff, unanimously approved at the sixth plenary session on February 4th, is a compact under which the Powers agree that the unjust exploitation of China shall cease. A situation had arisen whereby certain predatory powers continued to deprive China of a part of her customs revenues, the sum allotted to China being far below the nominal 5 per cent to which she was entitled under the arrangement existing since 1843. Resolutions were embodied in the treaty providing for the assembling at Shanghai of a special commission whose duty it shall be to stabilize the Chinese tariff, so as to make it equivalent to 5 per cent ad valorem, instead of 3.5 per cent, as at present. The treaty further provides for a special conference to take steps toward the abolition of the "likin" or internal customs in China, and authorizes the levying of a surtax on all Chinese imports. A readjustment of the specific duties is to be made in four years, and thereafter revisions are to take place every ten years as heretofore. The adoption of this treaty, it is believed, will double the existing revenues of China received from maritime and inland customs. The Chinese delegation explained that their country "looks eagerly toward the earliest restoration of full tariff autonomy."

#### Chinese Eastern Railway

The Far Eastern Committee on February 2d, passed resolutions relating to the future administration of the Chinese Eastern Railway, the gist of which is that "the Powers reserve the right to insist hereafter upon the responsibilities of China for performance or non-performance of the obligations toward the foreign stockholders, bondholders, and creditors of the railroad, which the holders deem to result from the contracts under which the railroad was built and the action of China thereunder and the obligations which they deem to be in the nature of a trust resulting from the exercise of power by the Chinese government over the possession and administration of the railroad."

#### Japan's Twenty-One Demands

The controversy over the twenty-one demands made by Japan on China while the World War was in progress was terminated at the session of the Far Eastern Committee on February 2d, when Japan offered three modifications of the demands, including the withdrawal of Group 5 which had been reserved for further consideration when these demands were forced upon China by an ultimatum on May 25, 1915, following the Japanese seizure of Kiao-Chau from the Germans. The Japanese delegation objected to any revision of the treaties growing out of these demands, which gave Port Arthur and Dalny to Japan under extension of a lease formerly owned by Russia. These treaties, it was said, had been signed



by China and any attempt to revise them "would create a dangerous precedent."

#### Leased Chinese Territories

Following the Japanese cession of Shantung to China, the question of the return to China of other leased territories was the subject of debate before the Far Eastern Committee. The French Government generously offered to restore to Chinese sovereignty the French concession of Kwang-chow-wan, and the British Government consented to return the British concession of Wei-hei-wei. This was an amicable conclusion reached on the whole subject of leased Chinese territories.

#### Commission on Rules of War

A resolution was adopted on January 27th for the creation of a commission of ten members, representing the United States, the British Empire, France, Italy, and Japan, to study the rules of war as affected by the new agencies of warfare. This commission will report its conclusions to each of the Powers represented in its membership, which in turn will thereupon confer as to the course to be followed to secure the consideration of its recommendations by the other civilized Powers.

A special reservation was included, exempting submarines and chemical warfare from the field of inquiry. Secretary Hughes had proposed a parley to revise international war rules in general, but to this the British delegates objected, on the ground that the scope assigned to the proposed commission was "altogether too broad."

#### The Yap Agreement

The United States and Japan reached an amicable agreement with respect to their respective rights in the island of Yap and the other mandated islands formerly the possessions of Germany in the Pacific Ocean north of the equator. It is agreed that the United States shall have free access to the Island of Yap on the footing of entire equality with Japan or any other nation in all that relates to the landing and the operation of the existing Yap-Guam cable or of any cable which may hereafter be laid by the United States or its nationals, each country to be free to operate both ends of its cables, without cable censorship or supervision of operation or messages.

The United States is to be accorded the same rights and privileges with respect to radio-telegraphic service as with respect to cables, but it is provided that so long as the Japanese Government shall maintain on the Island of Yap an adequate radio-telegraphic station, co-operating effectively with the cables and with other radio stations on ships and shore, without discriminating exactions or preferences, the exercise of the right to establish radio-telegraphic stations at Yap by the United States or its nationals shall be suspended.

Rights of residence without restriction and rights of acquisition and enjoyment and undisturbed possession upon a footing of entire equality with Japan or any other nations are guaranteed.

#### Mandated Islands of the Pacific

The United States consents to the administration by Japan of all the mandated islands in the Pacific, north of the equator, subject to the above provisions with respect to the Island of Yap, and subject to the

further condition that the mandatory shall see that the slave labor is prohibited and that no forced labor is permitted "except for essential public work and service, and then only for adequate remuneration."

It is also provided that the traffic in arms and ammunition shall be controlled; that the supplying of intoxicating beverages to the natives shall be prohibited; that the military training of the natives, otherwise than for purposes of internal police and the local defense of the territory shall be prohibited; that no military bases shall be established or fortifications erected in the territory; that complete freedom of conscience and the free exercise of "all forms of worship which are consonant with public order" shall be guaranteed; that missionaries "of all such religions" shall be free to enter the territory, to erect religious buildings, and to open schools throughout the territory, but with this reservation, "that Japan shall, however, have the right to exercise such control as may be necessary for the maintenance of good order and good government. Japan agrees that vested American property rights will be maintained and respected."

The privileges extended to missionaries will reopen more than one hundred Christian schools in the mandated islands, enabling the continuation of Protestant and Roman Catholic missionary work. Under a ruling of the League of Nations, the Japanese had closed these Christian mission schools and established their own secular (pagan) instruction in accordance with the educational laws of Japan.

#### Revealing Chinese Treaties

Two vitally important resolutions, affecting the "open-door" principle, and intended to prevent in future any secret commitments by any Power in China, were adopted on January 21st. The first, proposed by Secretary Hughes, required the revelation by the participating powers of all treaties, conventions, exchange of notes, or other international agreements which they may have with China, or with any other Power or Powers in relation to China, which they deem to be still in force and upon which they may desire to rely. Every treaty of the character described which may be concluded hereafter, shall be notified within sixty days of its conclusion to the Powers who are signatories of or adherents to this agreement.

The nationals of the several Powers are also required to file, "at their earliest convenience," for transmission to the participating Powers, a list of all their contracts and the Chinese Government which involve any concession, franchise, option, or preference with regard to railway construction, mining, forestry, navigation, river conservancy, harbor works, reclamation, electrical communication, or for the sale of arms or ammunition, or which involve a lien upon any of the purviews or properties of the Chinese Government or of any of its administrative subdivisions.

The Chinese Government agrees to notify every treaty agreement or contract, of the character indicated in the resolution, which has been or may hereafter be concluded by that Government, or by any local authority with any foreign Power or the nationals of any foreign Power. The Governments of all unrepresented Powers, having treaty relations with China, are invited to adhere to this agreement.



The second resolution, presented by Elihu Root, bound the signatory Powers not to support any agreement by their nationals with each other designed to create spheres of influence or to provide for the enjoyment of exclusive opportunity in designated parts of China.

China herself was the first nation to register with the Conference a secret treaty which she had concluded with Russia in May, 1896. The Russo-Chinese treaty was secretly negotiated after the Treaty of Shimonoseki which terminated the Chino-Japanese war. On that occasion Japan had seized the southern portion of the Liaotung Peninsula, in which Dalny and Port Arthur are situated, but in view of the threatening attitude of France, Russia and Germany, she subsequently withdrew therefrom. Russia thereupon proceeded to occupy Dalny and Port Arthur, an intrusion which provoked Japan to declare war against Russia, the result being an Asiatic victory. The Russo-Chinese treaty, which bound the contracting parties to support each other reciprocally by all their land and sea forces in case of any aggression directed by Japan against Russian territory in Eastern Asia, China, or Korea, terminated in 1911.

#### Radio Stations in China

A resolution was adopted, January 27th, transferring to China any radio station maintained in the territory of China by a foreign government or citizens thereof without the authority of the Chinese Government, to be operated under the direction of the Chinese Ministry of Communications upon fair and full compensation to the owners for the full value of the installation.

#### The Siberian Question

The question of Japan's withdrawal out of Siberia, which had been considered one of the most delicate of all the questions before the Conference, was settled almost without debate when, on January 23d, the Japanese delegation declared that it is the fixed and settled policy of Japan to respect the territorial integrity of Russia and to observe the principle of non-intervention in the internal affairs of the country, and closing with the assurance that the Japanese Government will evacuate Russia as soon as she shall have received from a stable Siberian Government assurances of protection for the lives and property of Japanese nationals, a promise that Bolshevik propaganda over the Siberian border shall cease and an indemnity for the massacre of 700 Japanese at Nikolaievsk, but pending the settlement of these questions she will occupy certain points in the province of Saghalin.

#### Submarines, Poison Gas, Airplanes

The treaty in which the Powers elected to retain the submarine as a desirable weapon of naval warfare, while prohibiting its use as a destroyer of neutral commerce, was signed at the last plenary session on February 6th. America, from the outset, advocated the retention of the submarine as an integral part of all navies, and Secretary Hughes, in estimating the quotas of submarine tonnage to which the five principal Powers were entitled, had allotted 90,000 tons each to the United States and Great Brit-

ain, 54,000 tons to Japan, and 30,000 tons each to France and Italy.

Great Britain, on the contrary, with a vivid memory of how nearly she had been starved into surrender when Germany's submarines had sunk some six million tons of her shipping, strongly urged that the submarine be forever outlawed and abolished, contending that in the event of war occurring between, say France and England, the former nation could by the free use of submarines "destroy the very existence of England."

Secretary Hughes, out of deference to the British opinion, consented to a revision of the original submarine quotas allotted to the five leading Powers, proposing that only 60,000 tons each be allotted to the United States and Great Britain, 31,500 tons each to France and Japan, and 21,000 tons to Italy.

Admiral de Bon, on behalf of France, definitely refused to accept a submarine quota of less than 90,000 tons, on the grounds (1) that the submarine is effective as an instrument of defense for small nations when menaced by a large nation, (2) that it had proven its worth as a means of attack against warships as in the protection of coasts, (3) that the misuse of submarines in war by Germany consisted not in those attacks on enemy merchant craft, which were permissible under the existing rules of war, but rather in illegal attacks on neutral merchant ships, hospital ships and passenger vessels carrying non-combatants, which are now prohibited by the terms of the new treaty. The consensus of opinion was that the submarine should be retained as a weapon of warfare and that France and Japan were entitled to submarine quotas equal in tonnage to those allotted to the United States and Great Britain.

The signatory powers at length decreed that no merchant vessel may be attacked unless it shall have refused to submit to visit and search after warning and even then may not be destroyed unless the crew and passengers shall have been first placed in safety. Curiously, however, a rule was adopted making liable to trial and punishment "as if for an act of piracy," any person in the service of any of the signatory powers who shall violate any of the rules adopted, "whether or not such a person is under orders of a governmental superior."

This rule would appear to be in conflict with a fundamental principle of military life, which requires obedience on the part of inferior to superior officers. Under this rule, if any submarine commander should carry out the orders of his superiors in violation of the compact, he would render himself liable to be treated as a pirate by the signatory powers, while on the other hand, should he refuse to obey the orders of his superiors, he would almost certainly be tried and condemned to death by court-martial.

In strict justice, therefore, it would appear as if the government officials who issued the piratical orders, rather than the obedient commanders of vessels despatched on piratical duty, should be held responsible for the violation of the laws of nations.

The use in war of asphyxiating, poisonous or other gases, and all analogous liquids, materials and devices, is prohibited forevermore.

The conferees rejected any attempt to limit aircraft, but limits were fixed for aircraft carriers.



# Who Won the War?

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IT has been recorded by English writers and publicly expressed by some British officials, that credit for the victorious results belonged to Britain. British forces wrought marvelously on both land and sea, as has been clearly set forth throughout the foregoing pages; no unbiased mind, however, acquainted with the facts, could justly claim preference for His Majesty's forces, though splendid were their accomplishments.

France has never claimed credit for the great victory, though her valiant army displayed a degree of valor on the field of battle unsurpassed in the history of nations. French and Belgian soil suffered irreparable ravages from the enemy's assault, as evidenced by the desolation of 2000 demolished cities, towns, and vast areas of devastated regions extending from the Swiss border to the Belgian coast.

America has never claimed that she won the war, but it must be admitted by every informed, unprejudiced mind, that the U. S. Navy and the American Army were the deciding factors in bringing the enemy to his knee in frantic appeal for mercy.

In the Spring of 1917, when our Government dispatched Admiral Sims to London, the British Premier and his associates in power, confessed to the American Admiral, that England could not "hold out four months longer," against Germany's submarine campaign — that the enemy had destroyed "double the amount of tonnage" that the British officials had dared to make public, and that unless "immediate help" was forthcoming the British Empire was doomed.

Then followed those marvelous operations of the U. S. Flotilla — laying off the 130-mile barrage in the North Sea, and practically exterminating the U-Boat menace.

The U. S. Navy belted the Globe. Our warships operated in the White Sea, within shadow of the North Pole, in the North Sea, around the British Isles, along the coast of France, Spain, Portugal, Italy — throughout the Mediterranean and Adriatic Seas — patrolled the North Atlantic and South Atlantic coasts, Gulf of Mexico, and Caribbean Sea — guarded the Panama Canal — traversed the waters of the Pacific and South Seas, and co-operated with the Japanese and other Allied craft in Asiatic waters from Manila to Vladivostok. The United States Navy, in the amazing brief period of a few months, grew from 342 to 2000 vessels, 834 of which were in European service.

When the forces of the Allied nations were being overwhelmed by a powerful enemy — when the black clouds of despair and defeat were hanging heavily over the cause of righteousness — it was in this critical hour, that the American Army came to Europe's rescue, turning inevitable defeat into a glorious victory.

It was America that insisted upon a unification of the Allied forces, under one commander-in-chief, whose masterful strategy in maneuvering the combined armies of the Allied and Associated Powers, brought forth a signal victory for humanity, and the preservation of Christian civilization.

The following three chapters, which reveal America's contribution to the liberation of Europe from the deadly grasp of a tyrannical foe, will be illuminating to the reader.

They set forth the wonderful accomplishments of the U. S. Navy — the rapid growth and splendid achievements of the American Army, and the stupendous financial contribution of the United States, in comparison with the cost to the other nations in the colossal struggle.



# U. S. NAVY MASTERS SUBMARINE PERIL

England Rescued From Her Appalling Crisis by the U. S. Flotilla

American Sub-Chasers First Effective Weapon Against U-Boats

American Convoy System Proves the Salvation of Cargo Ships

Laying the North Sea Barrage, Supreme Naval Feat of the War

U. S. Navy Excelled in Naval Guns, Wireless and Scientific Devices

ON sea as on land, resourceful America stood forth as the decisive factor in determining the final result of humanity's war with Germany and her companions of darkness. Had it not been for the timely, masterful, intelligent participation of the United States Navy in the great war, Germany must inevitably have realized all her naval ambitions: To rule the waves, to sweep the last vestige of Allied shipping from the seven seas, to starve all Europe into submission, and to prevent at all hazards, the transport to France of the American Army—that invincible Army, which was destined to humble the Kaiser's legion and compel Germany's surrender.

Entering the war when the submarine crisis had reached its height, when control of the northern seas or subseas had passed from England to Germany, when the humbled naval power of Britain acknowledged itself impotent to check the piratical activities of the German submarines, when the losses of merchant vessels had mounted to the staggering aggregate of nearly one million tons a month, and when, by admission of the British Admiralty, England must choose between starvation or complete surrender, if the prevailing cargo losses continued four months longer—in this appalling crisis, the United States Navy confidently assumed the burden of the Allies, fighting the submarines with scientific precision, escorting the cargo ships in safety through the danger zones, insuring both England and France adequate food supplies, establishing enormous aviation bases in France, Ireland, and Italy, guarding the transports which carried two million American soldiers to France without the loss of a single life, developing new weapons of naval warfare, and at last overcoming the German submarine menace, by laying a marvelous mine barrage across the North Sea, a distance of 230 miles, which closed the seas to Germany. This achievement, exclusively American, was acclaimed as "the greatest innovation in naval warfare known to history."

With the arrival, off Queenstown, of the first contingents of the Atlantic Fleet, naval warfare in British waters took on a new character. Our superb Destroyer Squadrons, instead of waiting to be attacked, carried the war to the enemy. From pursuers the German submarine became the pursued. The relentless pursuit was not halted until the last German submarine had been blown to atoms or penned up in one of the several German bases.

The protection of Allied and neutral cargo ships was the imperative and perpetual concern of the United States Navy. Until the arrival of Admiral

Sims' fleet, these cargo ships had been left to shift for themselves on the high seas. The British destroyers, their natural protectors, had been employed, for the most part, as shields for the battle ships of the British Grand Fleet, far up in the North Sea, or in safeguarding the English coast. This neglect to safeguard the cargo ships had resulted in those stupendous ship losses which so dismayed the world. Upon the initiative of Admiral Sims, with the reluctant consent of the British, the merchant ships thenceforth sailed in convoys of eight vessels each, being escorted through the restricted zone principally by American destroyers. With the adoption of the convoy system the ship losses fell almost at once from 900,000 to 300,000 tons a month, and before the year ended the aggregate monthly losses had fallen to 100,000 tons.

## American Scientists to the Rescue

Behind our matchless Navy was mobilized the inventive and industrial genius of the nation, comprising practically the whole body of American scientists and manufacturers. It was to these scientists the Navy looked, for the creation of new weapons of naval warfare. Nor did they look in vain. One of the most effective weapons employed in the pursuit of the submarines, was the American Sub-Chaser, an entirely new type of boat, only 110 feet in length, which was devised to meet an emergency calling for the production in quantity, at the earliest possible moment, of a small, speedy and seaworthy vessel to supersede the destroyers. It was from the decks of these Chasers that most of the depth bombs were dropped which spelled the doom of many German submarines. Many hundreds of these little "naval wasps" were supplied to our Allies.

Other notable triumphs of American inventive genius, in alliance with the United States Navy, were: The listening devices, which enabled the commanders of our vessels to detect the presence and exact location of an enemy submarine, though twenty miles distant; and the new type of mines used in the North Sea barrage.

The thrilling story of the decisive part played by our Navy in the World War is herewith summarized, with acknowledgments to both Admiral Sims and Secretary Daniels, who have supplied much of the data for this chapter.

## Navy Ready for War in 1915

Two years before the United States declared war against Germany, the preparations necessary to be made by the bureaus and officers of the Naval De-



partment, to insure a state of preparedness for war, already were under way. On March 13, 1915, Admiral George Dewey, then chief of the General Naval Board, had submitted to the Department complete war plans, corrected up to date for the information of the Fleet. Copies of these plans were then laid before each bureau, with instructions to comply with their requirements. In July, 1915, two years before our declaration of war, Secretary Josephus Daniels had invited Thomas A. Edison and twenty other eminent engineers, scientists, and inventors to apply their minds to the subject of naval efficiency, in particular urging them to devise some effective method for combating German submarines. On October 7, 1915, Secretary Daniels directed the General Naval Board to prepare a five-year building program for the Navy on an estimate of \$100,000,000 each year for new construction. At about the same time, and with the sanction of Secretary Daniels, plans were prepared by Admiral Blue for an increase of the personnel of the enlisted men in the Navy from 54,000 to 100,000. In a word, two years before our entrance into the World War, the Navy was being put in readiness for its immediate participation.

#### Navy Prepared for Action in 1916

It is no longer a secret that all necessary plans to mobilize the Atlantic Fleet were completed one year before America was drawn into the great maelstrom. On April 27, 1916, following the sinking of the *Sussex*, and shortly after President Wilson had served his ultimatum on Germany, requiring the Imperial Government to "immediately declare and effect an abandonment of its method of submarine warfare against passenger and freight-carrying vessels" under penalty of the severance of diplomatic relations with the German Empire altogether, the Navy Department sent secret mobilization plans to every ship of the Fleet. The rendezvous of the Fleet was designated as Chesapeake Bay. It so befell that the Fleet was not required to proceed to the rendezvous, the German Government having promptly pledged itself to "do its utmost to confine the operations of war, for the rest of its duration, to the fighting forces of the belligerents." A year later, when Germany so rashly withdrew her solemn pledge to the United States Government, our whole Navy had been brought to such a state of preparedness that only a word was required to mobilize it for war.

#### Admiral Sims Sent to London

Rear Admiral W. S. Sims, then stationed at Newport as President of the Naval War College, was summoned to Washington in the latter part of March, 1917, and after being informed that "it seemed probable we should soon be at war with Germany," was ordered to take passage for London, there to get in touch with the British Admiralty and "learn how we could best and most quickly co-operate in the naval war." America being still technically at peace with Germany, Rear Admiral Sims was cautioned to avoid publicity. His instructions were: "To sail on a merchant vessel, traveling under an assumed name, to wear civilian clothes, and to take no uniform." Two days later, traveling incognito as "V. J. Richardson," and accompanied by Commander J. V. Babcock, his aid, who was listed as "S. W. Davidson," Rear Admiral Sims secretly boarded the American steamship, *New York*, bound for Liver-

pool. Before the ship reached England, our Congress on April 7th had declared war against Germany. In the outer harbor of Liverpool, the ship struck a mine, sustaining such damage as necessitated the transfer of the passengers to another steamer. Reaching port in safety, Rear Admiral Sims was joyfully welcomed by Rear Admiral Hope of the British Admiralty and escorted by special train to London.

#### England's Appalling Crisis

Rear Admiral Sims was astounded to learn, upon his arrival in London, that, in the British Admiralty view, "Germany was winning the war, at such a rapid rate, that meant the unconditional surrender of the British Empire within four or five months." The tonnage losses, both British and neutral, due to German submarine attacks, "were three and four times as large as those indicated by the purposely misleading statements which had been published in the press." The sinkings officially reported in April indicated the total destruction for that month of nearly 900,000 ship tons. "It is impossible for us to go on with the war if losses like this continue," observed Admiral Jellicoe. "The Germans will win unless we can stop these losses—and stop them soon." Asked if there was no solution for the problem, Jellicoe replied, "Absolutely none that we can now see."

With ship losses approximating one million tons a month, it was believed that the British limit of endurance would be reached probably by November 1, 1917, and Great Britain then "would be compelled to lay down her arms before a victorious Germany." Since the beginning of the war, not more than 54 German submarines were positively known to have been sunk, and the German shipyards were turning out new submarines at the rate of three a week. There was a scant six weeks' supply of food remaining in British warehouses. Unless the situation were at once relieved, Britain must choose between starvation or surrender. Not only were the British Isles menaced, but "the supplies and communications of the forces on all Allied fronts were threatened."

#### Torpedo Flotilla Ordered to Sail

On April 6, 1917, five months after the declaration of war on Germany by the United States Congress, Commander J. K. Taussig of the Eighth Destroyer Division of the United States Navy, then stationed at Base 2 in the York River, Virginia, received a signal from the *Pennsylvania*, flagship of the Atlantic Fleet, bidding him to "mobilize for war in accordance with the Department's confidential mobilization plan of March 21st." After fully complying with this order, Commander Taussig on April 14th was ordered to take his flotilla of six ships to Boston and there fit out for "long and distant service." Ten days afterwards, on April 24, the Eighth Destroyer Division sailed from Boston under sealed orders. Commander Taussig was ordered to proceed to Queens-town, Ireland, reporting there to the senior British naval officer present, and thereafter co-operating with the British Navy, in every way possible in the protection of commerce near the coasts of Great Britain and France. Besides the Wadsworth, Commander Wadsworth's flagship, the vessels comprising the squadron were: The *Conyngham*, the *Porter*, the *McDougal*, the *Davis*, and the *Wainwright*.

Arriving without mishap at Queenstown, May 4th,



Commander Taussig received warm messages of welcome from Admiral Jellicoe, First Sea Lord of the British Admiralty, and from Vice-Admiral Bayly, the British officer who was to direct the combined operations of the British and American Destroyer Fleets during the ensuing eighteen months. Asked when he would be ready to go to sea, Commander Taussig replied: "We are ready now, sir." Four days were given the American commander to complete all necessary repairs to his ships. Though the movement of the American flotilla had been carried out with all possible secrecy, still the Germans probably were aware of its presence in British waters, since German submarines, on the day before the arrival of the Eighth Destroyer Division, had for the first time in months laid a mine field directly off the entrance to Queenstown. Similar mine fields were laid by German submarines just in advance of the subsequent arrival of the parent ships of the American torpedo fleet. These enemy preparations, however, came to naught, since the vigilant British mine-sweepers had cleared the channel of German mines before our vessels had entered the mined area.

Four days after the arrival of the American squadron in Irish waters, the British destroyers were withdrawn to reinforce the British flotillas operating variously in the English Channel and in the North Sea, and thenceforward the destroyer forces, under command of Admiral Bayly, were almost exclusively American. Capt. E. R. G. R. Brown, of the Royal Navy acted as liaison officer with our destroyers.

#### Admiral Sims in Charge

Rear Admiral Sims, who had been designated as "Commander of the United States Naval Forces operating in European waters," eventually became commander, not only of our destroyer squadrons at Queenstown, but of the destroyer forces at Brest, France, another at Gibraltar, of American sub-chaser naval forces at Corfu, Greece, and Plymouth, England, of a mixed force at the Azores, of battle squadrons at Scapa Flow and Berehaven, and of many other naval contingents. Being also the representative of our Navy Department at the British Admiralty and American member of the Allied Naval Council, the duties attached to these offices required his constant presence in London. It was in London, therefore, that Admiral Sims established his headquarters and from London he directed the operations of our various naval divisions throughout European waters.

#### More American Flotillas Arrive

A second flotilla of American destroyers arrived at Queenstown on May 17th, and from that date on, until the middle of July, a new American naval division put into port every week. The Melville, "mother ship" of the American destroyer fleet, arrived on May 22nd, becoming the flagship of all the American vessels stationed at Queenstown. Essentially a repair and supply ship, the Melville served as a mobile "dockyard" for the destroyers. By July 5th, the full complement of 34 United States destroyers was engaged in Irish waters, and there were no further additions to the Fleet until the following November.

#### Hunting German Submarines

The difficult work of patrolling the seas to the west and south of Ireland, and of convoying Allied ships

in the most dangerous field of submarine warfare fell chiefly upon the American ships. So successful were the American destroyers in their pursuit of the German submarines that by June 1st — only 27 days after the arrival of the first American flotilla — Rear Admiral Sims was gratified to report to the U. S. Navy Department that "the operations of our forces in these waters have proved not only very satisfactory but also of marked value to the Allies in overcoming the submarine menace." While the American destroyers were thus vigilantly engaged in hunting down the submarines, the British destroyers for the most part were being employed as "screens" to protect the British Grand Fleet from attack by submarines in the North Sea.

#### The Effective Depth Bomb

The destroyers, by virtue of their superior speed, held a very great advantage over the slow-going submarines, which on the surface made but little more than fifteen knots an hour. Riding the waves with the velocity of an express train, a destroyer could, if the conditions were favorable, cut a submarine in two with its razor-like bow. Or, it could attack with its guns. The chief advantage which the submarine possessed over the destroyer lay in its power of submersion. This advantage was greatly diminished after the Allies began to make use of that most effective weapon known as the "depth charge." This new device of naval warfare was nothing more than a large metal can—"an ash can"—containing 300 pounds of the high explosive known as TNT, which, exploding in the water in close proximity to a submerged submarine, either destroyed the enemy vessel outright or so injured it that surrender followed. Although many U-boats escaped destruction from depth charges imperfectly aimed, still enough of them were sunk or damaged to teach the Germans caution.

#### The Convoy System Adopted

Of all the agencies employed in frustrating the submarine, none was more effective than the convoy system. While the Germans were sinking Allied cargo ships at the rate of nearly 1,000,000 tons a month, the British Admiralty had found no practical method of preventing this destruction until Admiral Sims urged the adoption of the convoy system. It was comparatively a simple feat, he said, for a submarine to scuttle an isolated merchant vessel on the high seas, but if a fleet of cargo vessels were maneuvered in close formation, with destroyers protecting their flanks, the Germans would be baffled. It seems that a prior proposal to adopt the convoy system had been made at a meeting held at the British Admiralty on February 23, 1917, some six weeks before America's entry into the war, but was summarily rejected as impracticable, the British merchant captains being in unanimous agreement that it would be absolutely impossible for a group of merchant ships, of variable speeds, to "keep station" while being so convoyed. British naval officers generally and steamship directors as well, opposed the convoy. Fortunately, however, their various objections were overruled, and the American plan became effective on April 30, when it was decided to send one experimental convoy of eight-knot ships from Gibraltar, a number of destroyers being assigned for their protection. The success of this original con-



voy, which arrived in perfect condition at its English destination on May 20th "marked one of the great turning points of the war," and the British Admiralty adopted this new convoy system for all shipping. The second convoy came from America, and the third from Scandinavia.

So successful was the convoy system in safeguarding cargo ships that the monthly losses dropped from approximately 1,000,000 tons in April, 1917, to less than 100,000 tons in November, 1918.

#### The American "Sub-Chasers"

Baffled on the high seas by the vigilance of the American destroyers in protecting the convoys, the Germans transferred their submarine activities to a new field nearer the British coast. They discovered that the convoys broke up after reaching the patrol zone. These convoys, it appears, came home by the way of two "trunk lines," one through the English channel, and the other through the passage between Ireland and Scotland. As soon as they entered these channels the convoys ceased and the cargo ships were left to pursue their way unescorted to their several destinations. Taking advantage of this situation, the Germans began to concentrate their submarines in these restricted waters. In April, 1917, the month America entered the war, 100 of these unguarded merchant ships had been sunk in an area that extended 300 miles west and 300 miles south of Ireland.

Since the combined destroyer fleets of the Allied nations were inadequate to the task of coping successfully with this concentration of German submarines, it was necessary to devise a light but seaworthy vessel which could be built in large quantity in the shortest possible time and which could "aggressively" hunt out the submarines." Here again American resourcefulness sufficed to relieve a desperate situation. A new type of boat, 110 feet long, and known as the "American Sub-Chaser", was constructed. By June 30, 1918, two squadrons of these Chasers, comprising 36 boats, had assembled at Plymouth under command of Captain Lyman A. Cotten, U. S. N. These boats were immediately assigned to defend the region in which the convoys broke up and where the Germans were concentrating their efforts. They quickly put an end to German submarine activities in these waters. Up until the arrival of these "American naval wasps" the Germans had succeeded in sinking 100 merchant ships every month. Six weeks after the Chasers got into action, so careful was the vigil they kept over the convoys, the sinking of merchant ships ceased in this area. The Germans were in fact compelled to abandon this field of operations.

Some 400 of these American Chasers were put in commission, and of these 170 were sent to such scattered places as Plymouth, Queenstown, Brest, Gibraltar, and Corfu. Built entirely of wood, measuring 110 feet from stem to stern, and displacing only 60 tons, these little vessels nevertheless were eminently seaworthy and wonderfully effective. Due to the unexpected sea qualities displayed by the Chasers, and the development of listening devices—another marvelous American invention which enabled ship's officers to detect the approach and precise location of German submarines, though twenty miles away—the Supreme War Council decided to begin offensive operations against the submarines. Hundreds of

Chasers were purchased by the Allied governments, and they proved one of the best "answers" to the submarine developed by the war. The American Chasers depended not so much on their naval guns as on the use of the depth bombs, which they used with deadly effect on the submarines.

#### The Chasers at Brindisi

It was the privilege of the American Chasers to protect the Allied battleships during the bombardment of the Austrian naval base at Durazzo, in the Adriatic Sea, early in October, 1918. Durazzo was the base from which the Austrians were then sending supplies to the Bulgarians, and as the Allies had but recently begun their offensive against the Bulgarians the destruction of this Austrian naval nest was necessary. The plan agreed upon was for three Italian battleships to bombard Durazzo for one hour before daylight on October 2nd, and then return to Brindisi. Three British scout cruisers would then continue the bombardment for another hour and also retire. It was expected the Austrians would send out several of their submarines to attack the bombarding warships. In order to protect the warships from submarine attacks, twelve American Chasers, in command of Capt. Nelson, were ordered to accompany the cruisers. In comparison with the vessels which they were defending, the Chasers "looked like a group of motor launches out for a summer cruise." At 2.30 a. m., on October 2d, the night being pitch dark, that swarm of "American naval wasps", far in advance of the warships, steered a straight course for Durazzo, and on arriving in front of that Austrian stronghold, dared the enemy destroyers and submarines to come out and give them battle. The invitation was declined. The Italian battleships then blazed away for an hour, "devastating Durazzo on a liberal scale" before retiring. The English scout cruisers then began their bombardment. While their guns were barking, the Austrians sent out several submarines to sink the British ships. The vigilant and audacious American Chasers at once attacked the submarines, sinking two of them and compelling a third to submerge. Not a man in the American force suffered injury. Following this encounter, the great ships, screened again by the little naval wasps, were brought back to Brindisi in safety. Austria's surrender occurred soon after the demolition of the naval base at Durazzo.

#### Last Triumph of the Chasers

Gibraltar was the scene of the final activities of the American Chasers. In the closing week of the war, after the surrender of the port of Durazzo by the Austrians, five German submarines were left stranded in the Mediterranean, without a base. A flotilla of submarines started home by way of Gibraltar. On the chance of intercepting these U-boats, a squadron of seven Chasers was sent to Gibraltar. Of the five German submarines, two were sunk, one by a Chaser and the other by the British patrol.

#### Submarine vs. Submarine

Approximately, 85 German and Austrian submarines were destroyed by the Allied naval forces during the war. Of this number, 34 were sunk by the collective efforts of 500 Allied destroyers, chiefly by the use of gunfire and by depth charges; 31 were disposed of through the instrumentality of 300 aux-



iliary vessels, such as patrol craft, trawlers, yachts, and the like, operating in shallow waters; 20 were destroyed by the 100 Allied submarines. If absolute results be accepted as the true criterion, it would appear that the destroyer ships proved to be the most successful hunters of submarines, but considering that the efforts of 500 of these destroyers were required to destroy 34 submarines, while only 100 Allied submarines were engaged in disposing of 20 enemy "subs," it is evident that, vessel for vessel, the submarine itself proved a far more potent weapon than any other type of vessel in overcoming the menace of the submarine.

#### Naval Aviation Force of 45,000

It is to the credit of the United States Navy that it organized and trained an aviation force of more than 45,000, of whom 19,000 served in Europe. There were established in Europe 27 American aviation bases and stations, with 51 American aviation units, in operation on the coasts of France, England, Ireland, and Italy and in the Azores. Until the close of the war, an aerial patrol of the United States Atlantic Coast was maintained from Nova Scotia to the Gulf.

The Navy built and operated its own aircraft factory at Philadelphia. Before the armistice we had sent to Europe 570 aircraft, our whole aviation equipment, including 1865 flying boats, 242 land planes, 15 dirigible balloons, 205 kite balloons, and 10 free balloons.

It was at Yale University that American aviation had its war beginning when, in 1916, Mr. Trubee Davison organized the first Yale aviation unit of 29 aviators who were later enrolled in the Naval Reserve Flying Corps and may be considered as the nucleus from which the United States Aviation Forces, foreign service, later grew. Acting wholly upon their own initiative and from a conviction that the United States would eventually become involved, these Yale undergraduates experimented all through the summer of 1916 at Port Washington, Long Island, and before we entered the war they were fully qualified to serve as aviators. The United States Government availed itself of their services in training our aircraft forces; they became instructors at Buffalo, Hampton Roads, Key West, and other aviation centers. Going abroad in 1917, they were impressed as instructors in the schools of France and England.

In October, 1917, Capt. H. I. Cone, U. S. N., was sent abroad to take charge of the great Naval Aviation program as planned. He established his headquarters first at Paris and then in London.

In addition to the twelve American Aviation Stations established on the French coast, between Brest and the Spanish border, Capt. Cone completed four stations in Ireland. The most completely equipped of all the American Aviation centers abroad was that at Pauillac, France, in charge of Capt. F. T. Evans, which held accommodations for 20,000 men. Work had been begun there on a gigantic airplane factory. The Northern Bombing Group, under command of Capt. David C. Hanrahan, had 112 planes, 305 officers, and 2239 aviators, who devoted all their time to bombing the German submarine bases at Zeebrugge and Ostend, Belgium.

Plans had also been perfected for building two American Aviation bases on the east coast of Italy,

from which to attack the Austrian naval bases, but the surrender of Austria put an early end to this enterprise.

On Armistice Day, there were 225 American sea-planes operating variously over the North Sea, the Irish Sea, the Bay of Biscay, and the Adriatic Sea. American bombing planes had been making daily trips over Flanders Fields and 16,500 American aviators had been engaged in various forms of aerial activity. The American aviation forces abroad have to their credit the destruction of one German submarine.

#### The North Sea Barrage Laid

It was the United States Navy which conquered the German submarine peril, by devising and constructing that most marvelous of all the innovations of naval warfare, the North Sea mine-barrage, stretching from the coast of Scotland 230 miles eastward, across the tempestuous waters, to the coast of Norway. Until that barrage was laid, Germany had been in a very real sense the mistress of the seas. Her submarines, darting out from their main base in Bruges, Belgium, preyed at will upon the merchant ships of the Allied nations. To reach their main hunting grounds off the west and south coasts of Ireland, these terrors of the seas followed two routes—one around the north coast of Scotland, the other directly through the imperfect mine barrage, that stretched across the English Channel.

Not until America's entrance into the war had the Allies found a single effective method of combating the submarines. The American Navy indicated the appropriate methods—first by means of the convoy system for cargo ships, then by devising the unique Submarine Chaser, a veritable "wasp of the sea," which hunted the submarines successfully, and finally by sealing the mouth of the North Sea with a new type of depth bombs. The convoy system had indeed proved the salvation of cargo vessels and the American Chasers and destroyers had taught the Germans caution, but these methods had availed only to minimize the danger. The U-boats continued to operate in the Atlantic Ocean. To combat them successfully would necessitate the employment of 25,000 destroyers, and of this type of vessel the Allies had been able to produce only a few hundreds. It was obvious that the submarine peril, if it was to be overcome, must be fought at its source. The solution of the problem lay in the adoption of some method of preventing the egress of the U-boats from their Belgian base to the open sea.

#### British Oppose American Barrage Plan

Rear Admiral Joseph Strauss of the United States Navy proposed the laying of a mine barrage across the mouth of the North Sea and at the same time making effective the barrage already existing in the English Channel. By this plan, Admiral Strauss contended, the submarines would be kept penned up within an area where they could not wreak destruction on Allied vessels. The British Navy, prior to April, 1917, had laid more than 30,000 mines in the Bight of Heligoland, and were increasing these obstructions at the rate of 3000 mines a day, but these efforts had proved ineffective, for as fast as the British mines were laid the German sweepers cleared channels clear through the mine fields.

In view of the failure of their own barrage, the



British Admiralty discouraged the American proposal to seal the yawning mouth of the North Sea. The British argued, that as it was found impractical to close the narrow stretch of water between Dover and Calais to German submarines, how impossible it would be to surmount the difficulties in attempting to lay a mine barrage across 230 miles of tempestuous water? Furthermore, the British naval authorities contended that the North Sea enterprise would require 400,000 mines, a number far in excess of the production capacities of all the Allied nations within a reasonable period.

#### New American Mine Invented

Notwithstanding opposition, the United States Navy nevertheless with confidence proceeded to develop its barrage plans. The Bureau of Ordnance had been perfecting a new type of mine, with a firing device invented by Ralph C. Brown, an electrical engineer of Salem, Massachusetts. By August, 1917, this mine was a demonstrated success. It was estimated that 100,000 of these mines, instead of 400,000, would suffice to close the North Sea passage. The British Admiralty gradually became convinced of the feasibility of this American plan, approving of the new mine, and on November 2, 1917, the North Sea Barrage project was officially adopted by both the American and the British Governments. It was necessary now to transform ships into mine layers, to enlist and train their crews, to manufacture 100,000 mines, to create bases both in the United States and in Scotland, to transport all supplies 3000 miles over wintry seas, and through the submarine zone. All these difficulties were successfully overcome. Five hundred American manufacturers undertook the work of making the bombs. In a few months trainloads of mine cases began to arrive at Norfolk, Va., the port from which the mines were shipped. Twenty-four cargo ships carried these mines to ports on the west coast of Scotland. Ten mine-laying ships were assembled at Newport, R. I., and in May, 1918, the first of those ships started for its destination in Scotland. Our Navy Department had selected as bases the ports of Invergordon and Inverness on Moray Firth. These bases could accommodate as many as 20,000 mines at one time. Rear Admiral Joseph Strauss, U. S. N., took command; the British commander was Rear Admiral Clinton Baker.

#### American Navy Lays Most Mines

Of the whole mining area, extending from the Orkney Islands to the coast of Norway, 150 miles was assigned to the American and 50 miles to the British Navy. Thirteen "expeditions" were required to lay the mines, the mine-layers being protected by American and British battleships and destroyers. The American Navy laid 56,571 and the British Navy 13,546 mines. The width of the barrage ranged from 15 to 35 miles. It took the German submarines from one to three hours to cross this area on the surface and from two to six hours under the surface. For a considerable time a passageway 60 miles wide was kept open for the British Grand Fleet, just east of the Orkneys. The watchful Germans managed for a week or more to slip through this gap, but it was finally closed to the foe.

The deadly effectiveness of this barrage was soon proved. German U-boats, after putting out to sea from their nesting places, vanished completely, leav-

ing no trace behind, nor record of what fate had befallen them. Presently there spread through the German Navy "the fear of a secret terror, a mysterious Nemesis, which tortured mind and nerve and shook the morale of the strongest. The break in the morale of the great navy of Imperial Germany has no precedent in naval history."

A mutinous spirit set in among the crews of all classes of German warships. German sailors for the first time refused to obey the order of their commanders. Submarines lay idle in harbors because the sailors refused to take them out to the hunting ground. Their naval morale had collapsed. The end was near. Germany had been conquered on the sea by a barrage conceived and wrought by Americans.

#### Our Naval Guns Supreme

It is to the credit of the American Navy that the most powerful artillery weapons used by the Allies on the Western front, and the largest guns ever placed on mobile mounts, were the five naval railway batteries of 14-inch guns built, transported, and operated by the American and French Armies. Our Navy supplied a total of 5352 guns to 1868 American vessels, in addition to furnishing 326 guns of various calibers to the Allies. The guns for use of our own vessels were of 3-inch caliber or larger.

The original purpose in sending American naval batteries to France was to silence both the huge German naval guns which had been ceaselessly bombarding Dunkirk and the mysterious long-distance gun, which, from the Compeigne Forest, 75 miles distant, had been throwing shells into Paris. Information had come to the Allies that the Germans had taken the huge guns from the new battle-cruiser Hindenberg and mounted them at convenient points to bombard Dunkirk, Chalons-sur-Marne, and Nancy. Sixteen German guns of great caliber had left Kiel in May, 1918, to be trained upon important objectives in France. Our Allies, wholly deficient in artillery of this type, were accordingly elated at learning that five American naval 14-inch guns, with mountings and ammunition and supply trains were ready to embark for St. Nazaire, France. By July, 1918, these guns were assembled and tested in France. Mounted on specially constructed American trains, these guns were ready to move in August, their first objective being the Forest of Compeigne in France, where the "Big Bertha" lay hidden, that hurled its shells 75 miles into the city of Paris. As the American guns drew near to Compeigne, the Big Bertha suddenly ceased its fire on Paris. The Germans, fearing the destruction of their pet by the superior American artillery, had removed this long-distance gun from its emplacement, lest it should be utterly destroyed. Our naval guns, by destroying the German lines of communication, assisted greatly in hastening the complete surrender of the Germans.

#### Americans Excelled in Radiation

The United States excelled all other nations in the amplitude and perfection of its wireless system. Our Navy both organized and operated the most extensive radio system in existence, belting the globe from east to west and extending north and south from Panama to Alaska.

#### Naval Training Stations

The Navy established a score of training camps, including the largest naval training station in the



world at Great Lakes, Ill., with a capacity of 50,000 men. Notable features of the shore-construction program of our Navy were the fleet-operating base at Hampton Roads, Va.; the mine-loading stations at Yorktown; enormous dry docks at Norfolk, Philadelphia, Pearl Harbor and other points; immense machine shops and storage warehouses; and the erection in Washington, D. C., of the largest of concrete office structures, having a floor space of 41 acres.

### U. S. Navy Belted the Globe

The United States Navy, during the last two years of the World War, literally belted the globe, its activities extending over every ocean and every sea. Thus, American warships operated in the White Sea, within the shadow of the north Pole; in the North Sea and around the British Isles; along the coasts of France, Spain, Portugal, and Italy; throughout the Mediterranean and Adriatic Seas; they patrolled the North Atlantic and the South Atlantic coasts, the Gulf of Mexico and the Caribbean Sea; they guarded the Panama Canal; they traversed the waters of the Pacific and South Seas; they co-operated with the Japanese and other Allied vessels in Asiatic waters, from Manilla to Vladivostok.

### Navy Grows from 342 to 2000 Vessels

When our government declared war against Germany on April 6, 1917, there were but 342 naval vessels and auxiliaries in the United States service. Nineteen months later, when the armistice was signed, the number of vessels in our Navy had increased to 2,000, principally troopships, cargo transports, patrol vessels, and district craft. The Navy had quickly converted 1597 merchant vessels, yachts, and other craft for naval purposes.

Between January 1, 1917, and October 1, 1919, 545 new vessels were built. These were, for the most part, submarine chasers and mine sweepers, but the number also included three battleships, 139 destroyers, 57 submarines, and 52 Eagle patrol boats. In all, the Navy built more than 400 submarine chasers, 100 of which were turned over to the French Government.

That achievement, however, was only a part of what we were preparing to do, and would have done, if the war had continued into 1919, as was expected. Our shipbuilding program included 1000 vessels of all types, from battleships to submarine destroyers. Just before the armistice, our shipyards were about reaching the peak of production; the builders were breaking all records in construction. Cargo ships were building so rapidly that the total number of vessels already assigned to the Naval Overseas

Transportation Service was 490, which would bring that fleet up to a total of 3,800,000 deadweight tons.

### 834 Vessels in European Service

The total number of United States vessels assigned to service in European waters was 373, including eight battleships, three cruisers, 120 submarine chasers, 70 destroyers, and 20 mine sweepers and planters. In addition to these naval vessels, the entire cruiser and transport force, with its 83 vessels manned by 3000 officers and 41,000 men; and the Naval Overseas Transportation Service, with 378 vessels in operation, manned by 4692 officers and 29,175 men, were in trans-Atlantic service, carrying troops and supplies to our own armies and to our Allies. Thus a total of 834 vessels and approximately 220,000 officers and men of the United States Navy and Marine Corps were engaged in actual European service or in trans-Atlantic service to and from Europe.

### Naval Personnel over 600,000

The expansion of the personnel of the Navy during the war was truly wonderful. When war was declared in April, 1917, our regular Naval establishment comprised 4376 officers and 62,667 men, in addition to 13,725 Reserves and Naval Militia. Before the armistice was signed, the personnel of the Navy had been increased to 532,931 officers and men, and that of the Marine Corps to 75,000.

More than 112,000 officers and men of our Navy and Marine Corps saw service in Europe. These included the 30,000 Marines who had been sent overseas with the Army, and 1600 others assigned to naval duty ashore.

The Navy armed 38 merchant and cargo ships, and 30,000 of the Navy personnel were engaged in the service of carrying food, materials, and other necessities to Allied countries.

In round numbers the Navy transported to Europe in naval transports 911,000 American troops, and brought back 1,700,000. Of the 2,079,880 American troops sent to Europe in American, British, French, and Italian ships, 82 per cent sailed under escort of United States naval vessels.

### Expended Over Three Billions

The expenditures for the United States Navy during the war exceeded three and a half billions of dollars. The appropriations for the navy amounted to \$3,692,354,324, of which \$334,360,446 was returned to the Treasury. "This vast sum was expended with such economy, the Navy securing materials, fuel, and supplies at so much lower prices than generally prevailed, that there has been no charge whatever of graft or wastefulness. It is a record of which every American may well be proud."

## Naval Vessels of Seven Nations Lost in the War

	England	France	Italy	U. S.	Japan	Germany	Austria
Battleships	13	4	3	—	1	1	3
Battle Cruisers	3	—	—	—	—	1	—
Cruisers	27	5	2	1	4	24	2
Monitors	6	—	—	—	—	—	3
Destroyers	64	14	1	2	3	72	5
Torpedo Boats	10	8	10	—	1	51	4
Submarines	50	14	5	1	—	205	8
Small Craft	27	9	8	—	—	—	—
Total Naval Losses	200	54	29	4	9	354	25
Total tonnage lost	550,000	110,000	76,000	17,000	50,000	350,000	65,000



# AMERICA'S INVINCIBLE ARMY

To the Rescue when Despair and Defeat Faced Allied Armies

How this Marvelous Fighting Machine was so Rapidly Developed  
Over 2,000,000 Men Speedily Trained and Transported to France  
The Achievement Unparalleled in the Annals of Military History  
U. S. Army Holds One-Fourth of Entire Allied Battle Line—101 Miles  
31 Combat Divisions in Battle 200 Days Fighting 13 Major Operations  
Total Battle Advances of All American Divisions Nearly 500 Miles  
Stupendous Feats of Engineering Performed by Americans in France

## Some Astounding Facts About America's Army

Total armed forces (Army & Navy)	4,800,000	Cost of army to April 30, 1919.....	\$13,930,000,000
Total men in the Army.....	4,200,000	Major battles fought by American troops .....	13
Men who went overseas .....	2,180,000	Months of American participation in the war .....	19
Men who fought in France .....	1,390,000	Days of battle .....	200
Greatest number sent in one month .....	306,000	Days of duration of Meuse-Argonne battle .....	47
Greatest number returning in one month .....	333,000	Americans in Meuse-Argonne battle .....	1,200,000
Tons of supplies shipped to France .....	7,500,000	American casualties in Meuse-Argonne battle .....	120,000
Total registered in draft .....	24,234,021	American battle deaths in war.....	50,000
Total draft inductions .....	2,810,296	American wounded in war .....	236,000
Greatest number inducted in one month .....	400,000	American deaths from disease.....	56,991
Graduates of line officers' training school .....	80,468	Total deaths in the army.....	112,422
Cost of war to April 30, 1919 .....	\$21,850,000,000		

WHEN war was declared there were only 200,000 men in the army. Two-thirds of these were regulars and one-third national guardsmen who had been called into the Federal service for duty on the Mexican border. When the war ended this force had been increased to twenty times its size and 4,000,000 men had served.

The selective service law was passed on May 19, 1917, and as subsequently amended it mobilized all the man power of the nation from the ages of 18 to 45 inclusive. Under this act 24,234,021 men were registered and slightly more than 2,800,000 were inducted into the military service. The first registration, June 5, 1917, covered the ages from 21 to 31; the second registration, June 5, 1918, and August 24, 1918, included those who had become 21 years old since the first registration, and the third registration, September 12, 1918, extended the age limits down to 18 and upward to 45.

### Men Registered and Inducted

Registration	Registered	Inducted
First and second .....	10,679,814	2,666,867
Third .....	13,228,762	120,157
Alaska, Hawaii, Porto Rico .....	325,445	23,272
Total .....	24,234,021	2,810,296

### Training of the Troops

The average American soldier who went to France received six months' training in the United States. After he landed overseas he had two months' training before entering the battle line in a quiet sector, where he remained one month before going into an active sector and taking part in hard fighting. The infantry soldier was trained in the division, which was our typical combat unit. In the American army it was composed of about 1,000 officers and 27,000 men. Training and sorting organizations of about 10,000 men, known as depot brigades, were also utilized. Before the signing of the armistice there were trained and sent overseas forty-two American divisions. The training of twelve more was well advanced and there were four others that were being organized.

### Camps and Cantonments

To carry forward the training program shelter was constructed in a few months for 1,800,000 men. For the national guard and national army division 16 camps and 16 cantonments were built. There were schools for training men for special service, such as artillery, aviation, engineer corps, chemical warfare, tank corps, and quartermaster corps. There were



proving grounds and testing fields. For these purposes housing was constructed for more than 300,000 men, including accommodations at the large embarking camps at New York and Newport News.

## Officers and Instructors

Some 200,000 officers were required for the army of 4,000,000 men, there being in the American army one officer for each twenty men. When war was declared there were 6,000 officers in the regular army and the national guard divisions were able to furnish most of their own officers. After this source of supply had been exhausted it was still necessary to secure 180,000 officers elsewhere. The officers' training camp was the instrumentality that solved the problem. The successful precedents of the Plattsburg camps were followed. Three months of intensive training put the prospective officers through all the tasks required of enlisted men and the duties of the platoon and company commander.

France and England sent experienced officers to the United States to assist in training the men in modern methods of war. France sent 286 such officers and England 261.

## Transportation of Army

During the nineteen months of the American participation in the war, more than 2,000,000 soldiers were carried from the United States to France. Half a million went over in the first thirteen months and 1,500,000 in the last six months. We had only a few American and British troopships chartered directly from their owners. Later, as more ships came into the service, the embarkations increased to a rate of nearly 50,000 a month, and by the end of 1917 had reached a total of 194,000. The figures from January to November, 1918, were:

January .....	47,893	July .....	308,350
February .....	49,110	August .....	285,974
March .....	84,869	September .....	257,457
April .....	118,642	October .....	180,326
May .....	245,945	November .....	30,201
June .....	278,664		

Most of the troops who sailed for Europe left from the port of New York; half of them landed at Liverpool, England, and half at Brest, France.

Of the total of 2,079,880 troops transported to Europe in 1142 sailings during the period of hostilities, British vessels carried 1,006,987, or 48.25 per cent; United States Navy transports, 911,047, or 43.75 per cent; other American vessels, 41,534, or 2.5 per cent; British-leased Italian ships, 68,246, or 3 per cent; French, Italian and Russian ships, 52,060, or 2.5 per cent. Of the total number carried, 1,720,360, or 82.75 per cent, were under United States Navy escort; 297,903, or 14.1 per cent, under British escort; and 61,617, or 3.1 per cent, under French escort.

The maximum number of vessels assigned to, and operated by the United States Navy for troop transportation was 142, with facilities for carrying 13,914 officers and 349,770 men. Admiral Albert Gleaves was in command of the Cruiser and Transport Fleet from May, 1917, to September 1, 1918, when he was detached to take command of the Asiatic Fleet, being succeeded by Rear Admiral C. B. Morgan.

## Cost of Transportation in British Ships

When the movement of American troops in British vessels was first begun in 1917, the Director-General of the British Ministry of Shipping sug-

gested that a flat rate of \$125 per soldier be charged, except on the three largest ships, the Olympic, Aquitania, and Mauretania, on which he suggested a flat rate of \$150. This offer was not accepted by our Government, being considered too high.

Rates were finally reached, when the so-called Reading-Hines agreement was made between Lord Reading, representing the British Government, and Brigadier-General Frank T. Hines, representing the War Department. By that agreement, the rates charged up to December 15, 1917, during the period when the active menace of submarines or mines was assumed to exist, were as follows: First class, \$176.30; second class, (non-commissioned officers), \$128.65; third class, \$42.88. The total number of American troops carried in British ships was 1,127,160, of which number 52,220 were first class, 15,172 second class, and 1,059,768 third class. By applying the rates finally agreed upon to these numbers, it will be seen that the actual cost to the United States Government of sending American soldiers to France in British ships was approximately \$91,954,981, or about \$81.50 per man. This charge was paid in cash to England in 1921, in lieu of being credited against overdue interest on loans.

## The Cargo Fleet

The cargo fleet was almost exclusively American. It reached the size of 2,600,000 deadweight tons and carried to Europe about 7,500,000 tons of cargo, averaging one complete trip every seven days.

## Feeding and Clothing the Army

The problems of feeding and clothing the army were difficult because of the immense quantities involved rather than because of the difficulty of manufacturing the articles needed. Requirements for some kinds of clothing for the army were more than twice as great as the pre-war total American production of the same articles. To secure the articles needed for the army the Government had to commandeer all the wool and some other staple articles in the United States and control production through all its stages. Commercial articles purchased by the army were of about 30,000 different kinds. In one way or another the army at war drew upon almost every one of the 344 industries recognized by the United States census.

## The S. O. S. in France

The distribution of supplies in the expeditionary forces required the creation of an organization called the Service of Supply, to which one-fourth of all the troops who went overseas were assigned. It was an army behind the Army, and its headquarters were at Tours, France. On the day the armistice was signed, there were 386,000 soldiers so employed, in addition to 31,000 German prisoners and thousands of civilian employes furnished by the Allies. At the same time there were in the zone of the armies 160,000 non-combatant troops, the majority of whom were keeping in operation the lines of distribution of supplies to the front. The proportion of non-combatants in the American Army, never fell below 28 per cent. A list of the total deliveries from April 6, 1917, to May 31, 1919, of some common articles of clothing to the American Army, gives an idea of the task of supplying the army: Wool stockings, pairs, 138,800,000; under clothing, 168,000,000;



shoes, 30,700,000; flannel shirts, 26,500,000; blankets, 21,700,000; wool breeches, 21,700,000; wool coats, 13,900,000; overcoats, 8,300,000. The value of the above articles was one billion dollars.

### American Engineering Feats in France

Distributing supplies to the American forces in France was, in the first place, a problem of ports; second, a problem of railroad; third, a problem of motor and horse-drawn transportation; and fourth, a problem of storage. It was not necessary to build new ports, but Americans added eighty-three new berths, together with warehouses and dock equipment. It was not necessary to build new railroads, but it was desirable to increase the carrying capacity by nearly 1,000 miles of new trackage, by switching facilities at crucial points, by new repair shops and new rolling stock. These things were done by the engineers. There were never enough docks to prevent some loss of time by vessels waiting to dock, but the capacity for handling American cargo was tripled, from 10,000 tons per day in the spring of 1918 to 30,000 tons by November 11, and the waiting time of ships was shorter than in commercial practice. There were never wholly adequate railway facilities, but with the help of locomotives and freight cars shipped from this side, freight was carried inland about as fast as it was landed. The main railway lines connected the principal ports at which the army fleet docked with the headquarters of the service of supply at Tours and with the Toul-Verdun sector, where the American armies operated.

Railroads carried American supplies from the ports in France to intermediate or advance depots. Railroad lines roughly paralleled the front. Spurs led up to the front, but beyond a certain distance the standard-gauge railroad did not go. Where the danger of shelling began, or where the needs changed rapidly as the battle activity shifted from this front to that, the place of the heavy railway was taken by other means of distributing supplies. First came the narrow-gauge railroad, with rails about two feet apart, much narrower than the usual narrow-gauge road in this country. American engineers built 538 miles of these roads, for which 406 narrow-gauge locomotives and 2,385 narrow-gauge cars were shipped from this country in addition to the standard-gauge equipment.

Beyond the range of the narrow-gauge railway came the motor truck. The truck could go over roads that were under shell fire. Trucks were used on a larger scale in this war than was ever before thought possible. The American infantry division on the march with the trucks, wagons, and ambulances of its supply, ammunition and sanitary trains stretches for a distance of thirty miles along the road. The number of trucks sent overseas prior to the armistice was 40,000, and of these 33,000 had been received in France. They ranged in size from three-quarters of a ton to five tons.

### Telephone and Telegraph Lines

In order to operate the transportation of supplies in France the American signal corps strung its wires over nearly every part of France. At the time the armistice was signed the signal corps was operating 282 telegraph exchanges and 133 complete telegraph stations. The telephone lines numbered 14,956, reaching 8,959 stations. More than 100,000 miles

of wire had been strung. The peak load of operation reached 47,555 telegrams a day, averaging sixty words each.

### Other Construction

To build factories and storage warehouses for supplies, as well as housing for troops, 200,000 workmen in the United States were kept continuously occupied during the war. Housing constructed had a capacity of 1,800,000 men. The total expenditures in this enterprise to November 11, 1918, were in round numbers \$800,000,000, or about twice the cost of the Panama Canal.

In France all the construction work was performed by the corps of engineers under service of supply.

### No Food or Clothing Shortage

At no time was there a food shortage. Soldiers sometimes went hungry, but the condition was local and temporary. It occurred because of transportation difficulties during periods of active fighting or rapid movement, when the units advanced faster than their rolling kitchens. The stocks of food on hand in the depots in France were always adequate.

In the matter of clothing also the supply services rose to the emergency of combat.

There were periods in the history of many individual units when needed supplies could not be immediately obtained, but, as in the case of food, the difficulty was one of local transportation.

The records of the quartermaster show that during the six months of hard fighting, from June to November, 1918, the enlisted men in the A. E. F. received on the average:

Slicker and overcoat every 5 months.

Blanket, flannel shirt, and breeches every 2 months.

Coat every 79 days.

Shoes and puttees every 51 days.

Drawers and undershirt every 34 days.

Woolen socks every 23 days.

### American Rifles and Machine Guns

When war was declared the army had on hand nearly 600,000 Springfield rifles. Their manufacture was continued, and the American Enfield rifle designed and put into production.

The total production of Springfield and Enfield rifles up to the signing of the armistice was over 2,500,000.

The use of machine guns on a large scale is a development of the European war. In the American Army the allowance in 1912 was four machine guns per regiment. In 1919 the new army plans provide for an equipment of 336 guns per regiment, or eighty-four times as many.

The entire number of American machine guns produced to the end of 1918 was 227,000.

During the war the Browning automatic rifle and the Browning machine gun were developed, put into quantity production and used in large numbers in the final battles in France.

American production of rifle ammunition amounted to approximately 3,500,000,000 rounds, of which 1,500,000,000 were shipped overseas.

When war was declared the United States had sufficient light artillery to equip an army of 500,000 men, and shortly found itself confronted with the problem of preparing to equip 5,000,000 men.

To meet the situation it was decided in June, 1917, to allot our guns to training purposes and to equip



our forces in France with artillery conforming to the French and British standard calibers.

It was arranged that we should purchase from the French and British the artillery needed for our first divisions and ship them in return equivalent amounts of steel, copper and other raw materials so that they could either manufacture guns for us in their own factories or give us guns out of their stocks and replace them by new ones made from our materials.

Up to the end of April, 1919, the number of complete artillery units produced in American plants was more than 3,000, or equal to all those purchased from the French and British during the war.

The number of rounds of complete artillery ammunition produced in American plants was in excess of 20,000,000, as compared with 9,000,000 rounds secured from the French and British.

In the first twenty months after the declaration of war by each country the British did better than we did in the production of light artillery, and we excelled them in producing heavy artillery and both light and heavy ammunition.

So far as the Allies were concerned the European war was in large measure fought with American powder and high explosives.

At the end of the war American production of smokeless powder was 45 per cent greater than the French and British production combined.

At the end of the war the American production of high explosives was 40 per cent greater than Great Britain's and nearly double that of France.

During the war America produced 10,000 tons of gas, much of which was sold to the French and British.

Out of every hundred days that our combat divisions were in line in France they were supported by their own artillery for seventy-five days, by British artillery for five days, and by French for one and one-half days. Of the remaining eighteen and one-half days that they were in line without artillery, eighteen days were in quiet sectors, and only one-half of one day in each hundred was in active sectors.

In round numbers, we had in France 3,500 pieces of artillery, of which nearly 500 were made in America, and we used on the fighting line 2,250 pieces of which over 100 were made in America.

## American Aviation in the War

On the declaration of war the United States had fifty-five training airplanes, of which fifty-one were classified as obsolete and the other four as obsolescent.

When we entered the war the Allies made the designs of their planes available to us, and before the end of hostilities furnished us from their own manufacture 3,800 service planes.

Aviation training schools in the United States graduated 8,602 men from the elementary course and 4,028 from the advanced course. More than 5,000 pilots and observers were sent overseas.

The total personnel of the air service, officers, students, and enlisted men, increased from 1,200 at the beginning of the war to nearly 200,000 at its close.

There were produced in the United States to the end of November 30, 1918, more than 8,000 training planes and more than 16,000 training engines.

The De Havilland-4 observation and day bombing plane was the only plane the United States put into

quantity production. Before the signing of the armistice 3,227 had been completed and 1,885 shipped overseas. The plane was successfully used at the front for three months.

The production of the twelve cylinder Liberty engine was America's chief contribution to aviation. Before the Armistice 13,574 had been completed, 4,435 shipped to the expeditionary forces and 1,025 delivered to the Allies.

The first flyers in action wearing the American uniform were members of the Lafayette squadron, who were transferred to the American service in December, 1917.

The American air force at the front grew from three squadrons in April to forty-five in November, 1918. On November 11 the forty-five squadrons had an equipment of 740 planes.

Of the 2,698 planes sent to the zone of advance for American aviators 667, or nearly one-fourth, were of American manufacture.

American aid squadrons played important roles in the battles of Chateau Thierry, St. Mihiel, and the Meuse-Argonne. They brought down in combat 755 enemy planes, while their own losses were only 357.

## Americans in Battle

Two out of every three American soldiers who reached France took part in battle. The number who reached France was 2,084,000, and of these 1,390,000 saw active service in the front line. American combat forces were organized into divisions, each consisting of some 28,000 officers and men. The British division numbered about 15,000, and those of the French and Germans about 12,000 each. Of the forty-two divisions that reached France thirty-one took part in active combat service, while the others were used for replacements or were just arriving when the war ended. The battle record of the United States Army in this war is largely the history of these thirty-one combat divisions.

American combat divisions were in battle for 200 days, from April 25, 1918, when the 1st regular division, after long training in quiet sectors, entered an active sector on the Picardy front, until the signing of the armistice. During these 200 days they were engaged in thirteen major operations, of which eleven were joint enterprises with the French, British, and Italians, and two were distinctly American.

At the time of their greatest activity, in the second week in October, all thirty-one American divisions were in action. They held 101 miles of front or 23 per cent of the entire Allied battle line. From the middle of August until the end of the war they held, during the greater part of the time, a front longer than that held by the British. Their strength tipped the balance of man power in favor of the Allies, so that from the middle of June, 1918, to the end of the war the Allied forces were superior in number to those of the enemy.

## Battle Advances

The total battle advances of all the American divisions amount to 782 kilometers, or 485 miles, an average advance for each division of seventeen miles, nearly all of it against desperate enemy resistance. They captured 63,000 prisoners, 1,378 pieces of artillery, 708 trench mortars, and 9,650 machine guns. In June and July they helped to shatter the



enemy advance toward Paris and to turn retreat into a triumphant offensive. At St. Mihiel they pinched off in a day an enemy salient, which had been a constant menace to the French line for four years. In the Argonne and on the Meuse they carried lines which the enemy had determined to hold at any cost and cut the enemy lines of communication and supply for half of the western battle front.

Another measure of American participation is the effect caused by the rapid arrivals of American troops on the rifle strength of the Allied armies. On April 1 the Germans had an actual superiority of 324,000 riflemen on the western front. Their strength increased during the next two months, but began to drop during June. At the same time the Allied strength, with the constantly growing American forces, was showing a steady increase, so that the two lines crossed during June. From that time on Allied strength was always in the ascendancy, and since the French and British forces were weaker in October and November than they were in April and May, this growing ascendancy of the Allies was due entirely to the Americans. By November 1 the Allied rifle strength had a superiority over the German of more than 600,000 rifles.

### Thirteen Major Battles

American troops saw service on practically every stretch of the Western Front from British lines in Belgium to inactive sectors in the Vosges. On October 21, 1917, Americans entered the line in the quiet Toul sector. From that date to the armistice American units were somewhere in line almost continuously.

It is difficult to cut up the year and twenty-two days which intervened into well-defined battles, for in a sense the entire war on the Western Front was a single battle. It is possible, however, to distinguish certain major operations or phases of the greater struggle. Thirteen such operations have been recognized in which American units were engaged, of which twelve took place on the Western Front, and one in Italy. These battles are named and the number of Americans engaged is shown herewith:

Operation	Americans engaged
West front—Campaign of 1917:	
Cambrai, Nov. 20 to Dec. 4	
West front—Campaign of 1918:	
German offensives, March 21 to July 18—	
Somme, March 21 to April 6	2,200
Lys, April 9 to 27	500
Aisne, May 27 to June 5	27,500
Noyon-Montdidier, June 9 to 15	27,000
Champagne-Marne, July 15 to 18	85,000
Allied offensives, July 18 to Nov. 11—	
Aisne-Marne, July 18 to Aug. 6	270,000
Somme, Aug. 8 to Nov. 11	54,000
Oise-Aisne, Aug. 18 to Nov. 11	85,000
Ypres-Lys, Aug. 19 to Nov. 11	108,000
St. Mihiel, Sept. 12 to 16	550,000
Meuse-Argonne, Sept. 20-Nov. 11	1,200,000
Italian front—Campaign of 1918:	
Vittorio-Veneto, Oct. 24 to Nov. 4	1,200

### America's Greatest Battle

The battle of the Meuse-Argonne was the greatest ever fought by American troops, and there have been few, if any, greater battles in the history of the world. Some of the more important statistics of the combat are presented in the following table:

Days of battle	47
American troops engaged	1,200,000
Guns employed in attack	2,417
Rounds artillery ammunition used	4,214,000
Airplanes used	840

Tons explosives dropped on enemy	100
Tanks used	324
Miles advanced, maximum	34
Square kilometers of land taken	1,550
Villages and towns liberated	150
Prisoners captured	16,059
Artillery pieces captured	468
Machine guns captured	2,864
Trench mortars captured	177
American casualties	120,000

### Casualties and Health

Of every 100 American soldiers and sailors who served in the war with Germany two were killed or died of disease during the period of hostilities.

The total battle deaths of all nations in this war were greater than all the deaths in all the wars in the previous 100 years.

Russian battle deaths were 34 times as heavy as those of the United States, Germany 32 times as great, the French 28 times, and the British 18 times as large.

The number of American lives lost was 122,500, of which about 10,000 were in the navy and the rest in the army and the marines attached to it.

In the American army the casualty rate in the infantry was higher than in any other service and that for officers was higher than for men.

For every man killed in battle seven were wounded.

Five out of every six men sent to hospitals on account of wounds were cured and returned to duty.

In the expeditionary forces battle losses were twice as large as deaths from disease.

In this war the death rate from disease was lower and the death rate from battle was higher than in any other previous American war.

Inoculation, clean camps and safe drinking water practically eliminated typhoid fever among our troops in this war.

Pneumonia killed more soldiers than were killed in battle. Meningitis was the next most serious disease.

Of each 100 cases of venereal disease recorded in the United States, 96 were contracted before entering the army, and only 4 afterward.

During the entire war available hospital facilities in the American expeditionary forces were in excess of the needs.

### U. S. War Expenses

The war cost the United States considerably more than \$1,000,000 an hour for over two years.

The direct cost was about \$22,000,000,000, or nearly enough to pay the entire cost of running the United States Government from 1791 up to the outbreak of the European war.

Our expenditure in this war was sufficient to have carried on the revolutionary war continuously for more than 1,000 years at the rate of expenditure which that war actually involved.

In addition to this huge expenditure more than \$10,000,000,000 was loaned by the United States to the Allies.

The army direct expenditures were over \$14,000,000,000, or nearly two-thirds of our direct war costs.

During the first three months our war expenditures were at the rate of \$2,000,000 per day. During the next year they averaged more than \$22,000,000 a day. For the final ten months of the period from April, 1917, to April, 1919, the daily average was over \$44,000,000.

Although the army expenditures were less than two-thirds of our direct total war costs, they were



nearly equal to the value of all the gold produced in the world from the discovery of America up to the outbreak of the European war.

The pay of the army during the war cost more than the combined salaries of all the public school principals and teachers in the United States for the five years from 1912 to 1916.

The total war costs of all nations were about \$186,000,000,000, of which the Allies and the United States spent two-thirds and the enemy one-third.

## America's War Loans to Foreign Nations

Great Britain .....	\$4,166,318,358	Greece .....	\$15,000,000
France .....	3,350,762,930	Estonia .....	13,999,144
Italy .....	1,648,034,050	Cuba .....	9,025,500
Belgium .....	375,280,147	Armenia .....	11,959,917
Russia .....	192,601,297	Finland .....	8,281,926
Poland .....	135,661,659	Latvia .....	5,132,286
Czecho-Slovakia ..	91,179,527	Lithuania .....	4,981,627
Serbia .....	51,153,159	Hungary .....	1,685,835
Roumania .....	36,128,494	Liberia .....	26,000
Austria .....	24,055,708		
Total .....	\$10,243,267,532		

## 145 American Merchant Vessels Sunk

In addition to the four United States naval vessels sunk by the enemy, there were 145 American merchant vessels lost, with a gross tonnage of 17,000 in naval and 354,449 in merchant vessels. Of these, 19 were sunk with a loss of 67 lives prior to April 6, 1917, when America entered the war. The total loss of lives on American ships during the war was 775 men, women and children—703 by torpedoes, 38 by gunfire, and 34 by drifting mines.

## U. S. Public Debt and Liberty Loans

Preliminary statement of the public debt of the United States Government June 30, 1919:

<b>Bonds:</b>	
Consols of 1930 .....	\$599,724,050.00
Loan of 1925 .....	118,489,900.00
Panamas of 1916-36 .....	48,954,180.00
Panamas of 1918-38 .....	25,947,400.00
Panamas of 1961 .....	50,000,000.00
Conversion bonds .....	28,894,500.00
Postal savings bonds .....	11,349,960.00
Total .....	\$883,359,990.00
First liberty loan .....	1,984,796,730.00
Second liberty loan .....	3,566,464,969.00
Third liberty loan .....	3,958,560,357.50
Fourth liberty loan .....	6,794,504,557.00
Total .....	\$16,304,326,613.50
Total bonds .....	17,187,686,603.50
<b>Notes:</b>	
Victory liberty loan .....	3,467,840,956.77
<b>Treasury certificates:</b>	
Loan and tax .....	3,273,000,000.00
Pittman act .....	178,723,000.00
Special issues .....	182,494,490.00
Total .....	\$3,634,217,490.00
War savings certificates (net cash receipts) .....	956,023,121.45
Old debt on which interest has ceased .....	2,355,250.26
Non-interest bearing debt .....	236,382,738.07
Total gross debt .....	\$25,484,506,160.05

## Casualties of Principal Nations

	Number mobilized	Killed and missing
Russia .....	10,000,000	1,700,000
France .....	9,717,000	1,398,000
Great Britain .....	5,704,000	680,000
Italy .....	5,250,000	469,000
United States .....	4,237,348	116,492
Belgium .....	165,000	44,000
Greece .....	200,000	12,000
Roumania .....	800,000	400,000
Serbia .....	500,000	369,000
Germany .....	12,870,000	1,700,000
Austria-Hungary .....	7,228,000	2,100,000
Bulgaria .....	600,000	250,000
Turkey .....	1,000,000	500,000

Whitaker's English Almanac, 1921

## American Casualties

Killed in action .....	35,585	Died from accident, etc. .....	8,092
Died of wounds .....	14,742		
Total battle deaths .....	50,327	Total all deaths .....	116,492
Died of disease .....	58,073	Wounded in action .....	205,690
Total casualties .....	322,182		

## 2191 Officers Killed in Battle

There were 11,000 Regular Army officers who served in the Great War. Of these 148 died on the field of battle, including 1 general, 5 colonels, 11 lieutenant-colonels, 16 majors, 45 captains, 55 first lieutenants, and 15 second lieutenants. Of the 189,000 emergency officers who served in the war, 2043 were killed. The deaths per thousand of the regular officers were 13.5 and of emergency officers 10.8.

## British Casualties in War

	Killed & died	Missing & prisoners	Wounded
British Isles .....	662,083	140,312	1,644,786
Canada .....	56,119	306	149,733
Australia .....	58,460	164	152,100
New Zealand .....	16,132	5	40,749
South Africa .....	6,928	33	11,444
India .....	47,746	871	65,126
Other Colonies .....	3,649	366	3,504
Totals .....	851,117	142,057	2,067,442

## Total Strength of British Armies

British Isles .....	5,704,416	South Africa .....	136,070
Canada .....	640,886	India .....	1,401,350
Australia .....	416,809	Other Colonies .....	134,837
New Zealand .....	220,099		
Total .....	8,654,467		

## American and British Armies in France at Time of Armistice

	Ration strength	Combatant strength	Rifle strength
British Armies .....	1,731,578	1,164,790	461,748
American Armies .....	1,924,000	1,160,000	322,000

## Demobilizing the Army and Navy

The stupendous task of demobilizing the 4,000,000 men comprising the United States Army, including the 2,180,000 officers and men sent overseas and the 2,000,000 or more who were assembled in cantonments on this side, was begun a week after the signing of the armistice. First to be discharged were the 71 development battalions in the United States, embracing a total of 100,000 men; this was followed by the discharge of all "conscientious objectors" who were not imprisoned for military offenses, in addition to the men serving in the Spruce divisions and the United States Guards. The demobilization then proceeded in this order: Railroad troops, depot brigades, replacement camps, and combat divisions.

This entailed a prodigious amount of clerical and inspection work, such as the checking up of equipment, the preparation of record cards, the payment of bonuses, the computation of war risk insurance, the medical examinations, etc. For this purpose demobilization detachments were established at 36 camps and cantonments throughout the country, to which returned troops were forwarded for discharge.

The number of United States transports available at the time of the signing of the armistice was increased by the remodeling of 56 cargo-transports, the assignment of 15 pre-dreadnaught battleships and cruisers by the Navy, and the use of ten large passenger ships which originally belonged to Germany in addition to several ships secured from other countries. The greatest troop carrier in the United



States service was the Leviathan (formerly the Vaterland), which carried an average of 12,000 men each month. Of the strictly American ships the Manchuria made the best record, with a total of 39,000 troops returned, while the Mongolia made the next best record, returning 30,000 soldiers to the United States. The average record of our troopships was one complete trip every 35 days, the fastest transports being the Great Northern and the Northern Pacific, which made the trip in 19 days.

Within seven months after the armistice, 1,500,000 American soldiers had been brought home. By October 1, 1919, the number reached 1,933,156, of whom 1,675,733 were returned in United States transports manned and operated by the Navy. Previous to the armistice 12,211 troops and passengers, mostly sick and wounded, had been returned to the United States. Thus a total of 1,686,944 troops and passengers were

transported from Europe in vessels manned and operated by the Navy.

#### Occupations of Americans During the War

Men in France fighting .....	1,400,000
Men in France behind lines.....	600,000
Men in army in United States.....	1,700,000
Men in Navy .....	550,000
Men in war work in United States....	7,150,000
Men in non-war work in U. S.....	18,600,000
Total men of producing age.....	30,000,000
Old men and boys.....	24,000,000
Total males .....	54,000,000
Women in war work .....	2,250,000
Women in non-war work .....	25,750,000
Total women of producing age.....	28,000,000
Old women and girls .....	23,000,000
Total females .....	51,000,000
Grand total .....	105,000,000

## AMERICA BEARS LARGEST COST OF WAR

Her Net Outlay Nearly One-Fourth of the Entire War Expense  
 Losses Greater Than Those of England, France, Italy, Belgium or Japan  
 Cost to America \$41,873,948,225 in Grand Total of \$177,000,000,000  
 European Nations Reimbursed by Seizure of Valuable Territories  
 America Practically Excluded From Indemnities and Reparations

**A**LTHOUGH America's military participation in the World War was of briefer duration than that of any of the other great Allied and Associated Nations, still she was called upon to bear a larger share of the cost of the war than any other nation, not excepting France or England.

It cost the United States \$41,202,634,000 to liberate Europe from the deadly grip of her foe and at the same time "make the world safe for democracy" — a sum which no longer staggers the imagination, but which nevertheless was greater by \$600,000,000 than the total of England's net expenditure in the war, \$3,600,000,000 more than France's net expenditure, nearly three times the whole cost of the war to Italy, seventeen times the cost of the war to Belgium, and two hundred times greater than the net cost to Japan.

But whereas the European and Asiatic Allies have variously reimbursed themselves either in whole, or in large part, for their war losses, through indemnities from the Central Powers and by the seizure and exploitation of the resources of vast empires in Africa and Asia, the United States has irrevocably lost the whole, or nearly the whole, of the vast treasure which she expended in behalf of all humanity. Alone among the nations of earth, America did not seek profit by the war. Unlike her allies, she had no selfish imperialistic ends in view, no greed for empire, no desire to exploit the resources of the lesser nations; above all, no intent to hold weaker nations in tyrannous subjection.

Our European Allies, though they have recouped their war losses to a large extent and are well along the road to prosperity, have shown no present inclination toward repaying the loans, totaling ten

billions of dollars, which they received from the United States Government during the war. Indeed, they have even deferred payment of the interest on those loans, although annually for the past three years (1922) they have expended sums far in excess of the amount of the deferred interest charges in those loans in making war against subject races and peoples whom they insist upon exploiting and keeping in subjection to their rule. In effect, wherefore, America, though the historic champion of all oppressed races, has been placed in the paradoxical position of financing the oppressive wars and massacres which have been staged in Europe and the Near East since the armistice.

#### War Expenditures of Seven Nations

Senator Spencer of Missouri, on March 5, 1921, presented to the United States Senate the following statement of the war expenditures of seven of the Allied and Associated Powers, that of Imperial Russia being unavailable:

	Gross cost	Credit Indem.	Final loss
United States ..	\$44,173,948,225	\$2,300,000,000	\$41,873,948,225
Great Britain ..	51,052,634,000	9,850,000,000	41,202,634,000
France .....	54,272,915,000	16,000,000,000	38,272,915,000
Italy .....	18,680,847,000	3,500,000,000	15,180,847,000
Belgium .....	8,174,731,000	5,700,000,000	2,474,731,000
China .....	565,376,000	100,000,000	465,376,000
Japan .....	481,818,000	250,000,000	231,818,000
Total .....	\$177,402,269,225	\$37,700,000,000	\$139,702,269,225

Pursuing the subject of net war losses still further Senator Spencer drew up a trial balance, based on the theory that all loans and extended credits as between the friendly nations will some time be paid with interest, giving the following result:



France would charge off a total loss of.....	\$39,112,915,000
Great Britain .....	32,502,634,000
United States .....	29,788,612,225
Italy .....	19,140,847,000
Belgium .....	2,474,731,000
China .....	265,376,000
Japan .....	31,818,000

## How America Spent 44 Billions

The gross war loss of the United States (subsequently increased) was given in detail as follows:

Military cost (as per Secretary Houston).....	\$24,010,000,000
Extra cost, Government functions.....	4,500,000,000
Civilian damages, shipping loss, pensions.....	2,300,000,000
Red Cross contributions .....	978,612,225
Other relief contributions .....	490,000,000
Congressional European relief .....	100,000,000
Grain Corporation credit .....	60,375,000
War Department credits .....	50,000,000
Shipping Board credit .....	3,580,000
Credit by American nationals to European nationals .....	1,921,481,000
Government loans to European nations.....	9,760,000,000
Total .....	\$44,173,948,225

## America Not Entitled to Indemnity

Alone among the conquering nations, the United States appears to have been practically excluded from participation in the indemnities wrung from the Germanic powers. Under the Treaty of Versailles, Germany engaged to pay indemnities under three heads only. She is (1) to repay Belgium for all foreign losses made by that nation during the war, in addition to all fines and taxes imposed by German officials upon Belgian cities and citizens during the occupation of Belgium; (2) she is required to pay damages to persons and property of civilians in all enemy nations; (3) she engages to pay pension and dependency claims to citizens of enemy nations, capitalized on the basis of the French rates, which are much lower than our own.

Under this arrangement, the United States will be reimbursed only to the extent of her ship losses, which are small, and for a certain number of pension and dependency claims, capitalized on the basis of the French rates. These claims, it is estimated, will amount in the aggregate to less than 5 per cent of all the moneys spent by the United States during the war. Practically the whole of our stupendous national outlay, forty-four billions of dollars — a sum equal to the aggregate of a tax of nearly \$400 on every man, woman and child resident in these United States — is thought to be a dead loss.

This nation, upon its entrance into the war, nobly disavowed any selfish aims. Its two-fold purpose in taking part in the war was to rescue Christian Europe from the peril of Kaiserism and to make the world "safe for democracy" first, by liberating all captive or oppressed nations from the rule of the tyrannic powers, and then by assisting those liberated nations to assert their statehood in their own way. We did not then, nor do we now, ask to be reimbursed for our tremendous expenditure of life and treasure in saving Europe from pagan domination. We have not even pressed for the payment of the interest charges on the loans, totaling ten billions of dollars or more, which we made to the Allied Powers in their hour of peril, although those same debtor states are now annually spending sums greatly in excess of the amount of the defaulted interest

charges on the American loans in imposing their oppressive rule on weaker nations subject to them, and whose captive fate they themselves might now be sharing had not American valor rescued them from the tightening grasp of the enemy.

## What England Gains by the War

Unlike America, the European Powers have taken steps to reimburse themselves fully, and at the expense of other races, for their expenditures of life and treasure during the War. Let us examine the balance sheets of these nations and see wherein they have profited while America has lost as a result of their war efforts. According to the table, presented by Senator Spencer, the gross cost of the war to Great Britain was \$51,052,634,000. Offsetting this colossal amount is a credit indemnity of \$9,850,000,000, leaving a net war loss to England of \$41,202,634,000, or \$671,000,000 less than the net war loss of the United States.

In addition to the cash indemnity, England already has acquired a vast new Empire in Africa, 845,439 square miles in extent, whose value is probably greatly in excess of the total aggregate of her expenditures during the war.

These "credits" to England's account include German East Africa, with a foreign trade of \$24,750,000; 4,000,000 head of cattle, 6,000,000 head of sheep, and 1,000 miles of railroad; German West Africa, with a foreign trade of \$18,000,000; 205,643 head of cattle, 472,000 head of sheep, 500,000 goats, a diamond output of over \$35,000,000 in the past seven years, and 1,034 miles of railroad; Togoland, with its vast and immensely valuable forests; the Pacific Islands of New Guinea, the Bismarck Archipelago, the Samoan and Solomon groups.

From these new possessions alone, which were originally turned over to the Allies for their general account, but have since been allotted to the British Empire, England could derive a revenue sufficient to liquidate her entire debt.

But England is seeking other sources of reimbursements. She has laid claim to the economic control of Mesopotamia, with its fabulously rich oil wells and copper mines, and if permitted to acquire a monopoly of the products of that vast region, would have no reason longer to lament her expenditures during the war.

## What France Has Gained

The estimated gross cost of the war to France is \$54,272,915,000, from which is to be deducted the sum total of her cash indemnity, \$16,000,000,000, leaving a net loss of \$38,272,915,000, or thirteen billions of dollars less than the net loss of the United States by the war. France in addition, acquires Alsace-Lorraine, and all the private property of German nationals within those provinces.

The value of this concession to France may easily be computed when it is known that the annual iron production of Alsace-Lorraine is 21,136,265 tons, the annual coal production 3,795,932 tons, the annual wine output 2,672,318 gallons.

To France's credit account must also be added the 14,000,000 tons of coal per annum which Germany must supply to her from the Barre Basin mines, other coal deliveries totaling 210,000,000 tons in ten years; 115,000 tons of chemicals, principally benzol, coal tar and sulphate ammonia; the live stock



which Germany is required to furnish France, including 90,000 cows, 100,000 sheep, 30,000 fillies, and 10,000 goats.

In addition France gains Germany's former possessions in Equatorial Africa, and control over the State Bank of Morocco. France also, by virtue of her secret compact with Great Britain, expects to gain the economic control of Syria, whose revenue ought to be sufficient to pay the annual interest charges on her national debt.

#### Belgium's Financial Recovery

Belgium's gross war losses, estimated at \$8,174,731,000, is largely offset by a credit indemnity of \$5,700,000,000, leaving a net loss of \$2,474,731,000, scarcely 5 per cent of America's net loss. Her further credits include 80,000,000 tons of coal to be delivered by Germany, and valued at present charges at more than one billion of dollars. In addition, she acquires new territories, Moresnet, Kriese, and Malmedy, whose value is sufficient to cover the remainder of her losses.

#### Italy's Balance Sheet

The gross cost of the war to Italy is estimated at \$18,680,847,000, and if the credit indemnity of \$3,500,000,000 be subtracted, her net war loss is seen to be \$15,180,847,000. Offsetting this, Italy acquires 12,000 square miles of Austrian territory in Trentino, Istria and part of Dalmatia, whose value is in the billions; she receives an allotment of \$3,000,000,000 of bonds; Germany must also deliver to Italy within ten years 85,500,000 tons of coal, which at the prevailing cost would aggregate \$1,700,000,000 in value.

#### Japan Gains Financially

Japan profited greatly by the war. Her estimated expenditures were only \$481,818,000, offsetting which is a credit indemnity of \$231,818,000. Japan reimbursed herself, with the consent of the Allies and at the expense of China, by seizing Shantung, comprising a population of 30,000,000 people, an immensely valuable "concession", which includes coal mines with an output of 814,000 tons per annum, two iron mines and two gold mines, besides 308 miles of railroad.

In addition, the Allies "allotted" to Japan a group of Pacific Islands north of the equator and covering 1040 square miles, which in equity and justice should have been ceded to the United States. Thus Japan, though her financial participation in the war was only one-tenth of one per cent of the financial participation of the United States, by virtue of being an ally of England, was given possession of islands which she had hoped would give her control of the Pacific, at the expense of the United States.

#### China a Heavy Loser

The net cost of the war in China in money alone was double the net cost to Japan. China spent \$565,376,000, but her cancellations amounted only to \$100,000,000, they being represented by the waiver of the Boxer indemnity and the cession of a small piece of German property in China. China's loyalty to the Allied cause was repaid with treachery, she being defrauded of her province of Shantung, which was "awarded" to England's ally, Japan.



# ARMIES OF MERCY

## The Army Behind the Army

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**I**T is the great tragedies of life that cause to shine forth like massive diamonds, those nobler qualities of men and women which otherwise often lie hidden beneath the surface, under normal conditions of our daily associations.

The American people have never turned a deaf ear to the cry of distress, whether from some section of our own land or from the oppressed and sufferers of other lands.

In the stress of the Great War there was a spontaneity of universal patriotic support to our Government and Philanthropic organizations unparalleled in the Annals of History.

In the Five Liberty Loan appeals, the amount asked for was greatly over-subscribed. In responding to the appeals of the Welfare organizations, authorized by our Government to engage in welfare service for soldiers, sailors and civilians in the homeland, in the war-torn countries of Europe, at naval stations, and on the high seas, the American people exhibited a degree of generosity unequalled in the history of humanity. These Armies of Mercy were thus sent forth on their stupendous task of relief work with ample financial assurance of being able to carry their service of love and sacrifice to every part of the globe where relief service was required.

The personnel of these great organizations, consecrated to service for soldiers, sailors and the civilian populations of devastated Europe was made up of devoted men and women (angels of mercy) who gave without reserve the best that was within them, even life itself, counting no cost too dear, no sacrifice too great, in extending the personal hand of help, comfort and cheer to the unfortunate millions of a cruel and unrighteous war.

Back of these great Armies of Welfare Service workers, were the men and women of the Christian church. All denominations of our country, Protestant, Catholic and Jewish, regardless of race, color or creed, united in a loving, sympathetic, co-operative movement to supply articles of comfort for our soldier and sailor boys. In every hamlet, town and city, throughout the broad land, men and women freely spent themselves in providing sweaters, scarfs, afgans, socks, wristers, comfort kits, clothing for refugees, and surgical supplies. This great multitude of workers counted no inconvenience or sacrifice too great, if only they might provide comfort and cheer to the men who had responded to the call of their country in behalf of freedom and humanity. Thus were the American people brought into intimate relations with the sufferings of the war-ridden countries of Europe, so that in the words of St. Paul, "their charity is spoken of throughout the world."

This upheaval of sympathy and eagerness to provide comfort and help sufferers of the War, whether soldier or civilian, Gentile or Jew, forms one of the brightest pages in the history of the World War.



# THE AMERICAN RED CROSS

## Relief Extended To Every People Regardless of Nationality

IN accordance with the principles of humanity and mercy imposed by the treaty of Geneva and the development of the Red Cross spirit through the years, the American Red Cross at the very outbreak of the World War in 1914 set itself the task of aiding the wounded and other victims of the fighting without regard to nationality. Plans to secure funds and make ready the personnel were at once laid. The attention of the American people was directed to the contributions sent by European Red Cross Societies during the Spanish War, and they were urged to help in the payment of the debt. President Wilson, as head of the society, added his appeal. As a result, sufficient funds soon became available.

### Early Relief Work Over-Seas

The difficulty of obtaining shipping space, owing to chaos in the ocean world, was overcome by the offer by the Hamburg-American Line of one of its liners, which was placed under temporary American registry, re-named the Red Cross, and sailed from New York September 12, 1914, heavily freighted with hospital supplies and with the first units of surgeons and nurses lining the rail.

During the period of the war in which the United States remained neutral, the American Red Cross sent to Europe 255 nurses, 71 doctors, nearly two million bandages, over a million surgical dressings, more than a million yards of gauze, a million pounds of absorbent cotton, half a million refugee garments, great stores of surgical instruments, drugs and anesthetics, a large number of ambulances, and four field hospitals, fully equipped. A sanitary commission of 43 persons was also sent to fight the typhus epidemic in Serbia.

The value of relief supplies shipped before America entered the war exceeded \$1,500,000, of which about \$350,000 worth went to the Central Empires. Personnel was assigned in France, Russia, England, Austria, Germany, Serbia, and Belgium.

During the spring of 1915, when it was felt that, as the war had been in progress for nearly a year, the sanitary services of the various belligerent countries should be well organized, the Red Cross decided to notify the respective countries of its intention to withdraw the surgeons and nurses. This notification was made on August 1, 1915, with the result that the American Red Cross reduced its efforts in Europe and eventually withdrew its medical and nursing personnel.

### When America Entered the War

When America declared war it became immediately apparent that the Red Cross faced a tremendous task. President Wilson clearly foresaw the duties that would be imposed upon it by virtue

of its Congressional Charter as the official volunteer relief organization, and on the same day he signed the joint war resolution issued to the people a statement in which he said:

"In order that the relief work which is undoubtedly ahead of us should be made thoroughly efficient, it is most desirable that it should be co-ordinated and concentrated under the organization. \* \* \* As the President of the American Red Cross, our branch of the great international organization, I most earnestly commend it to your confidence and your support. Upon your aid, upon the amounts and promptness of your gifts and co-operation, must depend the fulfillment of the duties that are imposed upon it. It serves so noble and beneficent a purpose that it must appeal to all who love their country and who love humanity."

On May 10, 1917, the President appointed a War Council of seven nationally known men, headed by Henry P. Davison, of New York, to direct all the activities of the organization in the war. The other original members of the War Council were Charles D. Norton, Maj. Grayson, M. P. Murphy, Cornelius N. Bliss, Jr., Edward N. Hurley, and William Howard Taft, and Eliot Wadsworth of the Central Committee, ex-officio members. Messrs. Hurley and Norton and Maj. Murphy were called to other duties and resigned from the War Council, their places being taken successively by John D. Ryan, Harvey D. Gibson and George B. Case. Mr. Ryan and Mr. Gibson were in turn succeeded by Jesse H. Jones and George E. Scott.

Then began the building of the organization through which the needs of the soldiers and suffering civilian population abroad were brought home to the American people, with the result that they contributed funds to the Red Cross with unprecedented generosity. A "Red Cross Week" for the collection of money was designated. It was proposed to raise \$100,000,000, but when all the returns were in it was found that \$114,000,000 had been subscribed. With this the Red Cross began its relief work on a huge scale.

### The Red Cross and the Soldier

The primary function of the Red Cross in war, of course, is to provide volunteer relief to the sick and wounded, and to serve as a medium of communication between the soldiers, sailors and marines and their families and the American people, but in the late war the American Red Cross activities for the fighting men covered a much wider field. From the time the American soldier entered the service until he had been demobilized, the Red Cross, at the request of the War Department, assisted him in many ways possible only to a large volunteer organization officially recognized. The Red Cross recruited, or-



ganized and equipped hospital and ambulance units, assisted in the care of the sick and wounded in emergencies and mobilized nurses for the Army and Navy.

The labor of volunteer Red Cross women provided the men in the service with knitted garments not a part of their Army equipment, as well as an unlimited quantity of surgical dressings and supplemental medical supplies. Canteens established at many points in the home country and in the war zone provided the soldier, en route, with food, tobacco and other creature comforts. Home Service helped to maintain morale by rendering assistance in many forms to soldiers' and sailors' families. American fighters held prisoners in enemy camps, after being located through the International Red Cross, were supplied by the American Red Cross with food and other comforts. The sick and wounded behind our own lines were cheered and aided in their convalescence, the home-coming and demobilized troops were helped in readjusting themselves to civil life, and, finally, the graves of the fallen were located and photographed at the request of the War Department for the comfort of the home folks.

The task of preparing the Red Cross for its service with the armed forces of the government began long before the April day that marked the entry of the United States into the World War. In the early part of 1915, the Department of Military Relief of the Red Cross, recognizing that hospital units must be organized and prepared in advance of war, if the Army Medical Service was to be able to meet the shock of such an emergency, began to recruit and organize at important hospitals and medical schools groups of doctors and nurses, who were to be available for service at any time with the Army Medical Corps. The work of selecting and equipping these units was pushed so energetically that when the state of war was declared six complete units were ready for service.

This early preparation enabled the Red Cross to respond immediately to the call of the Army, which came within two weeks after the United States went to war. The six units were mobilized without delay, and within seven weeks of the declaration of war one of them had reached England on its way to France.

By the end of June, 1917, organization of the Red Cross Base Hospitals, authorized by the Surgeon General of the Army, was being completed. Fifty of these units were turned over to the Medical Department of the Army and sent to England and France, and one to Italy, all for duty with the American Expeditionary Forces. These Base Hospitals were organized from the staffs of the best hospitals in the country. A typical unit contained twenty-two surgeons and physicians, two dentists, sixty-five Red Cross nurses and one hundred and fifty-two men of the Enlisted Reserve Corps.

The Red Cross assisted the Army in making up its complement of ambulance companies. Forty-seven ambulance companies were formed, transferred to the Army and assigned to the sanitary trains of various Divisions of the A. E. F., after training at camps and cantonments in this country. Each of these units consisted of 124 men. In all, the Red Cross enrolled for Army ambulance and hos-

pital service 2,489 physicians and 50 chaplains.

From the moment the great Army training centers sprang into existence throughout the country, the American Red Cross was on the ground ready to meet demands for supplemental assistance and equipment made upon it by the Army medical authorities. At each camp there was maintained a Red Cross convalescent house for soldiers mending from illness and for the accommodation of relatives summoned by the serious condition of their kinsfolk in the service.

During the terrible influenza epidemic in 1918, many lives were saved due to the varied forms of service, ranging from emergency nursing to the quick delivery of medical supplies, rendered by the Red Cross.

### The Sanitary Service

A Red Cross activity that had a direct bearing on keeping down sickness and death among the soldiers and sailors was the Sanitary Service established to extend aid to federal, state and local authorities in securing effective sanitary control in civil districts surrounding and adjacent to Army cantonments and Naval bases. The throwing of hundreds of thousands of men into camp, and the gathering near these camps of hundreds of thousands more of their relatives and friends and others, produced conditions highly favorable for epidemics and death.

Sanitary Service was operated through twenty-nine units assigned to districts in sixteen states and directed by officers of the United States Public Health Service. Their work included the supervision of public and private water supply; disposal of sewage and garbage to control fly-breeding; inspection of food supplies; control of communicable diseases; public health nursing; school medical inspection; and control through education and other means of social diseases.

Supplementing the work of the Sanitary Service, there were four Red Cross railway laboratory cars, fully equipped and carrying scientific personnel, and always ready for an immediate response at any Army or Naval base threatened with epidemic.

### The Motor Corps

Of inestimable value to the Red Cross was the Women's Volunteer Motor Corps, organized in 300 communities and having a membership of over 11,000 women. These women contributed not only their automobiles, but their own service; their cars covered a total of over 3,500,000 miles. Particularly in the influenza epidemic, and later in transporting the returned sick and wounded, did they distinguish themselves.

### The Nursing Service

The greatest achievement of the American Red Cross in the medical field, however, was its mobilization of over 23,000 nurses, nearly 20,000 of whom saw active service. As the reserve of the Army and Navy Nurse Corps, the Red Cross Nursing Service had at the time the United States entered the war about 8,000 nurses enrolled, and from that time until the armistice was signed it bent every effort, not only toward obtaining the additional thousands needed, but in keeping up the standard of requirements.



Of the nurses marshalled by the Red Cross, 17,931 were turned over to the Army Nurse Corps, 1,058 to the Navy, 284 to the United States Public Health Service, and 604 were in Red Cross activities abroad. Of the total, approximately 10,500 saw service overseas. At the conclusion of hostilities there were 255 gold stars on the service flag of the Department of Nursing, representing the number of nurses who gave their lives in the line of duty, 92 of them abroad.

#### The Canteen Service

General efforts by the American Red Cross for the welfare of the soldier began from the time he left home for the training camp. At railway centers all along the routes leading to the camps and cantonments, Red Cross canteens were established for his comfort.

It was natural that in heavy movements of troops there should be unavoidable accidents and delays, sudden illness and other inconveniences and discomforts. The Red Cross Canteen Service worked in closest harmony with the government, observing great care in the maintenance of secrecy concerning troop movements. At the more important stations canteen huts, hospital transfer rooms, information booths, reading rooms, telephone booths, shower baths, swimming facilities, lunch rooms and other conveniences were provided, and at other points Red Cross women with sandwiches, hot drinks and tobacco were on hand when troop trains passed through. Before hostilities ceased more than 700 canteens were in operation, requiring the services of 55,000 women canteen workers, all full-time volunteers.

Arriving at the camps the soldiers found the Red Cross prepared to perform many services for them. Red Cross Chapter members in every part of the country had been knitting sweaters, wristlets, mufflers, helmets and socks and filling comfort kits to be issued to the soldiers to supplement their Army equipment. In addition, there was distributed great quantities of writing paper, tooth brushes, razors, bed supplies, pajamas, sheets, pillow cases, blankets, property bags, bandages, and other supplemental hospital supplies and medicines.

In camps the Red Cross, at the request of the War Department, supplemented the regular hospital service by extra attentions to the sick and wounded. This included daily visits to cheer the patients and to extend such assistance as was needed and approved by the military authorities. It developed that convalescent soldiers had no place for recreation save in the wards and corridors of the hospitals, so the Red Cross built 92 convalescent houses in the training and embarkation camps. These buildings were intended primarily for the use of convalescents, but were available for such other use as the military authorities might designate. They provided reading and writing facilities, games and entertainments. They contained rooms for the relatives of the men dangerously stricken, and, in some cases, quarters for nurses, who were also provided with recreation houses in 61 camps and hospitals.

#### Home Service

Red Cross Home Service, with which the soldiers first became acquainted in the camps, was an activ-

ity that was destined to prove of the greatest comfort and material assistance to a large percentage of the men and their families. Early in the war, it was recognized that the morale of the soldiers and sailors could be maintained at a satisfactory point only by relieving them of worry over home conditions. Similarly, it was necessary that the families, whose sons, husbands and brothers had been called to military duty, should not suffer unnecessary hardships.

Accordingly, Red Cross Home Service became a medium through which soldiers could receive direct reports of conditions at home, and families could be kept informed of the welfare of their sons. But Home Service went much further than this, for the Red Cross undertook, through 10,000 Home Service committees, to help soldiers' families who were in financial straits, or were beset by legal or other family troubles, or allotment and allowance tangles, and sometimes by depressing loneliness. The 50,000 Home Service workers, who never intruded, but who were at instant service when called by soldier or family, constantly spread the doctrine and practice of intelligent and substantial neighborliness to such an extent that more than 500,000 families were helped and the anxiety over home conditions allayed for a corresponding number of soldiers and sailors.

#### Field Service

Field service on a large scale was quickly organized when the Americans actually became engaged in the fighting. Mobile canteens were established for the dispensing of hot and cold drinks and tobacco to the men at the front, proceeding wherever Americans were stationed, and there was built up a system of supplying soldiers with socks, underclothing and other necessities to supplement the regular Army issue.

Activities of the American Red Cross Hospital Service ranged from rushing ether from Paris to the field operating rooms in attack emergencies to providing a 1,000-bed hospital in forty-eight hours. The value of supplemental medical supplies provided the Army ran into the millions. Twenty-four American Red Cross military hospitals and twelve convalescent hospitals for American soldiers were established in France.

#### Prisoners

As soon as Americans were taken captive, steps were taken by the American Red Cross to relieve their condition. Through the International Committee of the Red Cross the organization succeeded in locating these men, and individual boxes filled with food, chocolate, tobacco and other comforts were dispatched to them regularly; and other steps were taken through the International Committee looking to their humane treatment. The American Red Cross also made it possible to maintain communication between the prisoners and their homes. Toward the end of the conflict, with more than two million American soldiers in France, many of them sick and wounded in hospitals, the number greatly increased of those out of touch with home for various reasons, and here the Red Cross Home Service reached its highest value. A corps of Red Cross searchers was assigned to locate missing men and



to report their condition for the benefit of their families.

After the signing of the armistice, large groups of soldiers were permitted furloughs which took them to different parts of France, and there also they found the American Red Cross ready to serve them. In Paris it operated hotels and clubs for officers and enlisted men, providing sleeping quarters and meals at nominal rates, and on the Riviera and at other resorts made provision for the entertainment of soldier visitors, both convalescent and able-bodied.

#### On Other Fronts

The American Red Cross entered Italy at one of the real crises of the war, and endeavored to elevate the morale of the Italian troops in every way possible. When the Italians were forced back to the Piave in October, 1917, an emergency call sent to the American Red Cross in Paris brought ambulances and trains of supplies without delay. Various other activities to help the men in the trenches, including thirty-three canteens and assistance to the military hospitals featured the organization's effort in Italy.

One of the first steps taken by the American Red Cross in Belgium was to assist the Belgian Red Cross in the operation of twenty-eight military hospitals, providing the money to complete one of them. Surgical equipment for the field was also supplied, and eighty-two canteens capable of supplying 25,000 soldiers daily were established just behind the lines. Welfare work was carried on among the Belgian soldiers on leave who were unable to spend the time at their homes.

Relief of various kinds was also provided the Serbian soldiers and Russia's Army before the fighting ceased on the Russian Front, and later the Czechoslovaks in their epic campaign through Siberia.

When American troops were sent to Vladivostok and Archangel to assist in the Allied operations in those regions, the American Red Cross sent missions to provide recreation and comforts for the soldiers, and at the same time carry on relief work among civilians.

#### With the Navy

The relations of the Red Cross to the Navy paralleled its service to the Army, although, of course, on a smaller scale. For the Navy, the society organized eight base hospitals and seventeen Naval hospital units, one of the hospitals being established in England. A hundred motor vehicles were among the items of medical equipment supplied; provision in the way of canteens and lodging was made for sailors on shore leave and at Naval bases, and the sailors received knitted garments produced by the Chapter women workers, which supplementary protection against the cold proved of great value, particularly to the men of the destroyer fleet in their frigid patrol of the North Sea.

#### How the Women Helped

From the outset there was such an intense desire on the part of millions of women members of the Red Cross Chapters to make useful relief supplies, and so ready a response to every call made upon the Chapters, that the principal effort at National

Headquarters was to guide and systematize this work. Patterns, specifications and directions for surgical dressings, hospital garments and supplies, refugee clothing, knitted articles and comforts for soldiers and sailors were prepared after careful study and consultation with experts.

More than 8,000,000 Red Cross women were engaged in the task of producing comforts for the soldiers and relief supplies for abroad. The production totaled 371,000,000 articles, valued at over \$93,000,000. Of this over \$28,000,000 worth was distributed in the camps in the United States, \$38,000,000 worth was shipped to France, and \$12,500,000 sent elsewhere overseas.

#### Civilian Relief Abroad

From the moment the United States entered the World War it was clear that the task of the American Red Cross in helping the soldiers and sailors would be only one phase of its activities in the conflict. For nearly three years Belgium and a large area of France had been the scene of extensive military operations which resulted in untold suffering and hardships for civilians. Similar conditions prevailed in Russia, Italy and the Balkans, and even England had not escaped corresponding problems. The situation seriously menaced the morale of the Allied populations. Accordingly, the American Red Cross devoted a part of its energies toward relieving distress among the millions of refugees and distressed civilians in Allied countries, thus proving the determination of the United States and its people to give not only military assistance but the spiritual and material aid so necessary to morale.

#### In France

When the American Red Cross Commission to France arrived in that country in June, 1917, it found that virtually all men of military age were either in the army, making munitions or occupied in other callings directly connected with the war. Of the eighty-six departments, ten of those in the north were partly in enemy hands and one wholly occupied. All of these departments had been ravaged by military operations and large areas had been completely devastated. From these invaded departments about 1,500,000 refugees had been scattered over the rest of France. Beginning with December, 1916, over a thousand repatriates—women, children and old people, were daily arriving in France from Germany, via Switzerland, and it was necessary to provide them with housing, food and work. Many thousands of French soldiers had been crippled in fighting and had to be assisted in various ways. Tuberculosis had increased among the refugees and repatriates and there was a high infant mortality.

At once the Commission set to work. Its workers met the trains of refugees, provided them with food, built barracks for them, provided furniture and bedding, helped pay rent and strengthened in every way possible the hands of the local authorities. The Red Cross operated 67 hospitals and dispensaries, to which visiting workers and nurses were attached. The refugee population was assisted to return to the devastated areas, that they might cultivate the land and thus help solve the food problem. It undertook direct repair work in several villages which



had been rendered completely uninhabitable. It also extended assistance to 157 other relief agencies.

With the increase of military activity in March, 1918, when the reconstructed area was again overrun, the refugee problem again increased. The Red Cross work grew until it was using a million dollars monthly in its efforts for the displaced populations. Food, blankets, clothing, stores of all kinds were given to the terrified inhabitants who were leaving as fast as possible, and all transportation units had to be used, not for carrying supplies into the district, but for getting people out of it. Emergency canteens were established and doctors and nurses looked after refugees in temporary shelters.

It is estimated that over a million people were given aid at this time.

In its tuberculosis prevention work in France the Red Cross co-operated with the Rockefeller Commission. It assisted 847 institutions and 30,000 patients were thus directly reached and benefited. Red Cross doctors and nurses also put into operation a child welfare program that reached into nearly every department in France. They organized clinics, established hospitals and creches and gave exhibitions that were attended by more than 285,000 persons. Maternity hospitals were established, and a large hotel at Evian was converted into a children's hospital. The Red Cross also helped in the work of re-educating and assisting the more than 300,000 Frenchmen who, at the beginning of its work in France, were disabled in the war.

#### In Russia

The second undertaking of the Red Cross, looking toward the material support and heartening of our Allies was the dispatch of a special commission to Russia, and in spite of the chaotic condition in that country, it was able to relieve much distress. It brought in nearly half a million cans of condensed milk, thus helping save the lives of 25,000 children in Petrograd. It sent large quantities of drugs and medical supplies, and an ambulance unit of 125 cars.

The Commission assisted financially the families of Russian officers who were found destitute, and extended relief to thousands of Russians stranded in Switzerland as the result of the revolution, to Servian refugees in Siberia, and to workmen who were employed in keeping open the vital Murmansk railroad.

The Commission left Petrograd in March, 1918, as the increasing chaos was so seriously disrupting its plans, but at other points it carried on important relief work of various kinds. One million five hundred thousand dollars was appropriated to bring in food, drugs and soap for Russian soldiers returning from prison camps.

All the while the field of American Red Cross endeavor was growing in Siberia. The Czecho-Slovaks were making their drive across that country and in addition to providing hospitals, doctors, nurses and medical equipment and supplies for their sick and wounded, the Red Cross extended relief of numerous

kinds to the refugees abandoning their homes in advance of the fighting. Serious epidemics broke out in the interior of Siberia and hospital trains were rushed in by the Red Cross to combat their spread. The Red Cross assisted in the rescue of victims of the terrible "death trains" that wandered through Siberia freighted with dead and dying prisoners and in the efforts to rescue the thousands of Russian children abandoned in the Urals after being taken out of the cities to escape hunger.

#### In England

In England, in addition to gifts to London hospitals, the Red Cross maintained maternity and child welfare centers, and gave employment to women who had suffered financial losses through the war in its workshops, which turned out surgical dressings and garments. It also looked after British dependents of American soldiers.

#### In Belgium

In Belgium, along the Flanders front, the Red Cross was of great service in easing the distress and hardship incident to the hurried evacuations during the German offensive of March, 1918. It constructed a village of 50 cottages at Havre to house Belgian refugees and did other work similar to that carried on for French refugees. Working with Queen Elizabeth and private agencies, it assisted in maintaining 75 colonies of Belgian children.

#### Italy and the Balkans

Among the half million helpless people who fled southward when the Italians were forced back to the Piave, the Red Cross work was also carried on. Among other activities, a village of 91 buildings was put up by the Red Cross outside Pisa to house 2,000 Venetian refugees. Extensive operations were also carried on in Greece, Serbia and Roumania.

#### \$400,000,000 for Relief

Between the day the state of war was declared and the signing of the armistice the American people donated to the organization in round numbers \$400,000,000 in money and supplies. In a single campaign, the Second War Fund Drive, more than \$169,000,000 was subscribed, although only \$100,000,000 had been asked. At the beginning of the war the membership totaled 500,000, divided among about 500 chapters. By November 1, 1917, the enrollment had increased to 5,000,000 with 3,287 chapters. At the end of the Christmas Membership Drive there were 22,000,000 members. The second annual Roll Call, in December, 1918, came after the armistice was signed, but although hostilities had ceased, 19,000,000 Americans enrolled. This fact is sufficient, for it proved that the American people were satisfied with the war record of the American Red Cross—that they believed in it and the idea of Service for which it stands, and that they felt that its work should be continued in peace time on a larger scale than ever before.



# THE YOUNG MEN'S CHRISTIAN ASSOCIATION

## —THE RED TRIANGLE—

### Its Service to the Soldier and Sailor Throughout the World

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WITH the declaration of War on Germany by the United States, April 6, 1917, the Young Men's Christian Association promptly placed itself and its entire resources at the disposal of the nation.

By reason of the wide range and nature of its regular work, the Association was admirably equipped to serve the Army and Navy in a most vital way, both in the homeland and overseas.

The Association had a valuable preparation and experience in military and naval work on which to draw—experience acquired in serving the soldiers and sailors through the Civil War, the Spanish-American War, the Russo-Japanese War, and on the Mexican Border.

For twenty-five years, the Association had been in constant service with the men of the Regular Army and the Navy, in their permanent posts and stations. Also from the beginning of the World War in 1914, it had rendered to prisoners of war, in all the belligerent countries, and to certain of the European Armies.

#### Mobilizing its Forces

While no one at the beginning anticipated the enormous proportions of the task, which the Association would ultimately be called upon to perform, it was recognized, however, that it was great enough to command all the resources of the organization.

The better, therefore, to mobilize and concentrate its forces to meet the gigantic emergency, a National War Work Council was formed, representing all the various agencies of the organization—Local Association—State Committees—International Committee—and charged solely with the responsibility of financing and prosecuting the new war work.

#### The Symetry of Manhood

The fundamental purpose of the Association's existence is the symmetrical development of young manhood, and it carried over into the war work the ideal symbolized in its emblem, the triangle, which during the war became familiar throughout the civilized world.

The triangle with its three sides represents the completeness of human nature in its three aspects—body, mind, spirit—no one of which, the Association holds, can be neglected if a well proportioned manhood is to be attained or even approximated.

It was natural, therefore, that the service which the Association sought to render should express itself by means of recreational, educational and religious activities, and these formed the basis of its program, although the abnormal conditions of

military life, necessitated additions and modifications at certain points.

The very task of projecting these activities on such a prodigious scale, and at such great distances, made it inevitable that much of the energy of the organization should be expended upon the intermediate processes involved in making workers, and supplies available for the soldiers and sailors, such as the recruiting, training and transportation of personnel, the construction of buildings and equipment, and the purchase and distribution of supplies.

#### Athletic, Educational and Religious Work

The chief object of the athletic work was that of interesting and enlisting every man in some form of physical recreation, and to this end mass games were extensively promoted, but the encouragement of specialized sports also served to arouse interest.

Educational classes and lectures were provided wherever war work was carried on, and in the A. E. F., particularly, a great, independent educational system was built up, covering the whole field, from the elementary school, to the university. Hundreds of musicians, actors and other artists were recruited for the entertainment of the Army, and moving pictures were shown on a vast scale, but perhaps the best feature of this work was the extensive development of such talent among the soldiers themselves.

Religious work proceeded along the lines of promotion of Bible study, distribution of Christian literature, and preaching. Many of the most eminent clergymen of America served in this way.

The war developed large tolerance and co-operation among men in matters of religion. Often the same building was used for religious service by the Catholics, the Jews and Protestants alike, at different times.

#### The Y. M. C. A. Hut

In almost every phase of the war work, both at home and abroad, the actual point of contact with the men, and therefore, the very aim and apex of the whole complex organization behind it, was the hut. As a result of long experience during the course of its history, the Y. M. C. A. had developed as one of its usual instruments, an elaborate and costly building, furnished with specialized equipment, designed to meet the particular needs of men and boys. Among troops in the field, obviously, such an instrument was impossible, and it is one of the outstanding object lessons of the Association's war work, that a valuable social service can be accomplished with an inexpensive building and simple



equipment—a lesson which is already bearing fruit in the establishment of community centers on such a basis, in small towns and rural communities in this country and in Europe. The term "hut" was used without reference to its literal meaning, and was applied to all sorts of buildings, from the great Eagle Hut on the Strand in London, which covered an area of 35,000 square feet, and contained a restaurant, canteen, kit-room, lounge-rooms, rest-room, billiard-room, concert hall, dormitories, shower-baths and barber-shop, down to the humblest barn, tent or dugout which of necessity was utilized as an Association center in a crowded temporary training area or at the front.

Whether a pretentious structure or a mere shelter, the hut was rarely always crowded, because it was in any case the social center of the military community. Under adverse conditions in temporary quarters, or devastated areas, there were to be found in the hut at least, writing materials and a modest supply of the biscuits, candy and tobacco which were often unobtainable elsewhere.

If military conditions permitted, there were also hot drinks, served without charge, although in many instances even this simple service was impracticable, because a very small column of smoke would have assisted in the direction of the enemy's gunfire.

In the more permanent locations, the hut held out a host of added attractions. Sometimes it was the only well lighted and comfortably heated building available for the soldier's use. In addition to writing materials and the canteen, there were books, magazines and newspapers from home, pianos and other musical instruments, and games.

Here were also American women, bringing a touch of home life and womanly influence, and ready to perform any service, from dancing to mending clothes. The soldier might here attend a religious meeting of his own faith, or be entertained by a lecture, moving pictures or vaudeville. In short, the hut constituted the soldier's last touch with home in the midst of strenuous military conditions, and in a measure took the place of store, club, theater, school, church and home.

With the hut as its point of contact and the ideal of symmetrical manhood as its objective, the Y. M. C. A. carried its helpful ministry to millions of men in many of the armies engaged in the great struggle. Wherever there were American soldiers—in the United States, in France, in Germany, in Italy, in Russia—the Association was with them. In addition, it served, among others, men in the armies of France, Italy, Russia, Japan, Portugal, Poland, Greece and Czecho-Slovakia, and prisoners of war of nearly, if not quite, every belligerent nation that had troops in the field.

#### Administration in the United States

In the United States, the administrative problems involved were simplified by their distribution among six regional organizations whose areas of responsibility coincided with those of the Military Departments of the Army. A seventh had charge of work in the Insular Possessions and other scattered outlying points where American troops were stationed.

At the time war was declared, the Association was carrying on its standard program of activities in the permanent posts of the Regular Army and in

the Navy Yards, and this was continued and expanded as occasion demanded throughout the war, but the greater part of its work was done in the training camps and cantonments which were established after the war began. Officers' Training Camps, National Guard Camps, National Army Cantonments, Naval Training Stations, Aviation Camps, units of the Students' Army Training Corps in the colleges, and many other centers where smaller bodies of troops were assembled, all received the benefit of the Association's service.

The enormous extent of this service and the vast numbers of men reached, in this country alone, are indicated by the following, which represents work done by the six Departments up to July 31, 1919:

#### Service Rendered in the United States

Number of working centers .....	641
Number of working units .....	1,171
Estimated attendance at buildings .....	374,853,699
Number of envelopes given out .....	286,961,916
Participants in athletic events .....	37,023,048
Spectators at athletic events .....	52,270,670
Number of educational classes .....	392,019
Attendance of educational classes .....	7,350,606
Number moving picture entertainments .....	112,530
Attendance moving picture entertainments .....	454,570,748
Number of other entertainments .....	108,365
Attendance at other entertainments .....	46,448,097
Number of religious meetings .....	180,464
Attendance at religious meetings .....	22,231,960
Scriptures or Scripture portions distributed .....	3,411,910

#### Meeting Special Conditions

Two branches of the home work, because of the different conditions under which they grew up, perhaps deserve special mention. It was the Association's aim to serve the soldier, at every point of his military experience, and in the effort to meet his needs during the periods when he should be traveling, and therefore out of reach of any permanent center, secretaries of the Transportation Bureau accompanied troops traveling on trains and on ocean transports, furnishing information, distributing without cost such supplies as writing paper, chocolate, chewing gum and cigarettes, and serving the men in every way possible. On transports the equipment included also moving picture outfits, musical instruments and athletic goods.

The other distinctive service in this country was that rendered to workers in war industries, which made Association privileges available for enlisted men and civilian employees in navy yards, arsenals, ship yards, munition plants and logging camps.

Substantially the same program was provided for these men as for soldiers, and the work proved to be of such value that since the end of the war it has been continued as a permanent enterprise at many points, where no industrial welfare work had been done before.

#### Service to the Sailor Boys

Sailors were always welcome in the Army huts, but in many ports and other cities at home and abroad where large numbers of sailors were accustomed to spend their shore leave, special arrangements were made for the Navy, in addition to the work done at the permanent navy yards and training stations in this country.

A specially appreciated service was rendered at the scattered naval stations overseas, where small groups of men were located, often in isolated spots



without other resources for recreation. Such were the naval aviation camps along the coasts of France and Ireland, the mine-laying bases in Scotland, and the bases of Corfu and Gibraltar.

#### Preceded the Army Overseas

Among Americans overseas the Y. M. C. A. improved its opportunity for service as promptly and as widely as at home. Its representatives met the vanguard of the American Expeditionary Forces on their arrival in France, went with them into the training camps, on the march to the front and at last went with the Army of Occupation into Germany.

From small beginnings, the overseas work grew with the Army, enlisting a personnel of 12,428 workers who were carefully selected from approximately 150,000 persons who responded to the various calls of the Association for volunteer workers. Over half of the Y. M. C. A. Secretaries serving in peace-time work joined the armed forces of the nations.

The volunteer workers came from all walks of life, more than 1,700 ministers entered overseas work. Hundreds of these volunteered for such active service as motor-car driving, warehouse work and field service. Bankers were found in every department of service; doctors and lawyers were among the successful field and hut secretaries. There were pianotuners, undertakers, insurance men, hotel men, newspaper men, editors, policemen, railroad men, real estate dealers, hundreds of teachers, college students, and former "Y" Secretaries. There were men from the farms and from high places in the church. In one sector a minister was chosen for certain service because of his quickness and accuracy in figures, while one of his parishoners, a chemist, was acting chaplain of a regiment and was cited for bravery under fire while burying fallen comrades on the field of battle.

In another sector, a probate judge ran a canteen, assisted by a rancher. Their goods were delivered by a clergyman driving a motor truck, whose assistant was a floor walker from a California dry-goods store. They received their goods from a banker, whose warehouse superior was a teacher. All workers were asked to give the maximum of service without pay. In most cases this involved financial sacrifice. Home allowances for the support of dependents were based upon actual needs of the individual case and averaged about \$100 per month.

The Association served the soldiers from more than 2,000 centers of its own, besides touching the life of thousands of soldiers outside of its established centers. It erected about 475 huts, purchased and set up 1,000 tents, and made necessary repairs and alterations in a multitude of rented buildings.

#### Working Under Strenuous Conditions

The problems which the Association faced in Europe were far more difficult than those in America. It was separated from its base of supplies by 3,000 miles of ocean.

The pressure on available shipping was so great, owing to the ravages of submarines and the transport requirements of the Army itself, that during practically the entire period of military operations the Association had at its disposal less than half

the space, estimated as necessary to keep it adequately provided, with workers and material.

The Association had therefore to depend for supplies to a large extent on European countries, which since 1914 had felt the pinch and pressure of economic conditions of war at close quarters, and whose stocks were depleted by reason of the decrease in productive labor.

At the same time, it was working under the disadvantages and in the midst of active military operations, where every other interest must give way to immediate military necessity.

More than once it occurred that when the Association had succeeded in obtaining a fleet of motor trucks, or a supply of building materials, the urgent demands of the military situation compelled the Army to requisition them for its own use.

Troops were moved frequently and at irregular intervals, and even when at rest, were scattered in small groups over wide areas. Consequently, thousands of Association centers were equipped and opened for periods of from five days to five weeks, only to be closed and never used again for Association purposes.

All these conditions were recognized as inevitable, from the very nature of the war itself, and were cheerfully met, by such means as were available, but nevertheless, they helped to make it impossible for the Y. M. C. A. to render that fuller measure of service which it was otherwise prepared to give, and for lack of which it was criticized in some quarters.

#### Extraordinary Tasks Assumed

These limitations would have made the task difficult enough had the Association restricted itself to its regular program, but it was called upon to perform for the soldiers in Europe certain additional large and taxing services, for which in America no special provision was necessary because they are so commonly available. For example, owing to the lack of banking facilities, arrangements were made whereby Army checks and other American checks, could be cashed at Y. M. C. A. quarters, and whereby money could be sent by the soldiers, without cost for handling, to their homes or elsewhere. There were sent to the United States more than 300,000 such remittances, aggregating more than \$20,000,000, resulting in a great saving and convenience to soldiers and their families.

Again, in order to provide hotel service for officers and enlisted men, at as low a price as possible, and in some instances for the purpose of improving moral conditions, the Association established hotels and restaurants, at the ports, and in Paris, London, and other cities and centers of troop concentration. The rates at these hotels were fixed with a view to covering cost of operation only, not including rent.

#### Providing Vacation Service

It was, of course, impossible for American soldiers in Europe to spend their periods of leave at home, as the British and French soldiers were able to do, and one of the most useful services rendered by the Y. M. C. A. was the provision of vacation centers.

Some of the best known holiday resorts in Europe were utilized for this purpose, including Aix-les-Bains, Chamonix, St. Malo, Nice and Monte Carlo.

The Army paid for the transportation, board and



lodging of the men, and the Association assumed responsibility for their entertainment. Sight-seeing excursions by boat, by motor-car or the hike, moving pictures, vaudeville, dances, and summer or winter sports were available, to occupy the soldier's entire time, without cost to him.

Nineteen of these Leave Areas, as they were called, including thirty-nine towns, entertained a total of nearly 2,000,000 visitors.

#### The Canteen Taken Over at Army's Request

The largest of these extraordinary tasks undertaken by the Y. M. C. A. in the A. E. F. was the conduct of the canteens or post exchanges. Ordinarily this business enterprise is handled by the Army itself, but in order that the large number of soldiers required for the purpose might be released for their primary functions of training and fighting, the Association, at the Army's request, took over the canteens and operated them under Army regulations, until April 1, 1919, at which time the direct military operations having ceased, the Army was again in a position to assign soldiers to this important work.

The canteens supplied to the soldiers such articles of common need as cigars, cigarettes, tobacco, matches, chewing gum, biscuits, jam, canned fruits, sardines, chocolate, candy, handkerchiefs, sewing kits, shoe polish, soap, razors, razor blades, shaving sticks, shaving brushes, tooth paste, tooth brushes, candles, and many other articles.

The volume of business transacted by the Association in connection with the canteens, of which there were at one time nearly 1,600 under its direction, was in excess of \$37,000,000.

Because of the shortage of transportation, the sinking of ships loaded with Y. M. C. A. supplies, and the utter impossibility of obtaining adequate supplies from America, the Association was obliged to go into the already depleted markets of Europe and even compelled to undertake the manufacture of a large proportion of its canteen supplies.

The higher costs of supplies purchased in Europe, including the excessive rates of transportation, led to charges of profiteering against the Association. The canteen prices were fixed by the Army on the basis of actual cost of goods, plus estimated cost of transportation and insurance, with no charge for rent of buildings, salaries or expenses of canteen workers, or any other overhead expense, the service being entirely gratuitous. The credit balance of about \$500,000 which remained at the end of the entire transaction, and which would probably have been wiped out altogether if all proper charges had been included, was turned over to the American Legion (representing the ex-service men), in accordance with the practice in the Army of using canteen profits for the benefit of the soldiers.

#### Recreational, Educational and Religious Activities

The canteen and other special services went forward side by side, with the regular recreational, educational and religious activities of the Association.

The great educational system developed by the Y. M. C. A. for the soldiers' benefit, was finally taken over, almost in its entirety, by the Army, and became its "Educational Corps."

For the amusement of the A. E. F. a thousand entertainers were obtained from this side and about

1,500 miles of moving picture films were sent from the United States, adding much variety to the entertainment of the boys "Over There."

The athletic program, in which the Army authorities actively co-operated, proved its value particularly in the long weeks and months following the Armistice, when discipline was somewhat relaxed, arduous training and fighting were over, and everyone was impatient to return home.

Games of all sorts for everybody kept bodies exercised and minds wholesomely occupied.

It is estimated that during the first six months of 1919 there were more than 27,000,000 participants in athletic events under joint Army and Association direction, and more than 29,000,000 spectators.

A series of A. E. F. championship contests afforded opportunity for keen competition, while the Inter-Allied Games, for which a special Stadium was erected and named in honor of General Pershing. Here representative athletes of eighteen different nations participated, promoting a spirit of good will among the men, in the various Allied Armies, and particularly interested the representatives of the newly constituted nations in American sports.

#### Meeting Difficult Situations

An extensive work, reaching with its beneficent influence many millions of men, other than our own sons in Europe, Asia and Africa, grew out of the work which the International Committee had begun, before America entered the war, on behalf of certain Allied Armies and all prisoners of war.

It is possible here to indicate its nature and extent only in brief outline. Something of its variety is shown by the fact that it called for the distribution of reading matter in thirty-six different languages and dialects.

This work was similar in character to that carried on in the American huts. The basic Association principles were kept in view, but their application was adapted to varying circumstances.

For example, some of the Governments imposed the condition that there should be no religious teaching of any sort; religious principles, therefore, had to be inculcated through the force of influence and example rather than by direct instruction.

One of the largest contributions was through the athletic program, for most of these countries had never appreciated the constructive value of physical training as a factor in good citizenship.

It was the universal experience that after brief acquaintance with the Association's work, governments and military officials of the Allied Armies co-operated heartily in the undertaking and made generous provision of facilities.

The first enterprise of this character was begun in the French Army, in co-operation with a French committee. Foyer du Soldat, "Soldier's Fireside", was the French name for the American hut. From twenty such French huts in 1915, their number grew before the end of the war to 1,452, serving French and Colonial troops not only in France but in the Near East, Africa and Siberia.

A similar work, inaugurated later, helped enormously in the much needed task of building up morale in the Italian Army. In addition to its usual activities, the Association co-operated with the Ital-



ian Government in a campaign of patriotic propaganda and education in war aims.

### Extends Activities into Russia

Morale building, again, was the chief motive which led the Association into Russia after the First Revolution. Living in the midst of dire hardships which fell to the lot of Russian soldiers in those days, its secretaries did much to keep up the spirit of the Army until Russia was finally driven out of the war.

Then they remained and engaged in relief work and other forms of social service on behalf of the civilian population, such as the distribution of food in necessitous cases, the aiding of refugees, the establishment of playgrounds, the training of native physical directors and play leaders.

A floating agricultural and welfare exhibit was organized and sent to the cities and villages, along the Volga, demonstrating scientific methods of farming and modern ideas of community service.

This work continued until hostilities between the Allies and the Soviet Government necessitated the withdrawal of American welfare workers.

Allied Armies in Czecho-Slovakia, Poland, Greece, India, Egypt, Palestine, Mesopotamia, and East Africa also profited by the widespread activities of the Y. M. C. A., as well as scattered units of some of these and other Armies in active service on the Western Front.

In the Chinese Labor Battalions, brought to France to do manual labor behind the lines, a work of most far-reaching significance was accomplished, particularly along the lines of education and physical training. Many of these men learned in France to read and write their own language.

### Ministrations to Prisoners-of-War

To the 6,000,000 soldiers confined in prison camps throughout the world, the ministry of the Y. M. C. A. probably meant more than to any other one group of men in the great conflict.

Here, where as a result of long confinement in idleness, and often amid the most abject surroundings, men were threatened with physical, mental and moral disintegration, it was more necessary than anywhere else that the ideals represented by the Association should be held clearly before them, and that there should be offered a program that would help to keep them physically fit, mentally keen and morally upright.

This was the first work undertaken by the Y. M. C. A. in connection with the war. Being a great welfare organization, of the greatest neutral nation, it was in a unique position to render this service, and the prison camps of all the belligerent countries, except Turkey, were made accessible to it, on the basis of international reciprocity.

After the United States entered the war, the American Association still maintained its work among prisoners in enemy countries, but, with the exception of the senior secretary in Germany, who remained there throughout the war, the American secretaries were replaced by citizens of neutral countries.

Whenever practicable, the administration or the recreational, educational and social activities in the camps were placed in the hands of the prisoners

themselves, through committee organizations, both for the sake of keeping them occupied and because from the nature of the work, the number of secretaries had to be carefully restricted.

In addition to these activities, much was done to relieve pressing personal needs in camps, where suffering was the worst. In co-operating with various Governments, other welfare agencies, and individuals, where food, clothing and medicines were distributed, to the relief of much suffering, and the saving of many lives.

An information and correspondence service was also set up, through which anxious families at home were able to obtain information as to the location and health of their loved ones, held in enemy prison camps.

### Generous Support—Unstinted Service

The vast work accomplished by the Y. M. C. A. in the greatest conflict of the ages, which has been but briefly presented, covering its activities in America, with the American Expeditionary Forces Overseas, with the Allied Armies in various theaters of war throughout the world, including all departments of military and Naval activities, the Aviation Fields of Europe, Allied Navies and Naval Bases, among the 6,000,000 prisoners of war, without respect to nationality—would have been impossible but for two factors.

The first and most important and far reaching was the generous financial co-operation of the American people.

In three successive campaigns, the people of this nation cheerfully contributed a total of nearly \$160,000,000 for this patriotic purpose. The amounts given in the three campaigns were as follows:—\$5,000,000; \$53,000,000; \$100,000,000—showing how rapidly the work increased in volume, and also the heartiness with which the nation appreciated the service through its progressive stages.

The other factor was the faithful and unselfish service of a body of devoted workers who gave themselves unstintingly to the interests of the country's defenders and the cause of humanity. The sources from which the Association could draw the personnel for its war work, were limited by the prior claim of the Selective Service Law, upon men of younger ages, also, by the high standard of physical efficiency demanded for Y. M. C. A. service with troops in the field, and by exacting requirements in respect to loyalty, character and ability.

It would have been impossible, even had it been desirable, to supply from the regular staff of the Association, the much larger needs of the war work. Many of the secretaries came from that source and served most acceptably, but the great majority, led by patriotic motives, came from the arts of commerce, and the professions.

Whether in direct contact with the troops, or engaged in less thrilling but equally arduous duties of office or warehouse, they gave as a rule, their interest and strength whole-heartedly to the tasks assigned them.

Particular tribute is due the women workers, who achieved a notable record of usefulness, and of whom as the war went on, an increasing number came to the Association's aid with their wholesome influence and sacrificial service.



## Supreme Sacrifice—Military Honor

Ten Association secretaries, eight men and two women, were killed in action; 143 gave their lives in other ways while in the service; 174 were wounded or injured; five became prisoners of war.

Military decorations, citations and commendations of Association workers, by the American Army, numbered 324, and similar honors from Armies of the Allies, were conferred upon 251, of whom 53 received the Croix de Guerre.

# YOUNG WOMEN'S CHRISTIAN ASSOCIATION

## —THE BLUE TRIANGLE—

### Activities In the Homeland and Overseas

At the call of war, the Young Women's Christian Association of the United States of America, an organization with a record of over fifty years of experience with girls, promptly responded, adapting its many-sided program to the varied emergency needs among women. "In service for the girls of the world" became the slogan under which it reached out to women war workers and sufferers wherever the need was most acute.

#### Y. W. C. A. at Home

Hostess houses in training camps, embarkation and debarkation ports, emergency housing in cities and towns, inflated much beyond normal population, service centers for newly recruited industrial groups, and an added emphasis on work for the colored and foreign-born, stand out as honor stars in the record of the Association's war service in the Homeland.

Y. W. C. A. Hostess Houses, usually bungalow-shaped buildings with fireplaces, colorful draperies, comfortable wicker furniture, writing tables, and cafeteria service, came to be veritable "corners of home" to the thousands of visitors—mothers, wives, sweethearts and friends—who thronged the camps.

In June, 1917, the first small building was erected at the Plattsburg Barracks, and from then until January 1920, when the few houses still needed had been transferred to Army and Navy control, Hostess House work was carried through in 124 centers. Seven of these centers were in Hawaii, and two in Porto Rico,—116 were in army training camps,—4 in naval stations,—2 in marine and 2 in hospital camps, and 7 in cities which were embarkation or debarkation ports.

In every case the Hostess House was elastic to the needs of the hour. In the beginning, providing a meeting place and an eating place for guests was the main issue. Later, during the tragic influenza epidemic, many houses were transformed into hospitals, some were offered as quarters for Red Cross nurses, and still others as makeshift lodgings for relatives of soldiers who were ill.

A third unexpected, but important service which fell to the lot of some of the Blue Triangle hostess house workers, was the care of more than 3000 war brides and their 382 children, representing nine different nationalities.

The following table will indicate the largeness of the service rendered by a typical hostess house. The activities of a single month being as follows,

25,503 Meals served
4,493 Women entertained in guest room
2,742 Letters posted at information desk
2,644 Questions answered
545 Phone messages received and delivered
529 Parcels checked
470 Connections made between friends
107 Babies cared for in nursery

Prior to the armistice every camp was crowded with soldiers in training for overseas and of women visitors, taxing capacity and resources to the utmost. During the influenza epidemic some hostess houses were converted into hospitals, others used as quarters for Red Cross nurses and many accommodated the relatives of sick soldiers, 3,500 being lodged in one house in a single month.

#### Emergency Housing

Congestion in army centers and housing shortage became overnight occurrences early in the war. Frequently not even makeshift provision had been made for the colonies of laundresses, waitresses, clerks, stenographers, and women factory workers who had been gathered into the mushroom communities.

In Washington the number of Government employees had swelled from 15,000 to 125,000, and hotel rates were being charged for skylight accommodations. When Liberty Theaters were opened, in two of the largest training areas, women entertainers were not allowed to spend the night in camps and were too far from cities to reach comfortable sleeping quarters before morning.

Emergency relief for these abnormal conditions was undertaken by the Housing Committee of the "War Work Council" of the Y. W. C. A. The demonstration efforts of the Association—dormitories erected under the supervision of the Committee, or rented buildings, such as former sanitariums or private schools, transformed into lodging and recreation centers—served as suggestions to Government and Labor Boards, which later attacked the the problem of housing women workers.

#### Burdens of Women Lightened

War conditions brought sharply to the attention of society three groups of women—industrial workers, colored girls and foreign-born women. The Association immediately strengthened and enlarged its scope of work for these groups, opening industri-



al service centers, where constructive recreation held first emphasis—establishing vacation camps—promoting lecture programs on social morality—recruiting and training colored leadership—and for the foreign born, establishing translation service bureaus in camps and communities, Y. W. C. A. branches known as “International Institutes,” and inter-country service, involving the locating of refugees and relatives, and port protection and assistance.

### The Blue Triangle Overseas

The overseas war work of the Young Women's Christian Association was undertaken in response to appeals, both from representative women and from government officials of European countries. From March, 1917, the date of the first request, to July, 1920, 407 Blue Triangle workers had been sent overseas from America, while many more, already in Europe, had been taken over from other organizations, and the Association had carried on war work in nine countries.

### The Y. W. in France

The service in France fell into two main divisions—first, among women serving the American Expeditionary Force, such as nurses, signal corps girls, French and British army clerks; and second, among French women in industry. The thirty-seven nurses' clubs directed by the Y. W. C. A. came to be known as oases, where relaxation and recreation brought relief from physical and emotional overstrain. Comfortable, properly supervised places in which to live, topped the list of Blue Triangle activities for the other women workers with the A. E. F.

In co-operation with a French Canteen Committee, and the “Union Chretienne des Jeunes Filles” (the French branch of the World's Young Women's Christian Association) American workers adapted to French conditions the industrial service center idea already tried at home. The opening of each “Foyer des Allies”, where girls employed in industrial plants could lounge at noon, buy hot chocolate or soup, to combine with the sandwiches brought from home, join recreational clubs or enter educational classes, invariably brought an appeal for others.

At the close of the war, French women expressed their gratitude in practical terms, by gradually assuming the financial support of the twenty-eight foyers, the six recreation centers, four summer camps, and one student hospital, established under American direction. The number of American leaders gradually decreased, and in memorial to their efforts, the French Association went on multiplying in personnel, financial strength and scope of activities.

Of all the network of service centers brought into being by the American Association, only the “American Women's Club” in Paris, existing like “a bit of the U. S. A. in the land of Lafayette” for the welcoming of American women, and four cemetery “Rest Huts”, for the accommodation of tourists to the graves of America's soldier dead, remained under American control by the summer of 1921.

### Service in Russia

The work of the Association in Russia became a history of brave beginnings, inevitable retreats, re-

advances, and finally little more than the hope that the seeds that had been sown might eventually bear fruit when the whirlwind of social unrest had become stilled. During the first year of effort, in spite of revolution, lack of food, and personal danger, Blue Triangle workers had established service centers in Petrograd, Moscow, and Samara—class registrations were good and increasing monthly, with gymnasium an almost one-hundred-per-cent popular choice. Late in 1918, however, government edict forced American workers to abandon Central Russia and move on to Archangel. Both there and in Vladivostok they opened a hostess house for American soldiers, and a service center for Russian girls.

With the withdrawal of American troops, even this work was discontinued and by the summer of 1921 Blue Triangle activities were confined to two hostels and an employment bureau for the large numbers of Russian refugees in Constantinople, and club and recreational work for the Russians and Nationals of Reval, Esthonia and Riga.

### The Work in Italy

In Italy the general restlessness of the people, the influx of refugees, and the stimulation of war industries, caused such congestion in cities that the program of the American workers was rusticated to nine centers—Rome, Florence, Genoa, Milan, Trieste, Spezia, Palermo, and Turin.

As in France, clubs and hostess houses for American Army Workers and Foyers for Italian munition girls, sprang into being wherever the need was greatest. Hotels, to relieve the housing shortage, and to provide suitable living conditions for women students, were everywhere emphasized. The Cafeteria, introduced in Milan (the first women's restaurant in Italy) proved so popular that it survived the war and promises to become a permanent institution.

Emigration or port work, which frequently included the temporary housing and feeding of emigrant girls, the maintenance of rest rooms, sewing rooms, information bureaus and even recreation yards, centered in Genoa and Naples, and formed the first links in the chain of migration service bureaus which the Association is establishing in important port cities throughout the world.

### The Near East

Much of the so-called war work of the Association followed the Armistice in point of date, although the conditions to be met were essentially those of war, with the added misery and devastation resulting from military operations.

In the Near East, Blue Triangle workers were sought in 1919, to direct houses already established by the Near East Relief, for girls rescued from Turkish harems. Co-operative participation in the management of these homes, sewing classes in which they could make their own clothing and acquire a means of support at the same time, and much needed play periods, was the routine provided for these Armenian girls. In 1919 the Constantinople service center, which had been obliged to close during the early war days, was reopened. In less than two years it had outgrown the quarters provided for it, and served as a model for similar service centers in Smyrna, Beirut and Adana.



## Young Women's Christian Association

### In Czecho-Slovakia

The establishment of the Y. W. C. A. or "Ifka" in Czecho-Slovakia was also directly due to the war, although post-dating the Armistice in point of time. Through their President's daughter, the women of this newly created Republic, eager to share in full the privileges and responsibilities open to them, turned to America for workers, to direct a social survey of Prague.

The Survey, which was undertaken by Blue Triangle workers, was not yet completed, when a request came for a demonstration Y. W. C. A. leaders' training course, and dozens had to be turned away in the selection of the thirty which the summer school could accommodate. Even before the close of this school, the women leaders of Czecho-Slovakia had resolved that a Y. W. C. A. organization, patterned after that already evolved in the United States, should be an integral part of the woman-life of their Republic.

As a result, in less than a year after the arrival of the first American workers, the "Ifka" of Czecho-Slovakia included activities in eight centers, a permanent training school for native leaders, a large playfield near Prague, children's playgrounds in other cities and towns, and a fully equipped typical city branch in Prague.

### Activities in Poland

Polish-American girls, trained in first aid, practical nursing and the rudiments of social service, made up the personnel of the Blue Triangle units sent to the relief of Poland early in 1919.

Under the direction of the Children's Welfare Committee of the Polish Government, these units, known as "Polish Gray Samaritans", took up their service in the land of their ancestors, organizing soup kitchens and milk depots, undertaking social "case work" among the poor, acting as assistants in hospitals and nurseries, and conducting a canteen service for women soldiers who, as late as 1921, were not yet demobilized.

As living conditions became less acute, other American workers turned to the organization of recreation centers and clubs for nurses, business women and industrial girls.

### Appeals from Other Countries

The marvelous work wrought through the Y. W. C. A. service and the adaptability of its many-sided program to any people and every emergency, called forth earnest appeals from Belgium, Roumania, Servia, Greece, Lithuania, Egypt and Jerusalem for American workers. In response the American Association undertook the beginning of foyer and hostel service in the first two of these countries.

### In the Role of Foster Parent

In all of its overseas efforts, the purpose of the American Association was not to assume a permanent responsibility, but rather to offer emergency aid and demonstration service, until each country could assume its own support and leadership. France was the first to attain complete self-reliance. Gradually the other countries began tipping the scales toward independent management. In its war relations, the American Y. W. C. A. may be likened to a foster parent who cared for, guided and trained adopted children until such time as those children could assume leadership and financial responsibility for themselves.

### American Generosity

The wide range of the Association's activities and extensive scale upon which the work was conducted became possible because of the generous gifts of the American people.

The Association's share of the United War Work Campaign contributions was \$12,750,000, to which was added interest on bank balances of \$25,319.22, making a total budget of \$12,775,319.22.

Post-Armistice activities, or more properly, "reconstruction work", was rendered possible because of the original size of the war-fund gift, a tribute to the magnanimity of American War Givers.

## KNIGHTS OF COLUMBUS IN THE WAR

### The Only Secret Organization Officially Authorized to Engage In Welfare Service

THE Knights of Columbus was not originally organized as a philanthropical society, being primarily a fraternal secret order, brought into being and developed, to meet the social and fraternal needs of Catholic men, including insurance benefits.

At the time the United States declared war on Germany, the organization had a membership of approximately 450,000 in this country, and were thoroughly organized from the local council up through the state, national and international organization.

The field of philanthropy and welfare service was practically an unexplored expanse to the Knights. They had, however, acquired a limited experience in welfare work on the Mexican border in 1916, where they rendered a very acceptable service, erecting

some 20 huts at military centers, providing religious comfort and entertainment to a large number of men, during those days of "Watchful Waiting" along the Rio Grande.

The opportunity for a larger service came in 1917 with the declaration of War with Germany. In view of the large number of Catholic young men in the American Army and Navy, many of whom being members of the Knights of Columbus, the organization felt itself impelled to offer its services to the Government, and take its place in the ranks of the great philanthropic organizations dedicated to the service of humanity.

The combined service of these societies of philanthropy, to the soldier and sailor, throughout the



World War and Reconstruction Period, following the Armistice, in grandeur of personnel, nobility of service, and wide area of operations, transcends all philanthropic endeavor of recorded history.

The Knights of Columbus crowned itself with honor through its contribution to this marvelous work, especially in view of the many Catholic young men in the Army, whose religious interests the Knights made special provision to serve.

The Catholic Church imposes particular obligations upon its members, and the Knights of Columbus, being purely a Catholic organization, stood in a particularly favorable position to supplement the necessarily inadequate facilities provided by the Army for meeting the particular Catholic requirements in their religious ordinances.

Although the K of C were inexperienced in the field of philanthropy, they were fortunately, however, in a position to profit by a short cut to proficiency in welfare work, through the long experience and carefully developed plans and methods of the organizations already operating on an extensive scale in all the military centers and naval areas.

With commendable spirit, the Knights gradually adjusted themselves to their newly adopted program of personal endeavor.

In harmony with the regular welfare organizations, they proclaimed the broad, non-sectarian principle of ministration to all men, regardless of religious faith, nationality or color, making special provision, of course, for meeting the religious needs of Catholic soldiers, this being the prime and noble motive actuating participation in welfare work.

As a working fund with which to launch their program, the Knights proceeded to raise approximately \$1,000,000, through a levy upon its membership of some 450,000, amounting to \$2.00 or a little more per member.

#### Work in the Homeland

With the budget in hand raised from its membership, they proceeded to erect recreation buildings in some of the larger camps, suitably constructed to accommodate religious services and entertainments, with reading rooms equipped with literature, games, etc., and provided with a personnel to care for the needs of the many men who found within these quarters a little touch of home.

To provide means for a more extensive work, the Knights inaugurated a general nation-wide campaign for funds. The public, irrespective of church affiliation, Catholic, Protestant and Jew alike, responded to this appeal most generously, contributing to the treasury of the organization some \$13,500,000. With this substantial budget in hand, the Knights began to broaden their operations. By early autumn of 1917, their work had been extended into the national army cantonments. In the following months, activities were gradually extended to the regular army and the national guard camps, not neglecting the sailor boys on vessels in the harbors and at the naval training stations.

The work in the home field was conducted from New Haven, Conn., the headquarters of the organization. There were employed in the various military centers and naval areas, a staff of about 600 secretaries.

The overseas activities were directed from New York headquarters with a purchasing department, shipping department, and personnel department.

#### Work Overseas

In November 1917 the work of the K of C in the military camps and naval centers, in the homeland had become well established. The organization management felt that they could render a particularly desirable service to the large numbers of Catholic soldier boys of the A. E. F. in France, and along the Western front, adopting the same broad program of service to Catholic, Jew and Protestant alike.

Accordingly General Pershing extended the necessary permission, and their first overseas commissioner, Walter N. Kernan introduced the K of C chaplains and secretaries into the A. E. F. in France. After the work had partially developed, Commissioner Kernan was succeeded by Lawrence O. Murray, followed, a little later, by Edward L. Hearn, a past Supreme Knight of the K of C. Commissioner Hearn proved to be a man of broad vision and sympathetic nature, with special executive ability. He threw his whole heart and energy into the work of extending the co-operative service of the Knights, into all sections of military activities in the Western theater of operations.

Paris was the headquarters for the welfare service abroad, extending its activities into nine zones, each of these zones having a supervisor who directed the work of the secretaries and assistants in his particular zone.

The chaplains, secretaries and their assistants were gradually increased in the various zones until a force of about 1,000 were employed in overseas religious and relief work in France, Belgium and Italy. About 100 of this staff of workers were transferred to the British Isles—England, Scotland and Ireland—where they rendered a splendid service in bringing good cheer and a variety of entertainment, to thousands of men. The Knights organized a musical comedy and minstrel troupe, which toured the military centers, giving a series of entertainments to the delight and enjoyment of great throngs of the A. E. F.

Another feature of entertainment which proved very popular was a circus performance that was witnessed, it is estimated, by fully 3,000,000 soldier boys of the Allied Armies. In the field of athletics the Knights organized some spectacular stunts, outside the regular program of sports, notably a Marathon race from Chateau Thierry to Paris, a distance of about 40 miles; also a similar race from Cochem to Coblenz. They also put on an Aquatic Carnival at St. Nazaire which proved very popular. In boxing contests the Knights were particularly clever.

When American troops were transported to Russia and Siberia, representatives of the Knights went with them. When detachments of the U. S. Navy reached Japan, China and the Philippines, the Knights co-operated with other welfare organizations in providing entertainment and sight-seeing trips for the sailor boys. One of these trips penetrated the heart of the Japanese interior.

On the trans-Siberian railroad, the Knights improvised a "traveling hut," consisting of a box car, provided with a personnel and supplies. Through this simple but very practical expediency, they were able to reach many detachments of the A. E. F. otherwise inaccessible to them.

On all the transports conveying American troops to and from the battle zones, the K of C representatives were in evidence, to co-operate in welfare



work, movie shows, concerts, boxing and wrestling matches. On all these voyages the regular religious services were observed for Catholic soldiers, in the same general manner as those conducted in the K of C land operations.

When the Armistice was signed, and the "Army of Occupation" marched into Germany, the Knights proceeded to the Rhineland also. There they organized and supervised 86 clubs, composed largely of Catholic young men, with the view of increasing sociability, and providing comfort and entertainment for the men who found this period of waiting more monotonous than the prospect of life under fire.

In Coblenz the Knights established a doughnut and pie bakery, that achieved a tremendous popularity, as evidence of which, it is estimated, that this bakery turned out no less than 10,000,000 pieces of pastry over a period of six months.

In co-operation with other welfare organizations, the Knights rendered a greatly appreciated service in locating the graves of many fallen heroes for anxious parents at home. In the congested conditions of transportation, much baggage of the soldiers went astray—the Knights helped to recover large quantities of this lost baggage.

#### Reconstruction Work

With the signing of the Armistice and cessation of hostilities in all the war theaters, the Knights turned the activities of their organization into channels of reconstruction.

With a degree of commendable promptness, they began their employment activities. Thousands of young men had quit their various occupations and gone to the numerous camps in anticipation of military service. These thousands of men were now turned back to civilian life, and hundreds of them were assisted in securing their former positions or other lines of employment.

When it was definitely known that the homeward movement of the overseas troops would start promptly, the more urgent became the necessity of finding employment for the thousands of these fighting men, who had been removed for many months from touch with American industrial life.

The Knights realized that through their established organization over the country, they could be of special service to the thousands of returning Catholic men, and others as well, aiding in their reinstatement into the commercial and industrial lines of activity. To facilitate the position-finding prob-

lem, they organized employment bureaus in many of the great industrial centers. Representatives were employed to make a canvas of the large marts of industry in behalf of the returning service men. This agency co-operated with the Government service of employment, resulting in positions being secured for thousands of returning soldiers.

The next move along reconstruction lines was the establishment of technical training classes. Even before the Armistice, in anticipation of returning peace, some 20 camp schools had been organized. This work was extended and enlarged.

The work of technical training in the camps was gradually transferred to the larger cities, using the service stations previously established and maintained, for service men and their friends.

The Knights, to encourage academic training, on the part of former service men, offered, in 1919, 100 College scholarships, full four-year courses, in Notre Dame, Yale, St. Louis, Georgetown, and Massachusetts Tech. The demand soon exhausted the quota, and the number was increased.

The Knights offered the American Legion a memorial building to cost \$5,000,000, but the offer was accompanied by certain conditions and restrictions, and the Legion, owing to its cosmopolitan, democratic personnel, was obliged to decline the offer.

The French Government conferred the Croix de Guerre upon two K of C chaplains—Rev. John B. de Valles, and Rev. Osias Boucher, both of Massachusetts. Other K of C chaplains were cited for bravery, one of them for the remarkable bravery of serving a machine gun all night after members of the crew had been shot down.

The American people, through their generous contributions, provided the Knights of Columbus with a large trust fund for their War Welfare work. The organization first raised something over \$1,000,000 through a per capita tax on their membership.

Some \$13,500,000 was contributed through a special fund-raising campaign, conducted by the organization. Of the \$200,000,000 contributed by the American people through the three united War Fund Campaigns for Welfare Work, the Knights of Columbus received \$30,000,000, making a total trust fund budget of approximately \$45,000,000.

The splendid service along reconstruction lines, and educational work of the organization after the war closed, was made possible because of the generosity of the American people.

## THE SALVATION ARMY IN THE WAR

### Its Service In the Homeland and At the Front

**W**HEN the war came it found The Salvation Army ready. This readiness was expressed by a wire from Commander Evangeline C. Booth to President Wilson, offering to the Government the personnel of The Salvation Army, in the United States, for any service that it might be called upon to render. This offer was promptly acknowledged and accepted.

Organization for War Work immediately began to take shape. Commander Evangeline C. Booth promptly summoned a National War Work Council, which resulted in the creation of a National War Board, with headquarters in New York, while a supplementary Board, with headquarters in Chicago, was formed, dealing with all matters arising in the Western States. The appointment of National, Ter-



ritorial and Provincial War Secretaries immediately followed; thus the entire Salvation Army in the United States was speedily placed upon a war basis.

## War Service League

Then followed the creation and organization of the War Service League of The Salvation Army. This League functioned in its knitting and sewing circles, and great quantities of sweaters, helmets, hose, comfort kits, etc., were produced; these things being largely distributed through the Red Cross, with which organization The Salvation Army worked in hearty fellowship.

The inevitable loss of life was anticipated and condolence officers were set apart to minister to the bereaved families. A condolence card was printed, was greatly prized by very many of the recipients—the next of kin to the deceased soldier.

The Salvation Army War Board held to the view that the ground was well covered within the camps and cantonments, in the United States, and that for Hut and Hostel work The Salvation Army would be able to render better service if located outside; yet in most cases adjacent to the camps. Many Huts and Hostels with canteen service were established, all of which were exceedingly well patronized. Vast quantities of foodstuffs of all kinds were distributed over the counters. Abundant provision was made for men desiring to write to their friends. Paper, envelopes, cards, etc., were available without limit. In all the Huts, good libraries were established, mostly furnished by the American Library Association.

## Typical Hut and Hostel

The Hut and Hostel at Camp Dix was typical, and a review of the work there will serve to reveal the nature of the service rendered each center. A fine frame building, consisting of four floors and part basement. The half basement contained the light and heating plants, consisting of steam boiler and engines for the conversion of ordinary kerosene oil into gas. The first floor contained the spacious entrance hall, offices, soda fountain, lunch counter, dining room, recreation room, meeting room and other facilities, including a fine porch. All these rooms and conveniences were taxed to the limit. The mezzanine floor ran more than three-fourths around the building, ceiling that part of the first floor that covered the entrance way, offices, soda fountain, dining room, lunch counter, kitchen, game room, etc. This left the center of the first floor open for meetings and entertainments, the mezzanine floor having been used as a gallery during these proceedings. The mezzanine floor was very comfortably furnished with settees, etc., and was specially well appointed for the reception of friends. Off the mezzanine, too, were the private quarters of the management. The three upper floors contained one hundred rooms, always occupied to full capacity by soldiers and their friends. Many officers found the place one of great convenience as providing the most metropolitan hotel accommodations that could be had in Wrightstown, N. J., where Camp Dix was located.

The meetings conducted on Sunday were of a religious nature and shared fully the general popularity enjoyed by every branch of activity at this Hut. Entertainments of various kinds well utilized the spacious hall during the week.

Huts and Hostels and other War Institutions of

The Salvation Army were provided at the following places, all similar in the scope of the work carried on, the difference existing only in size and style of construction:

At debarkation points, such as New York, Boston, Norfolk, Newport News, Portland, Ore., Charlestown, S. C., etc. The Army provided good Hostel accommodation for service men, which was utilized to the fullest capacity in each case. The appreciation of the men was seen in their avidity to avail themselves of the service offered.

At each of these points, The Army had a corps of workers meeting the returning men, by which means they contributed to the heartiness of the home-coming, and most prominent among the multifarious service rendered, was that of sending telegrams to friends of the returning men. This wire service was entirely free to the men, and often thousands per day availed themselves of the opportunity, of announcing their safe arrival. This phase of the work brought very many responses from friends to the men, when they went from boat to demobilization camp.

These structures did efficient duty for the purpose for which they were erected; viz., the care and entertainment of service men and their relatives, up to the limit of demobilization.

Some of these buildings will remain as a permanency, and will be added to from time to time. Where a need for the work remains, there The Salvation Army will be found.

## Hospital Service

A system of hospital visitation was established wherein The Salvation Army women ministered to the wounded soldiers. The limitations imposed made this work less effective than was planned, yet a large number of our officers rendered a very helpful and appreciative service.

## Clothing Bureau Established

A unique feature of War Service was the establishment of a Clothing Bureau for returned soldiers, which did an excellent work. In one month, in Chicago alone, 494 applicants were listed, 371 of whom were assisted, the amount of help extended, amounted to the sum of \$6,874.30. In another month, in the same city, there were 725 applicants registered, 544 of the number being given help to the extent of \$15,543.05. The men in each case were deficient of the necessary clothing to return to private life. The principal bureau for this work was in Chicago.

## Naval and Marine Service

No discrimination was shown to one branch of the service as compared with the other. The men of the U. S. Navy and the Marines were served upon precisely the same basis as were the men of the Army. Whatever possible provision was made for the need of the Navy men, as in the case of the Club building in Brooklyn, which was adjacent to the Navy Yard and was specially fitted with the object of the social well-being of the large number of seamen who were always to be found there. The buildings in Norfolk, Newport News, Charleston, and Boston were specially appointed to meet similar need in those cities.

## Co-operated with Other Organizations

The Salvation Army joined hands with other Welfare Agencies in giving the men of the Fleet a great



welcome home upon its entrance into New York harbor, and for its part in this the warm commendation of the Commanding Admiral was received. Special automobile service was provided on the part of The Salvation Army for both Army and Navy men, and the sight-seeing cars were greatly appreciated.

The Army girls, with their great cans of coffee and savory doughnuts, were quite an institution when the Navy returned.

### Overseas Work

The overseas work was equally characteristic, if not more so, and received the universal approbation of both officers and men of the Expeditionary Forces, from General Pershing down to the humblest private in the ranks.

There were one or two important differences between the work overseas and that carried forward within the United States, chiefly seen in the fact that "over there" The Salvation Army toiled almost exclusively within the military lines, while in the homeland its activities were outside the camps, though usually within the zone of control.

The force overseas was never large, the Executive feeling that it would be wise to set quality before quantity. Thus at no time did the Army have more than 714 officers and other workers under its control in France with the A. E. F.

The original and controlling officer, Colonel Wm. S. Barker, was dispatched to France for the purpose of making a survey and report. The first contingent sent overseas was composed of both men and women. The women were as fully trained to meet the emergencies that were likely to face them as were the men, for in practice they had been doing it throughout their careers in The Salvation Army work; so it was no impossible problem for them to adapt themselves to the exceptional circumstances of camp life.

When the U. S. Forces were moving forward to the battle zones, as a matter of course, the women of The Salvation Army moved with their respective units, and carried forward their inspirational and welfare work, very often under heavy fire from enemy guns. Their service found an outlet even in such small and simple ministries as those of sewing on buttons, or repairing a rent in a uniform. The boys told the story so well and so widely about the doughnuts and pies that no more information concerning this work remains to be given publicly, unless it be again made plain that what was done in this line was, at times, done in spite of almost insuperable difficulties, having to do with both equipment and supplies. The co-operation of the military authorities often provided the necessary field range, and a captured German kitchen more than once provided the required larder, after proper precautionary examination, because of the exhaustion of utensils and frying fat at those front-line places.

### Distribution of Supplies

It would be difficult to tabulate the materials in the matter of distribution of supplies, such as doughnuts, pies, etc., but something of the size of this service can be gathered from the fact that as much as 120 tons of flour alone went overseas in a single month for this kind of work, besides large purchases made by agents in France. The generous allotment

of space in transports permitted the sending of supplies up to the extent of 500 tons in a single month, and the favoring assistance of the Quartermaster's Department of the United States Army was sufficient to secure the great quantities of sugar, flour, etc., needed in the production of the things that contributed to the comfort of the men in those strenuous days of varied military activities. In nine months there were nearly 600 tons of chocolate bars sent over by The Salvation Army for our troops. In addition to these supplies sent from America there was secured directly overseas, through a Purchasing Department in Paris, vast quantities of needed material. The canteen service was of a very general character, while the Army specialized upon doughnuts, pies, and coffee.

### Banking Department

A highly appreciated service was rendered through the establishment of proper facilities for transmission of money by soldiers overseas, to their relatives and friends in America. Many thousands of dollars passed through the hands of The Salvation Army in this way. The nearly 1,000 Army posts scattered all over the homeland, at which Salvation Army people were stationed, placed The Army in a peculiarly favorable position for doing this work. Through The Army agency a large number of friends sent money to soldier boys in the A. E. F.

### Special Service

The Salvation Army in France at all times endeavored to serve the friends at home, by caring for the grave of the boy who gave his life for the cause of humanity. Special Decoration Day services were promoted, and small American flags and flowers were provided.

There were many inquiries conducted through our properly organized Department for Missing Men, and the fears of anxious relatives were relieved in thousands of cases.

The U. S. Government accepted The Army's offer of a number of ambulances, which were all sent to the front, where they did continuous service for many months.

### Free Employment Agencies

During the past twenty-five years The Salvation Army has operated numerous free employment agencies throughout the United States, and when the soldiers began to return this work was greatly extended. The Army co-operated with the United States Department of Labor, Employment Service, and other affiliated welfare organizations, and were committed to a very definite program to secure satisfactory employment for discharged service men. The Army strongly recommended all men, where practical, to return to their home town, and, if possible, secure their old position, unless they had a more remunerative one in good prospect.

### Financial Support

The service rendered to the U. S. Army and Navy in the homeland and overseas was made possible through the generosity of the American people.

The Salvation Army's share of the United War Work Campaigns was \$3,741,120.47. In addition to this sum, The Army, through their nation-wide canvas, collected \$4,274,385.82, making a total budget of \$8,015,506.29.



# THE JEWISH WELFARE BOARD

## Its Work In the Homeland and Overseas

ON April 9, 1917, three days after the declaration of war by Congress, the Jewish Welfare Board was organized, co-ordinating the various Jewish Welfare Agencies of the United States into a single organization representative of American Jewry.

This Board was officially authorized by the Army and Navy to engage in welfare service among military and naval forces. The Magen David (Shield of David) was adopted as the insignia of the organization.

### Broad Policy of Service

The guiding policy of the Board was to serve all uniformed men, irrespective of nationality or religious creed. In addition it sought to make adequate provision for the special needs of men of the Jewish faith.

### Service in the United States

The activities of the organization were conducted through field secretaries and through officials of branch boards in communities. There were 509 secretaries serving in 200 camps, forts, hospitals, naval stations, minor camps and small forts. Every secretary was carefully selected, no one was considered who was not believed to be inspired with a conscientious desire to "do his bit" and who was not exempted from military service, through physical disability, limitation of age, or because of dependents.

A training school was maintained where prospective workers pursued an intensive course in the fundamentals of Judaism, regulations of military life, and essentials of the Board's service program.

There were erected 48 buildings at Army Cantonments and naval stations throughout the United States. The homelike atmosphere of these buildings proved popular places for the men during leisure hours. They came for conferences on personal matters. They attended entertainments, religious services, Biblical discussions, study classes, etc.

Every effort was made to preserve the religious life of the Jewish soldier. Services were conducted daily for the observers of Kadish (prayer for the dead) Friday evening, and Sabbath (Saturday) services were held, and on high holidays special services for the men in camp and adjacent communities. During the Passover (1918) the Government provided matzoth (unleavened bread), and for the same festival (1919), when the Board provided matzoth, the Government assisted in its distribution to soldiers and sailors in camps and on ship board. Special "soldier editions" of the Bible and Prayer Book were furnished, including numerous religious accessories. Many men, especially of foreign birth, found it difficult to adjust themselves to the new conditions. The workers, popularly known as "Star of David" men, sought the personal friendship and confidence of these men especially, and through counsel and

church eliminated doubt, worry, homesickness, and depression. They also maintained connection between the men and their families. The men confined in hospitals received careful attention, chatting by the bedside, writing letters, supplying reading material, arranging entertainment, etc.

During the influenza epidemic thousands of men, Jew and Gentile alike, were comforted by these devoted workers. There were also many matters of a legal nature which caused worry to enlisted men; in the adjustment of these troubles the workers gave valuable assistance.

### Wide Range of Service

While religious and personal service constituted the main elements in the early program, the conditions later demanded an extension of activities. Entertainment was a very important feature of the service. Specially organized vaudeville and concert units were sent on tours to the more isolated and distant camps and hospitals. A Jewish Opera Company, of high character, toured the camps containing a large percentage of soldiers of Jewish faith. In the summer there were outings to the country, boat rides, picnics, and athletic games. Over 10,000 entertainments were attended by approximately 3,500,000 men.

In the educational field, classes in English and Americanization subjects received special emphasis. Over 300 classes were organized, attended by more than 100,000 men. Lectures held at the camps proved popular. During the summer of 1918, 50 prominent Rabbis and laymen toured the camps and naval stations of this country. Their lectures and addresses were attended by over 200,000 men. English and Yiddish books, newspapers, and magazines were supplied.

The Board furnished and distributed in the camps and hospitals 20,000,000 soldiers' and sailors' letterheads, 10,000,000 envelopes, more than 4,000,000 post cards, large quantities of religious supplies, such as matzoth, soldiers' and sailors' Prayer Books and Bibles, holiday and special Prayer Books, religious accessories, religious and educational pamphlets, games, etc., etc.

The Board worked hand in hand with the other welfare organizations in all these activities. While welfare service was performed at the hospitals before the armistice, it was not until thereafter that the work was fully expanded.

The Hospital Service Division of the Board was formed in February, 1919. Fifty-four representatives, specially qualified to assist in the educational and recreational program, conducted for wounded and convalescent men, were stationed at 40 general hospitals; 17 base hospitals, functioning in physical reconstruction; 17 regular base hospitals; 13 debarkation hospitals; and 6 miscellaneous hospitals. Entertainments were arranged, educational classes were



conducted, and equipment was furnished to the educational and recreational departments of the hospitals. Fruits, delicacies, cigarettes, writing materials, and games were provided. A special pamphlet called "My Diary", containing valuable information for the patients, was prepared and distributed. More than 100,000 wards were visited.

Similar ministrations were conducted on warships and transports. Entertainments were arranged, smokes, candies, and delicacies distributed. The Board made a contribution of over \$14,000 toward the purchase of recreation and athletic equipment for the Navy. Thirty-one representatives were stationed on board transports, to serve the soldiers and members of the crews. Prayer Books and Bibles were supplied, and with the assistance of the chaplains those of Jewish faith were aided in observing their religious practices. The Jewish Welfare Board was active among members of the S. A. T. C. at various colleges throughout the country. It also extended its work, in accordance with the wishes of the War Department, to non-Jewish Russians and men of other Slovak races in the camps.

When the troops began to return to the United States, representatives of the Board were among those who greeted them at the Debarkation Piers. They met in all 453 returning transports, and distributed among the men comfort supplies as follows:

Post Cards .....	3,000,000
Handkerchiefs .....	1,500,000
Packages of Cigarettes .....	1,000,000
Packages of Matches.....	500,000
Packages of Chewing Gum.....	200,000
Bars of Chocolate.....	150,000

During the period of demobilization, while the men were waiting in the camps for discharge, the representatives were particularly vigilant in helping to maintain their morals.

After the men were discharged, an employment bureau was established and committees were organized in various cities, to aid returned Jewish soldiers in securing employment. The national organization contributed approximately \$45,000 toward the maintenance of the employment bureau.

From the very beginning the loyal aid of the Jewish people throughout the country constituted a most important factor in the conduct of the Board's activities. One hundred and sixty-five local branches were formed in the United States, which operated through committees made up of men and women, who supplied entertainments and home hospitality, furnished Rabbis for the camps, comforted the sick, and placed the religious and recreational facilities of the communities at the disposal of the Board, for the benefit of the enlisted men.

The Women's Committees co-operated with the Red Cross in furnishing comfort articles and wearing apparel. In 52 cities, Centers were maintained as club quarters where soldiers, sailors and marines always found a congenial and friendly greeting. On the occasion of the return of the veterans to their home cities the Branches arranged welcome home celebrations.

#### Activities Overseas

The welfare activities overseas was substantially the same program carried out in this country. A total of 178 men and women were stationed at 57

overseas centers. There were 1740 religious services held, attended by more than 180,000 men. All Jewish holidays and festivals were fittingly observed, particularly the high holidays and the Passover celebration. In 1919, 24 Sedars (Passover Suppers), attended by 30,000 soldiers of the Allied forces, were held in France, the most notable of which was the one in Paris, at which were present prominent Jewish leaders of the United States and high military and government officials.

In the religious work overseas the Board had the assistance and co-operation of the Jewish Army chaplains. The War Department had delegated to the Jewish Welfare Board the duty of making recommendations for chaplaincies. Twenty-six chaplains of Jewish faith were appointed on the recommendation of the organization. The War Department permitted the Jewish Army chaplains to wear a special insignia consisting of a replica of the Ten Commandments and the Star of David.

Supplies and refreshments were liberally distributed. Entertainments were provided daily, at the principal centers. It is estimated that 2,750,000 soldiers attended over 5,000 entertainments overseas. A total of 40,000 wounded men were visited and served by the workers.

In the course of its educational activities the Board assigned to the Army Educational Corps two members of its staff, one of whom was stationed at the Sorbonne University and the other at the American University at Beaune.

The welfare service was also extended to 60,000 Russian soldiers in France. Over 6,000 Russian prisoners in Germany were supplied with matzoth during the Passover of 1919.

A very important service was the distribution of much-needed supplies. From its inception the Board established the policy of free distribution of all supplies and free admittance to all functions and entertainments conducted under its auspices.

An important service undertaken subsequent to the Armistice was the registration of graves of Jewish dead and service to the families of the deceased. Investigations were made of the names found in the files of the American Red Cross, and the Cemeterial Division of the War Department, of those who were probably Jewish, and where the Jewish identity of the deceased was definitely established the Board made proper certification so that the head-board of the grave might be correctly marked. A photograph was then taken of the burial place, and forwarded to the National Office in New York and transmitted in turn to the family. Suitable provision has been made for the care of graves of Hebrew men whose bodies remain with their fellow comrades on the field of battle.

The extensive operations of the Jewish Welfare Board in this country and overseas was made possible because of the generous gifts of the American people.

The Board gratefully acknowledges receipt of war work funds as follows:

General War Work Campaign Fund .....	\$3,799,973.30
Special Joint Campaign Drives .....	720,833.71
Jewish War Relief—New York City Campaign.....	898,543.04
Miscellaneous Donations .....	502,345.23
Interest .....	250,394.02
Salvage .....	143,374.48

Total Receipts .....\$6,315,463.78



















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